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SECTION 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. SCOPE OF THE SPECIFICATIONS

The provisions of these Specifications are intended for the design, evaluation, and rehabilitation of fixed bridges. Mechanical, electrical, and special vehicular and pedestrian safety aspects of movable bridges, however, are not covered. Provisions are not included for bridges used solely for railway, rail-transit, or public utilities. For bridges not fully covered herein, the provisions of these Specifications may be applied, as augmented with additional design criteria where required.

These Specifications are not intended to supplant proper training or the exercise of judgment by the Designer, and state only the minimum requirements necessary to provide for public safety. The Owner or the Designer may require the sophistication of design or the quality of materials and construction to be higher than the minimum requirements.

The concepts of safety through redundancy and ductility and of protection against scour and collision are emphasized.

The design provisions of these Specifications employ the Load and Resistance Factor Design (LRFD) methodology. The factors have been developed from the theory of reliability based on current statistical knowledge of loads and structural performance.

Methods of analysis other than those included in previous Specifications and the modeling techniques inherent in them are included, and their use is encouraged.

Seismic design shall be in accordance with either the provisions in these Specifications or those given in the [AASHTO Guide Specifications for LRFD Seismic Bridge Design](#).

Construction specifications consistent with these design specifications are the [MA-100-C-V1/1](#). Unless otherwise specified, the Material Specifications referenced herein are the [AASHTO Standard Specifications for Transportation Materials and Methods of Sampling and Testing](#).

- C Horizontally curved concrete girders are not fully covered and were not part of the calibration data base.
- C The term "notional" is often used in these Specifications to indicate an idealization of a physical phenomenon, as in "notional load" or "notional resistance." Use of this term strengthens the separation of an engineer's "notion" or perception of the physical world in the context of design from the physical reality itself.
- C The term "shall" denotes a requirement for compliance with these Specifications.
- C The term "should" indicates a strong preference for a given criterion.
- C The term "may" indicates a criterion that is usable, but other local and suitably documented, verified, and approved criterion may also be used in a manner consistent with the LRFD approach to bridge design.

1.2. DEFINITIONS

<i>Bridge</i>	: Any structure having an opening not less than 6.1 m that forms part of a highway or that is located over or under a highway.
<i>Collapse</i>	: A major change in the geometry of the bridge rendering it unfit for use.
<i>Component</i>	: Either a discrete element of the bridge or a combination of elements requiring individual design consideration.
<i>Design</i>	: Proportioning and detailing the components and connections of a bridge.
<i>Design Life</i>	: Period of time on which the statistical derivation of transient loads is based 75 years for these Specifications.
<i>Ductility</i>	: Property of a component or connection that allows inelastic response.
<i>Engineer</i>	: Person responsible for the design of the bridge and/or review of design-related field submittals such as erection plans.
<i>Evaluation</i>	: Determination of load-carrying capacity of an existing bridge.
<i>Extreme Event Limit States</i>	: Limit states relating to events such as earthquakes, vehicle and vessel collision, with return periods in excess of the design life of the bridge.
<i>Factored Load</i>	: The nominal loads multiplied by the appropriate load factors specified for the load combination under consideration.
<i>Factored Resistance</i>	: The nominal resistance multiplied by a resistance factor.
<i>Fixed Bridge</i>	: A bridge with a fixed vehicular or navigational clearance.
<i>Force Effect</i>	: A deformation, stress, or stress resultant (i.e., axial force, shear force, torsional, or flexural moment) caused by applied loads, imposed deformations, or volumetric changes.
<i>Limit State</i>	: A condition beyond which the bridge or component ceases to satisfy the provisions for which it was designed.
<i>Load and Resistance Factor Design (LRFD)</i>	: A reliability-based design methodology in which force effects caused by factored loads are not permitted to exceed the factored resistance of the components.
<i>Load Factor</i>	: A statistically-based multiplier applied to force effects accounting primarily for the variability of loads, the lack of accuracy in analysis, and the probability of simultaneous occurrence of different loads, but also related to the statistics of the resistance through the calibration process.
<i>Load Modifier</i>	: A factor accounting for ductility, redundancy, and the operational importance of the bridge.
<i>MA-100-C-VI/I</i>	: MOMRA Bridges Construction Specification.

<i>Model</i>	: An idealization of a structure for the purpose of analysis.
<i>MOMRA</i>	: Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs.
<i>Movable Bridge</i>	: A bridge with a variable vehicular or navigational clearance.
<i>Multiple-Load-Path Structure</i>	: A structure capable of supporting the specified loads following loss of a main Load-carrying component or connection.
<i>Nominal Resistance</i>	: Resistance of a component or connection to force effects, as indicated by the dimensions specified in the contract documents and by permissible stresses, deformations, or specified strength of materials.
<i>Owner</i>	: Person or agency having jurisdiction over the bridge.
<i>Regular Service</i>	: Condition excluding the presence of special permit vehicles, wind exceeding 90 km/h, and extreme events, including scour.
<i>Rehabilitation</i>	: A process in which the resistance of the bridge is either restored or increased.
<i>Resistance Factor</i>	: A statistically-based multiplier applied to nominal resistance accounting primarily for variability of material properties, structural dimensions and workmanship, and uncertainty in the prediction of resistance, but also related to the statistics of the loads through the calibration process.
<i>Service Life</i>	: The period of time that the bridge is expected to be in operation.
<i>Service Limit States</i>	: Limit states relating to stress, deformation, and cracking under regular operating conditions.
<i>Strength Limit States</i>	: Limit states relating to strength and stability during the design life.

1.3. DESIGN PHILOSOPHY

1.3.1. General

Bridges shall be designed for specified limit states to achieve the objectives of constructibility, safety, and serviceability, with due regard to issues of inspectability, economy, and aesthetics, as specified in Article [2.6](#).

- C The limit states specified herein are intended to provide for a buildable, serviceable bridge, capable of safely carrying design loads for a specified lifetime.

Regardless of the type of analysis used, Eq. [\(1.1\)](#) shall be satisfied for all specified force effects and combinations thereof.

- C The resistance of components and connections is determined, in many cases, on the basis of inelastic behavior, although the force effects are determined by using elastic analysis. This inconsistency is common to most current bridge specifications as a result of incomplete knowledge of inelastic structural action.

1.3.2. Limit States

1.3.2.1. General

Each component and connection shall satisfy Eq.(1.1) for each limit state, unless otherwise specified. For service and extreme event limit states, resistance factors shall be taken as 1.0, except for bolts, for which the provisions of Article 6.5.5 shall apply, and for concrete columns in Seismic Design Categories B, C and D, for which the provisions of Article 5.15.4 and 5.15.5.1.2 shall apply. All limit states shall be considered of equal importance.

$$\sum \eta_i \gamma_i Q_i \leq \Phi R_n = R_r \quad (1.1)$$

In which:

For loads for which a maximum value of γ_i is appropriate

$$\eta_i = \eta_D \eta_R \eta_I \geq 0.95 \quad (1.2)$$

For loads for which a minimum value of γ_i is appropriate:

$$\eta_i = \frac{1}{\eta_D \eta_R \eta_I} \leq 1.0 \quad (1.3)$$

where:

γ_i = load factor: a statistically based multiplier applied to force effects.

ϕ = resistance factor: a statistically based multiplier applied to nominal resistance.

η_i = load modifier: a factor relating to ductility, redundancy, and operational importance.

η_D = a factor relating to ductility, as specified in Article 1.3.3.

η_R = a factor relating to redundancy as specified in Article 1.3.4

η_I = a factor relating to operational importance as specified in Article 1.3.5

Q_i = force effect.

R_n = nominal resistance

R_r = factored resistance: ϕR_n

- C Eq.(1.1) is the basis of LRFD methodology. Assigning resistance factor $\phi = 1.0$ to all nonstrength limit states is a temporary measure; development work is in progress.
- C Ductility, redundancy, and operational importance are significant aspects affecting the margin of safety of bridges. Whereas the first two directly relate to physical strength, the last concerns the consequences of the bridge being out of service. The grouping of these aspects on the load side of Eq.(1.1) is, therefore, arbitrary. However, it constitutes a first effort at codification. In the absence of more precise information, each effect, except that for fatigue and fracture, is estimated as ± 5 percent, accumulated geometrically, a clearly subjective approach. With time, improved quantification of ductility, redundancy, and operational importance, and their interaction and system synergy, may be attained, possibly leading to a rearrangement of Eq.(1.1), in which these effects may appear on either side of the equation or on both sides. NCHRP Project 12-36 is currently addressing the issue of redundancy.
- C The influence of η on the reliability index; β , can be estimated by observing its effect on the minimum values of β calculated in a database of girder-type bridges. For discussion purposes, the girder bridge data used in the calibration of these Specifications was modified by multiplying the total factored loads by $\eta = 0.95, 1.0, 1.05$, and 1.10 . The resulting minimum values of β for 95 combinations of span, spacing, and type of construction were determined to be approximately 3.0, 3.5, 3.8, and 4.0, respectively.

- C A further approximate representation of the effect of η values can be obtained by considering the percent of random normal data less than or equal to the mean value plus $\lambda\sigma$, where λ is a multiplier, and σ is the standard deviation of the data. If λ is taken as 3.0, 3.5, 3.8, and 4.0, the percent of values less than or equal to the mean value plus $\lambda\sigma$ would be about 99.865 percent, 99.977 percent, 99.993 percent, and 99.997 percent, respectively.

1.3.2.2. Service Limit State

The service limit state shall be taken as restrictions on stress, deformation, and crack width under regular service conditions.

- C The service limit state provides certain experience-related provisions that cannot always be derived solely from strength or statistical considerations.

1.3.2.3. Fatigue and Fracture Limit State

The fatigue limit state shall be taken as restrictions on stress range as a result of a single design truck occurring at the number of expected stress range cycles.

The fracture limit state shall be taken as a set of material toughness requirements of the **AASHTO Material Specifications**.

- C The fatigue limit state is intended to limit crack growth under repetitive loads to prevent fracture during the design life of the bridge.

1.3.2.4. Strength limit state

Strength limit state shall be taken to ensure that strength and stability, both local and global, are provided to resist the specified statistically significant load combinations that a bridge is expected to experience in its design life.

- C The strength limit state considers stability or yielding of each structural element. If the resistance of any element, including splices and connections, is exceeded, it is assumed that the bridge resistance has been exceeded. In fact, in multi-girder cross-sections there is significant elastic reserve capacity in almost all such bridges beyond such a load level. The live load cannot be positioned to maximize the force effects on all parts of the cross-section simultaneously. Thus, the flexural resistance of the bridge cross-section typically exceeds the resistance required for the total live load that can be applied in the number of lanes available. Extensive distress and structural damage may occur under strength limit state, but overall structural integrity is expected to be maintained.

1.3.2.5. Extreme Event Limit States

The extreme event limit state shall be taken to ensure the structural survival of a bridge during a major earthquake or flood, or when collided by a vessel, vehicle, or ice flow, possibly under scoured conditions.

- C Extreme event limit states are considered to be unique occurrences whose return period may be significantly greater than the design life of the bridge.

1.3.3. Ductility

The structural system of a bridge shall be proportioned and detailed to ensure the development of significant and visible inelastic deformations at the strength and extreme event limit states before failure.

It may be assumed that the requirements for ductility are satisfied for a concrete structure in which the resistance of a connection is not less than 1.3 times the maximum force effect imposed on the connection by the inelastic action of the adjacent components.

Energy-dissipating devices may be accepted as means of providing ductility.

For the strength limit state:

- $\eta_D \geq 1.05$ for non-ductile components and connections.
- $= 1.00$ for conventional designs and details complying with these Specifications.
- ≥ 0.95 For components and connections for which additional ductility-enhancing measures have been specified beyond those required by these Specifications.

For all other limit states: $\eta_D = 1.00$

- C The response of structural components or connections beyond the elastic limit can be characterized by either brittle or ductile behavior. Brittle behavior is undesirable because it implies the sudden loss of load-carrying capacity immediately when the elastic limit is exceeded. Ductile behavior is characterized by significant inelastic deformations before any loss of load-carrying capacity occurs. Ductile behavior provides warning of structural failure by large inelastic deformations. Under repeated seismic loading, large reversed cycles of inelastic deformation dissipate energy and have a beneficial effect on structural survival.
- C If, by means of confinement or other measures, a structural component or connection made of brittle materials can sustain inelastic deformations without significant loss of load-carrying capacity, this component can be considered ductile. Such ductile performance shall be verified by testing.
- C In order to achieve adequate inelastic behavior the system should have a sufficient number of ductile members and either:
- Joints and connections that are also ductile and can provide energy dissipation without loss of capacity; or
 - Joints and connections that have sufficient excess strength so as to assure that the inelastic response occurs at the locations designed to provide ductile, energy absorbing response.
- C Statically ductile, but dynamically non-ductile response characteristics should be avoided. Examples of this behavior are shear and bond failures in concrete members and loss of composite action in flexural components.
- C Past experience indicates that typical components designed in accordance with these provisions generally exhibit adequate ductility. Connection and joints require special attention to detailing and the provision of load paths.
- C The Owner may specify a minimum ductility factor as an assurance that ductile failure modes will be obtained.
- C The factor may be defined as:

$$\mu = \frac{\Delta_u}{\Delta_y} \quad (1.4)$$

- C where:

Δ_u = deformation at ultimate

Δ_y = deformation at the elastic limit

- C The ductility capacity of structural components or connections may either be established by full- or large scale testing or with analytical models based on documented material behavior. The ductility capacity for a structural system may be determined by integrating local deformations over the entire structural system.
- C The special requirements for energy dissipating devices are imposed because of the rigorous demands placed on these components.

1.3.4. Redundancy

Multiple-load-path and continuous structures should be used unless there are compelling reasons not to use them.

Main elements and components whose failure is expected to cause the collapse of the bridge shall be designated as failure-critical and the associated structural system as non-redundant. Alternatively, failure-critical members in tension may be designated fracture-critical.

Those elements and components whose failure is not expected to cause collapse of the bridge shall be designated as non-failure-critical and the associated structural system as redundant.

For the strength limit state:

$$\begin{aligned}\eta_R &\geq 1.05 \text{ For non-redundant members.} \\ &= 1.00 \text{ For conventional levels of redundancy} \\ &\geq 0.95 \text{ For exceptional levels of redundancy}\end{aligned}$$

For all other limit states: $\eta_R = 1.00$

- C For each load combination and limit state under consideration, member redundancy classification (redundant or non-redundant) should be based upon the member contribution to the bridge safety. Several redundancy measures have been proposed (Frangopol and Nakib, 1991).

1.3.5. Operational Importance

This article shall apply to the strength and extreme event limit states only.

The Owner may declare a bridge or any structural component and connection thereof to be of operational importance.

- C Such classification should be based on social/survival and/or security/defense requirements. The commentary to Article 3.9.3 provides some guidance on selecting importance categories as they relate to design for earthquakes. This information can be generalized for other situations.

For the strength limit state:

$$\begin{aligned}\eta_I &\geq 1.05 \text{ For important bridges} \\ &= 1.00 \text{ For typical bridges} \\ &\geq 0.95 \text{ For relatively less important bridges.}\end{aligned}$$

For all other limit states: $\eta_I = 1.00$

- C Three levels of importance are specified in Article 3.9.3 with respect to seismic design: "critical," "essential," and "other." For the purposes of this Article, bridges classified as "critical" or "essential" in Article 3.9.3 should be considered of "operational importance."

1.4. REFERENCES

AASHTO LRFD BRIDGE DESIGN SPECIFICATION, 4th Edition 2007

AASHTO LRFD BRIDGE DESIGN SPECIFICATION 2007, Interim Revision 2008.

AASHTO. *Guide Specifications for LRFD Seismic Bridge Design*

AASHTO 2005. *Standard Specifications for Transportation Materials and Methods of Sampling and Testing, 25th Edition, HM-25.*

AASHTO. *Material Specifications.*

Frangopol, D. M., and R. Nakib. 1991. "Redundancy in Highway Bridges." *Engineering Journal*, American Institute of Steel Construction, Chicago, IL, Vol. 28, No.1, pp. 45-50.

MOMRA. *Bridge Construction Specifications.*

SECTION 2. GENERAL DESIGN AND LOCATION FEATURES

2.1. SCOPE

This Section is intended to provide the Designer with sufficient information to determine the configuration and overall dimensions of a bridge.

Minimum requirements are provided for clearances, environmental protection, aesthetics, geological studies, economy, rideability, durability, constructibility, inspectability, and maintainability. Minimum requirements for traffic safety are referenced.

Minimum requirements for drainage facilities and self-protecting measures against water, ice, and water-borne salts are included.

In recognition that many bridge failures have been caused by scour, hydrology and pertinent hydraulic events are covered in detail.

2.2. DEFINITIONS

- Aggradation* : A general and progressive buildup or raising of the longitudinal profile of the channel bed as a result of sediment deposition.
- Check Flood for Bridge Scour* : Check flood for scour. The flood resulting from storm, storm surge, and/or tide having a flow rate in excess of the design flood for scour, but in no case a flood with a recurrence interval exceeding the typically used 500 years. The check flood for bridge scour is used in the investigation and assessment of a bridge foundation to determine whether the foundation can withstand that flow and its associated scour and remain stable with no reserve. See also superflood.
- Clear Zone* : An unobstructed, relatively flat area beyond the edge of the traveled way for the recovery of errant vehicles. The traveled way does not include shoulders or auxiliary lanes.
- Clearance* : An unobstructed horizontal or vertical space.
- Degradation* : A general and progressive lowering of the longitudinal profile of the channel bed as a result of long-term erosion.
- Design Discharge* : Maximum flow of water a bridge is expected to accommodate without exceeding the adopted design constraints.
- Design Flood for Bridge Scour* : The flood flow equal to or less than the 100-year flood that creates the deepest scour at bridge foundations. The highway or bridge may be inundated at the stage of the design flood for bridge scour. The worst-case scour condition may occur for the overtopping flood as a result of the potential for pressure flow.

<i>Design Flood for Waterway Opening</i>	: The peak discharge, volume, stage, or wave crest elevation and its associated probability of exceedence that are selected for the design of a highway or bridge over a watercourse or floodplain. By definition, the highway or bridge will not be inundated at the stage of the design flood for the waterway opening.
<i>Detention Basin</i>	: A stormwater management facility that impounds runoff and temporarily discharges it through a hydraulic outlet structure to a downstream conveyance system.
<i>Drip Groove</i>	: Linear depression in the bottom of components to cause water flowing on the surface to drop.
<i>Five-Hundred-Year Flood</i>	: The flood due to storm and/or tide having a 0.2 % chance of being equaled or exceeded in any given year.
<i>General or Contraction Scour</i>	: Scour in a channel or on a floodplain that is not localized at a pier or other obstruction to flow. In a channel, general/contraction scour usually affects all or most of the channel width and is typically caused by a contraction of the flow.
<i>Hydraulics</i>	: The science concerned with the behavior and flow of liquids, especially in pipes and channels.
<i>Hydrology</i>	: The science concerned with the occurrence, distribution, and circulation of water on the earth, including precipitation, runoff, and groundwater.
<i>Local Scour</i>	: Scour in a channel or on a floodplain that is localized at a pier, abutment, or other obstruction to flow.
<i>Mixed Population Flood</i>	: Flood flows derived from two or more causative factors, e.g., a spring tide driven by hurricane-generated onshore winds or rainfall on a snowpack.
<i>One-Hundred-Year Flood</i>	: The flood due to storm and/or tide having a 1% chance of being equaled or exceeded in any given year.
<i>Overtopping Flood</i>	: The flood flow that, if exceeded, results in flow over a highway or bridge, over a watershed divide, or through structures provided for emergency relief. The worst-case scour condition may be caused by the overtopping flood.
<i>Relief Bridge</i>	: An opening in an embankment on a floodplain to permit passage of overbank flow.
<i>River Training Structure</i>	: Any configuration constructed in a stream or placed on, adjacent to, or in the vicinity of a streambank to deflect current, induce sediment deposition, induce scour, or in some other way alter the flow and sediment regimens of the stream.
<i>Scupper</i>	: A device to drain water through the deck.
<i>Sidewalk Width</i>	: Unobstructed space for exclusive pedestrian use between barriers or between a curb and a barrier.

<i>Spring Tide</i>	: A tide of increased range that occurs about every two weeks when the moon is full or new.
<i>Stable Channel</i>	: A condition that exists when a stream has a bed slope and cross-section that allows its channel to transport the water and sediment delivered from the upstream watershed without significant degradation, aggradation, or bank erosion.
<i>Stream Geomorphology</i>	: The study of a stream and its floodplain with regard to its land forms, the general configuration of its surface, and the changes that take place due to erosion and the buildup of erosional debris.
<i>Superelevation</i>	: A tilting of the roadway surface to partially counterbalance the centrifugal forces on vehicles on horizontal curves.
<i>Superflood</i>	: Any flood or tidal flow with a flow rate greater than that of the 100-year flood but not greater than a 500-year flood.
<i>Tide</i>	: The periodic rise and fall of the earth's ocean that results from the effect of the moon and sun acting on a rotating earth.
<i>Watershed</i>	: An area confined by drainage divides, and often having only one outlet for discharge; the total drainage area contributing runoff to a single point.
<i>Waterway</i>	: Any stream, river, pond, lake, or ocean.
<i>Waterway Opening</i>	: Width or area of bridge opening at a specified stage, and measured normal to principal direction of flow.

2.3. LOCATION FEATURES

2.3.1. Route Location

2.3.1.1. General

The choice of location of bridges shall be supported by analyses of alternatives with consideration given to economic, engineering, social, and environmental concerns as well as costs of maintenance and inspection associated with the structures and with the relative importance of the above-noted concerns.

Attention, commensurate with the risk involved, shall be directed toward providing for favorable bridge locations that:

- Fit the conditions created by the obstacle being crossed;
- Facilitate practical cost effective design, construction, operation, inspection and maintenance;
- Provide for the desired level of traffic service and safety; and
- Minimize adverse highway impacts.

2.3.1.2. Waterway and Floodplain Crossings

Waterway crossings shall be located with regard to initial capital costs of construction and the optimization of total costs, including river channel training works

and the maintenance measures necessary to reduce erosion. Studies of alternative crossing locations should include assessments of:

- The hydrologic and hydraulic characteristics of the waterway and its floodplain, including channel stability, flood history, and, in estuarine crossings, tidal ranges and cycles;
- The effect of the proposed bridge on flood flow patterns and the resulting scour potential at bridge foundations;
- The potential for creating new or augmenting existing flood hazards; and
- Environmental impacts on the waterway and its floodplain.

Bridges and their approaches on floodplains should be located and designed with regard to the goals and objectives of floodplain management, including:

- Prevention of uneconomic, hazardous, or incompatible use and development of floodplains;
- Avoidance of significant transverse and longitudinal encroachments, where practicable;
- Minimization of adverse highway impacts and mitigation of unavoidable impacts, where practicable;
- Consistency with the intent of the standards;
- Long-term aggradation or degradation; and
- Commitments made to obtain environmental approvals.

C It is generally safer and more cost effective to avoid hydraulic problems through the selection of favorable crossing locations than to attempt to minimize the problems at a later time in the project development process through design measures.

C Experience at existing bridges should be part of the calibration or verification of hydraulic models, if possible. Evaluation of the performance of existing bridges during past floods is often helpful in selecting the type, size, and location of new bridges.

2.3.2. Bridge Site Arrangement

2.3.2.1. General

The location and the alignment of the bridge should be selected to satisfy both on-bridge and under-bridge traffic requirements. Consideration should be given to possible future variations in alignment or width of the waterway, highway, or railway spanned by the bridge.

Where appropriate, consideration should be given to future addition of mass-transit facilities or bridge widening.

C Although the location of a bridge structure over a waterway is usually determined by other considerations than the hazards of vessel collision, the following preferences should be considered where possible and practical:

- Locating the bridge away from bends in the navigation channel. The distance to the bridge should be such that vessels can line up before passing the bridge, usually eight times the length of the vessel. This distance should be increased further where high currents and winds are prevalent at the site.
- Crossing the navigation channel near right angles and symmetrically with respect to the navigation channel.

- Providing an adequate distance from locations with congested navigation, vessel berthing maneuvers or other navigation problems.
- Locating the bridge where the waterway is shallow or narrow and the bridge piers could be located out of vessel reach.

2.3.2.2. Traffic Study Requirement for the intersections:

Traffic study on the intersection should be conducted before deciding the type of the interchange, Underpass or overpass. The traffic study should identify the reason and causes of choosing one of the solutions of traffic jam. The solution should be most effective to facilitate the performance of the intersection considering the minimum cost of the construction.

Traffic stud scope of work, should include the following stages:

1. First Stage: Traffic Data Collection and survey:

This study should begin with reviewing all previous studies, transportation, traffic data by the relevant authorities of roads and traffic in the study area with a focus on plans and maps of road networks, future plans for roads, land use, functional classification of roads, traffic volumes, traffic accidents, pedestrian traffic, parking, the existing traffic control devices, and any other data available related to transportation and traffic in the study area.

All other data should be completed by the designer or the engineer to complete the collection of data necessary to study the field, which includes the field survey and the current status of intersections furniture's, automatic Traffic Count to collect the volumes of traffic and changes during the study period and hours of the day and determine the times of peak hours, Manual Traffic Count during peak hours to know the sizes of traffic turning movements on the intersection, vehicle classification to determine ratios of various types of vehicles.

2. Second Stage: Analysis of Intersection Traffic Serves Level:

All intersections should be analyzed: whether it is at grade intersections or in the form of bridges or underpasses, without control signal or stop sign or signal light or rotation square. Also, Level of Serves for all intersections should be conduct and determine the current and future (15-20 years old) using specialized programs such as (HCS) or (SIDRA) and determine the operational efficiency and verification of the justification of different controlling methods according to manual and specifications.

3. Third Stage: Traffic Study Recommendations:

Suggestions and alternatives solutions to improve the level of service and improve the efficiency of intersections should be provided in this stage based on the results of analysis of the current and future situation. The best alternative should be taken to improve the intersection performance, according to its type (without a light signal, a signal light), giving priority to alternatives that do not require radical changes in the intersection that require huge construction, but limited to minor adjustments on the

geometric plan of the intersection or programming of the light signal, and are relatively inexpensive. However, in case of failure of these alternatives, major solution should be considered as solutions that require expansion of the intersection with the neighboring land holdings and / or the establishment of bridges or underpasses.

4. Fourth Stage: Plans and Report Submittals:

In the first stage of the study, a reviews of the available studies and information available in the stakeholders should be submitted and provide a methodology plan of traffic study and possible estimates of the time schedule of the study required to do the required work. Presentation the results of this stage can be produced in the form of reports and charts to be reviewed and audited and approved from the owner.

The final report of the study can be provided after receiving the results of a review and auditing from the owner of the project studies and plans submitted in the first draft, where the final version of the study and plans can be prepared, which include traffic volumes for the design and estimation of the traffic role of the links and intersections legs of the study with the rest of the road network and estimate traffic on links and junctions sections of the study, which will be the basis for design in determining the functions of all the links and sections and the type of intersection.

2.3.2.3. Traffic Safety

1. Protection of Structures

Consideration shall be given to safe passage of vehicles on or under a bridge. The hazard to errant vehicles within the clear zone should be minimized by locating obstacles at a safe distance from the travel lanes.

Pier columns or walls for grade separation structures should be located in conformance with the clear zone concept as contained in **MOT GUIDE**. Where the practical limits of structure costs, type of structure, volume and design speed of through traffic, span arrangement, skew, and terrain make conformance with the **MOT GUIDE**, the pier or wall should be protected by the use of guardrail or other barrier devices.

The guardrail or other device should, if practical, be independently supported, with its roadway face at least 600 mm from the face of pier or abutment, unless a rigid barrier is provided.

The face of the guardrail or other device should be at least 600 mm outside the normal shoulder line.

- C The intent of providing structurally independent barriers is to prevent transmission of force effects from the barrier to the structure to be protected.

2. Protection of Users

Railings shall be provided along the edges of structures conforming to the requirements of [section 11](#).

All protective structures shall have adequate surface features and transitions to safely redirect errant traffic.

- C Protective structures include those that provide a safe and controlled separation of traffic on multimodal facilities using the same right-of-way.

In the case of movable bridges, warning signs, lights, signal bells, gates, barriers, and other safety devices shall be provided for the protection of pedestrian, cyclists, and vehicular traffic.

Where specified by the Owner, sidewalks shall be protected by barriers.

- C Special conditions, such as curved alignment, impeded visibility, etc., may justify barrier protection, even with low design velocities.

3. Geometric Standards

Requirements of the **MOT GUIDE** for highway and Streets shall either be satisfied or exceptions thereto shall be justified and documented. Width of shoulders and geometry of traffic barriers shall meet the specifications of the Owner.

4. Road Surfaces

Road surfaces on a bridge shall be given antiskid characteristics, crown, drainage, and super-elevation in accordance local requirements.

5. Vessel Collisions

Bridge structures shall either be protected against vessel collision forces by fenders, dikes, or dolphins as specified in Article [3.13.15](#), or shall be designed to withstand collision force effects as specified in Article [3.13.14](#).

- C The need for dolphin and fender systems can be eliminated at some bridges by judicious placement of bridge piers. Guidance on use of dolphin and fender systems is included in the **AASHTO Highway Drainage Guidelines, Volume 7; Hydraulic Analyses for the Location and Design of Bridges; and the AASHTO Guide Specification and Commentary for Vessel Collision Design of Highway Bridges**.

2.3.3. Clearances

2.3.3.1. Navigational

Permits for construction of a bridge over navigable waterways shall be obtained from the K.S.A Coast Guard and/or other agencies having jurisdiction. Navigational clearances, both vertical and horizontal, shall be established in cooperation with the K.S.A Coast Guard.

- C Where bridge permits are required, early coordination should be initiated with the K.S.A Coast Guard to evaluate the needs of navigation and the corresponding location and design requirements for the bridge.

2.3.3.2. Highway Vertical

The vertical clearance of highway structures shall be in conformance with the **MOT GUIDE of Highways and Streets for the Functional Classification of the Highway** or exceptions thereto shall be justified. Possible reduction of vertical clearance, due to settlement of an overpass structure, shall be investigated. If the expected settlement exceeds 25 mm, it shall be added to the specified clearance.

- C The specified minimum clearance should include 150 mm for possible future overlays. If overlays are not contemplated by the Owner, this requirement may be nullified.

The vertical clearance to sign supports and pedestrian overpasses should be 0.5 m greater than the highway structure clearance, and the vertical clearance from the roadway to the overhead cross bracing of through-truss structures should not be less than 5.5 m.

- C Sign supports, pedestrian bridges, and overhead cross bracings require the higher clearance because of their lesser resistance to impact.

2.3.3.3. Highway Horizontal

The bridge width shall not be less than that of the approach roadway section, including shoulders or curbs, gutters, and sidewalks.

- C The usable width of the shoulders should generally be taken as the paved width.

Horizontal clearance under a bridge should meet the requirements of Article [2.3.2.3.1](#).

No object on or under a bridge, other than a barrier, should be located closer than 1.2 m to the edge of a designated traffic lane. The inside face of a barrier should not be closer than 0.6 m to either the face of the object or the edge of a designated traffic lane.

- C The specified minimum distances between the edge of the traffic lane and fixed object are intended to prevent collision with slightly errant vehicles and those carrying wide loads.

2.3.3.4. Railroad Overpass

Structures designed to pass over a railroad shall be in accordance with standards established and used by the affected railroad in its normal practice. These overpass structures shall comply with applicable local laws.

Regulations, codes, and standards should, as a minimum, meet the specifications and design standards of the American Railway Engineering and Maintenance of Way Association (AREMA), the Association of American Railroads, and AASHTO.

- C Attention is particularly called to the following chapters in the Manual for Railway Engineering (AREMA, 2003):

- Chapter 8-Concrete Structures and Foundations,
- Chapter 9-Highway-Railroad Crossings,
- Chapter 15- Steel Structures, and
- Chapter 18-Clearances.

- C The provisions of the individual railroads and the **AREMA Manual** should be used to determine:

- Clearances,
- Loadings,
- Pier protection,
- Waterproofing, and
- Blast protection.

2.3.4. Environment

The impact of a bridge and its approaches on local communities, historic sites, wetlands, and other aesthetically, environmentally, and ecologically sensitive areas shall be considered. Compliance with region water laws; local regulations concerning encroachment on floodplains, fish, and wildlife habitats; shall be assured. Stream geomorphology, consequences of riverbed scour, removal of embankment stabilizing vegetation, and, where appropriate, impacts to estuarine tidal dynamics shall be considered.

- C Stream, i.e., fluvial, geomorphology is a study of the structure and formation of the earth's features that result from the forces of water. For purposes of this Section, this involves evaluating the streams, potential for aggradation, degradation, or lateral migration.

2.4. REQUIREMENTS OF UTILITIES STUDY, FUTURE AND EXISTING

The study of existing utilities networks, as water and sanitation, electricity, telephone and other networks are required. Identifying conflicts locatoin with the designed intersections and developing the appropriate solutions to these conflicts, may impact of several aspects (economic, architectural, environmental, social ... etc) on the project and the surrounding environment of the project. In addition to maintain vital facilities and upgrading of existing one, and when studying the roads within the cities, the issue of maintaining existing services, conversion and the establishment of networks, new services, consider a key element that should be taken into account from the beginning. Therefore, design engineer should prepare a study of service utilities lines in accordance with the following requirements:

1. Stages of the Utilities Services Transferring Study:

- Coordination with all of services agencies (Ministry of Water and Electricity, Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, Saudi Telecom, Mobily, the Saudi Electricity Company) and any others agencies appear that their services or projects pending in the area to determine the lines of networks of current and future services within the boundaries of the project and known by those entities.
- Preparation of maps shown the utilities lines of existing services and future and how it interferes with the study intersections and facilities of the bridges and tunnels.
- Get all the necessary information available to any future projects may be affected by or affect the study and design of the intersections.
- Provide plans of all services and levels of networks lines for different services within the boundaries of the project or may be affected by it, and complete the topographic survey for the parts within the project that do not have plans.
- Review the utilities lines of future network studies, installations and sites and determine the forms of possible conflicts with the work of the project.
- Matching utilities lines, paths and levels of current and future services with the study intersections to identify areas of conflict.

2. Reporting of Utilities Services Transferring Study:

- At this stage, the designer should prepare the proposals and recommendations for changes and possible solutions for the intersection study and utilities networks.
- Developing the preliminary solutions for new project utilities, especially for lighting networks and communications, drainage and linked it with existing networks and the necessary adjustments of these networks.
- Discussing the possible solutions to remove conflicts with the related agencies and coordination for the adoption of the best solutions in terms of technical and economic point of supervision by the project.
- Providing the reports and letters and minutes of meetings and coordinating plans for the proposed solutions, and the solutions adopted in coordination with the related agencies.

3. Reports, Plans of the Utilities Services Study:

In the first stage of the study, the first draft and plans for the solution adopted by the competent authorities and by the supervising authority should be submitted to remove the conflicts resulting from the project with the existing utilities services and future

lines and new networks associated with the project and the link between the networks of old and new, and the preparation of maps and plans for it. The study and plans should be provided for auditing and review.

The final report of the study can be provided after receiving the results of a review and auditing from the owner of the project studies and plans submitted in the first draft, where the final version of the study and plans can be prepared, which include the design and plans and all details and specification and table of quantities of the required work.

2.5. FOUNDATION INVESTIGATION

2.5.1. General

A subsurface investigation, including borings and soil tests, shall be conducted in accordance with the provisions of Article 8.4 to provide pertinent and sufficient information for the design of substructure units. The type and cost of foundations should be considered in the economic and aesthetic studies for location and bridge alternate selection.

2.5.2. Topographic Studies

Current topography of the bridge site shall be established via contour maps and photographs. Such studies shall include the history of the site in terms of movement of earth masses, soil and rock erosion, and meandering of waterways.

2.6. DESIGN OBJECTIVES

2.6.1. Safety

The primary responsibility of the Engineer shall be providing for the safety of the public.

- C Minimum requirements to ensure the structural safety of bridges as conveyances are included in these Specifications. The philosophy of achieving adequate structural safety is outlined in Article 1.3.

2.6.2. Serviceability

2.6.2.1. Durability

1. Materials

- C The intent of this Article is to recognize the significance of corrosion and deterioration of structural materials to the long-term performance of a bridge.

The contract documents shall call for quality materials and for the application of high standards of fabrication and erection.

Structural steel shall be self-protecting, or have longlife coating systems or cathodic protection.

Reinforcing bars and prestressing strands in concrete components, which may be expected to be exposed to airborne or waterborne salts, shall be protected by an appropriate combination of epoxy and/or galvanized coating, concrete cover, density, or chemical composition of concrete, including air-entrainment and a nonporous painting of the concrete surface or cathodic protection.

Prestress strands in cable ducts shall be grouted or otherwise protected against corrosion.

- C Other than the deterioration of the concrete deck itself, the single most prevalent bridge maintenance problem is the disintegration of beam ends, bearings, pedestals, piers, and abutments due to percolation of waterborne road salts through the deck joints. Experience appears to indicate that a structurally continuous deck provides the best protection for components below the deck. The potential consequences of the use of road salts on structures with unfilled steel decks and unstressed wood decks should be taken into account.

Protection shall be provided to materials susceptible to damage from solar radiation and/or air pollution.

Consideration shall be given to the durability of materials in direct contact with soil and/or water.

- C These Specifications permit the use of discontinuous decks in the absence of substantial use of road salts. Transverse saw-cut relief joints in cast-in-place concrete decks have been found to be of no practical value where composite action is present. Economy, due to structural continuity and the absence of expansion joints, will usually favor the application of continuous decks, regardless of location.
- C Stringers made simply supported by sliding joints, with or without slotted bolt holes, tend to "freeze" due to the accumulation of corrosion products and cause maintenance problems. Because of the general availability of computers, analysis of continuous decks is no longer a problem.
- C Experience indicates that, from the perspective of durability, all joints should be considered subject to some degree of movement and leakage.

2. Self-Protecting Measures

Continuous drip grooves shall be provided along the underside of a concrete deck at a distance not exceeding 0.25 m from the fascia edges. Where the deck is interrupted by a sealed deck joint, all surfaces of piers and abutments, other than bearing seats, shall have a minimum slope of 5% toward their edges. For open deck joints, this minimum slope shall be increased to 15%. In the case of open deck joints, the bearings shall be protected against contact with salt and debris.

- C Ponding of water has often been observed on the seats of abutments, probably as a result of construction tolerances and/or tilting. The 15 percent slope specified in conjunction with open joints is intended to enable rains to wash away debris and salt.

Wearing surfaces shall be interrupted at the deck joints and shall be provided with a smooth transition to the deck joint device.

- C In the past, for many smaller bridges, no expansion device was provided at the "fixed joint," and the wearing surface was simply run over the joint to give a continuous riding surface. As the rotation center of the superstructure is always below the surface, the "fixed joint" actually moves due to load and environmental effects, causing the wearing surface to crack, leak, and disintegrate.

Steel formwork shall be protected against corrosion in accordance with the specifications of the Owner.

2.6.2.2. Inspectability

Inspection ladders, walkways, catwalks, covered access holes, and provision for lighting, if necessary, shall be provided where other means of inspection are not practical.

- C **The Guide Specifications for Design and Construction of Segmental Concrete Bridges** requires external access hatches with a minimum size of 750 mm x 1200 mm, larger openings at interior diaphragms, and venting by drains or screened vents at intervals of no more than 15 000 mm. These recommendations should be used in bridges designed under these Specifications.

Where practical, access to permit manual or visual inspection, including adequate headroom in box sections, shall be provided to the inside of cellular components and to interface areas, where relative movement may occur.

2.6.2.3. Maintainability

Structural systems whose maintenance is expected to be difficult should be avoided. Where the climatic and/or traffic environment is such that a bridge deck may need to be replaced before the required service life, provisions shall be shown on the contract documents for:

- A contemporary or future protective overlay,
- A future deck replacement
- Supplemental structural resistance.

C Maintenance of traffic during replacement should be provided either by partial width staging of replacement or by the utilization of an adjacent parallel structure.

Areas around bearing seats and under deck joints should be designed to facilitate jacking, cleaning, repair, and replacement of bearings and joints.

Jacking points shall be indicated on the plans, and the structure shall be designed for jacking forces specified in Article [3.4.2.1](#). Inaccessible cavities and corners should be avoided. Cavities that may invite human or animal inhabitants shall either be avoided or made secure.

C Measures for increasing the durability of concrete and wood decks include epoxy coating of reinforcing bars, post-tensioning ducts, and prestressing strands in the deck. Microsilica and/or calcium nitrite additives in the deck concrete, waterproofing membranes, and overlays may be used to protect black steel. See Article [5.18.2.3.10.e](#) for additional requirements regarding overlays.

2.6.2.4. Rideability

The deck of the bridge shall be designed to permit the smooth movement of traffic. On paved roads, a structural transition slab should be located between the approach roadway and the abutment of the bridge. Construction tolerances, with regard to the profile of the finished deck, shall be indicated on the plans or in the specifications or special provisions. The number of deck joints shall be kept to a practical minimum. Edges of joints in concrete decks exposed to traffic should be protected from abrasion and spalling. The plans for prefabricated joints shall specify that the joint assembly be erected as a unit. Where concrete decks without an initial overlay are used, consideration should be given to providing an additional thickness of 10 mm to permit correction of the deck profile by grinding, and to compensate for thickness loss due to abrasion.

2.6.2.5. Utilities

Where required, provisions shall be made to support and maintain the conveyance for utilities.

2.6.2.6. Deformations

1. General

Bridges should be designed to avoid undesirable structural or psychological effects due to their deformations. While deflection and depth limitations are made optional, except for orthotropic plate decks, any large deviation from past successful practice

regarding slenderness and deflections should be cause for review of the design to determine that it will perform adequately.

If dynamic analysis is used, it shall comply with the principles and requirements of Article 4.7.

- C Service load deformations may cause deterioration of wearing surfaces and local cracking in concrete slabs and in metal bridges that could impair serviceability and durability, even if self-limiting and not a potential source of collapse.
- C As early as 1905, attempts were made to avoid these effects by limiting the depth-to-span ratios of trusses and girders, and starting in the 1930s, live load deflection limits were prescribed for the same purpose. In a study of deflection limitations of bridges (ASCE, 1958), an ASCE committee found numerous shortcomings in these traditional approaches and noted, for example,
- C The limited survey conducted by the Committee revealed no evidence of serious structural damage that could be attributed to excessive deflection. The few examples of damaged stringer connections or cracked concrete floors could probably be corrected more effectively by changes in design than by more restrictive limitations on deflection. On the other hand, both the historical study and the results from survey indicate clearly that unfavorable psychological reaction to bridge deflection is probably the most frequent and important source of concern regarding the flexibility of bridges. However, those characteristics of bridge vibration which are considered objectionable by pedestrians or passengers in vehicles cannot yet be defined.
- C Since publication of the study, there has been extensive research on human response to motion. It is now generally agreed that the primary factor affecting human sensitivity is acceleration, rather than deflection, velocity, or the rate of change of acceleration for bridge structures, but the problem is a difficult subjective one. Thus, there are as yet no simple definitive guidelines for the limits of tolerable static deflection or dynamic motion. Among current specifications, the Ontario Highway Bridge Design Code of 1991 contains the most comprehensive provisions regarding vibrations tolerable to humans.

For straight skewed steel girder bridges and horizontally curved steel girder bridges with or without skewed supports, the following additional investigations shall be considered:

- Elastic vertical, lateral, and rotational deflections due to applicable load combinations shall be considered to ensure satisfactory service performance of bearings, joints, integral abutments, and piers.
 - Computed girder rotations at bearings should be accumulated over the Engineer's assumed construction sequence. Computed rotations at bearings shall not exceed the specified rotational capacity of the bearings for the accumulated factored loads corresponding to the stage investigated.
 - Camber diagrams shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.7.2 and may reflect the computed accumulated deflections due to the Engineer's assumed construction sequence.
- C Horizontally curved steel bridges are subjected to torsion resulting in larger lateral deflections and twisting than tangent bridges. Therefore, rotations due to dead load and thermal forces tend to have a larger effect on the performance of bearings and expansion joints of curved bridges.
 - C Bearing rotations during construction may exceed the dead load rotations computed for the completed bridge, in particular at skewed supports. Identification of this temporary situation may be critical to ensure the bridge can be built without damaging the bearings or expansion devices.

2. Criteria for Deflection

- C These provisions permit, but do not encourage, the use of past practice for deflection control. Designers were permitted to exceed these limits at their discretion in the past. Calculated deflections of structures have often been found to be difficult to verify in the field due to numerous sources of stiffness not accounted for in calculations. Despite this, many owners and designers have found comfort in the past requirements to limit the overall stiffness of bridges.

The criteria in this section shall be considered optional, except for the following:

- The provisions for orthotropic decks shall be considered mandatory.
- The provisions in Article [10.15.5.9](#) for precast reinforced concrete three-sided structures shall be considered mandatory.
- Metal grid decks and other lightweight metal and concrete bridge decks shall be subject to the serviceability provisions of Article [7.5.2](#).

In applying these criteria, the vehicular load shall include the dynamic load allowance.

If an Owner chooses to invoke deflection control, the following principles may be applied:

- When investigating the maximum absolute deflection for straight girder systems, all design lanes should be loaded, and all supporting components should be assumed to deflect equally;
- For curved steel box and I-girder systems, the deflection of each girder should be determined individually based on its response as part of a system;
- For composite design, the stiffness of the design cross-section used for the determination of deflection should include the entire width of the roadway and the structurally continuous portions of the railings, sidewalks, and median barriers;
- For straight girder systems, the composite bending stiffness of an individual girder may be taken as the stiffness determined as specified above, divided by the number of girders;
- When investigating maximum relative displacements, the number and position of loaded lanes should be selected to provide the worst differential effect;
- The live load portion of Load Combination Service I of [Table 3.1](#) should be used, including the dynamic load allowance, IM ;
- The live load shall be taken from Article [3.6.1.3.2](#);
- The provisions of Article [3.6.1.1.2](#) should apply; and
- For skewed bridges, a right cross-section may be used, and for curved and curved skewed bridges, a radial cross-section may be used.

- C Additional guidance regarding deflection of steel bridges can be found in [Wright and Walker \(1971\)](#).
- C For a straight multi-beam bridge, this is equivalent to saying that the distribution factor for deflection is equal to the number of lanes divided by the number of beams.
- C For curved steel girder systems, the deflection limit is applied to each individual girder because the curvature causes each girder to deflect differently than the adjacent girder so that an average deflection has little meaning. For curved steel girder systems, the span used to compute the deflection limit should be taken as the arc girder length between bearings.

In the absence of other criteria, the following deflection limits may be considered for steel or concrete construction:

Vehicular load, general	Span/800
Vehicular and/or pedestrian loads	Span/1000
Vehicular load on cantilever arms	Span/300
Vehicular and/or pedestrian loads on cantilever arms	Span/375

For steel I-shaped beams and girders, and for steel box and tub girders, the provisions of Articles 6.10.4.2 and 6.11.4, respectively, regarding the control of permanent deflections through flange stress controls, shall apply.

The following provisions shall apply to orthotropic plate decks:

Vehicular load on deck plate	Span/300
Vehicular load on ribs of orthotropic metal decks	Span/1000
Vehicular load on ribs of orthotropic metal decks (extreme relative deflection between adjacent ribs)	2.5 mm

- C Excessive deformation can cause premature deterioration of the wearing surface and affect the performance of fasteners, but limits on the latter have not yet been established.
- C The intent of the relative deflection criterion is to protect the wearing surface from de-bonding and fracturing due to excessive flexing of the deck.
- C The 2.5-mm relative deflection limitation is tentative.

3. Optional Criteria for Span-to-Depth Ratios

Unless otherwise specified herein, if an Owner chooses to invoke controls on span-to-depth ratios, the limits in Table 2.1, in which S is the slab span length and L is the bridge span length, both in mm, may be considered in the absence of other criteria. Where used, the limits in Table 2.1 shall be taken to apply to overall depth unless noted.

For curved steel girder systems, the span-to-depth ratio, L_{as}/D , of each steel girder should not exceed 25 when the specified minimum yield strength of the girder in regions of positive flexure is 345 MPa or less, and:

- When the specified minimum yield strength of the girder is 485 MPa or less in regions of negative flexure, or
 - When hybrid sections satisfying the provisions of Article 6.10.1.3 are used in regions of negative flexure.
- C A larger preferred minimum girder depth is specified for curved steel girders to reflect the fact that the outermost curved girder receives a disproportionate share of the load and needs to be stiffer. In curved skewed bridges, crossframe forces are directly related to the relative girder deflections. Increasing the depth and stiffness of all the girders in a curved skewed bridge leads to smaller relative differences in the deflections and smaller cross-frame forces. Deeper girders also result in reduced out-of-plane rotations, which may make the bridge easier to erect.

For all other curved steel girder systems, L_{as}/D of each steel girder should not exceed the following:

$$\frac{L_{as}}{D} \leq 25 \sqrt{\frac{345}{F_{yc}}} \quad (2.1)$$

where:

- F_{yc} = specified minimum yield strength of the compression flange (MPa)
- D = depth of steel girder (mm)

L_{as} = an arc girder length defined as follows (mm):

- arc span for simple spans;
 - 0.9 times the arc span for continuous end-spans;
 - 0.8 times the arc span for continuous interior spans.
- C An increase in the preferred minimum girder depth for curved steel girders not satisfying the conditions specified herein is recommended according to Eq. (2.1). In such cases, the girders will tend to be significantly more flexible and less steel causes increased deflections without an increase in the girder depth.
- C A shallower curved girder might be used if the Engineer evaluates effects such as cross-frame forces and bridge deformations, including girder rotations, and finds the bridge forces and geometric changes within acceptable ranges. For curved composite girders, the recommended ratios apply to the steel girder portion of the composite section.

Table 2.1 Traditional Minimum Depths for Constant Depth Superstructures.

Superstructure		Minimum Depth (Including Deck) When variable depth members are used, values may be adjusted to account for changes in relative stiffness of positive and negative moment sections	
Material	Type	Simple Spans	Continuous Spans
Reinforced Concrete	Slabs with main reinforcement parallel to traffic	$\frac{1.2(S+3000)}{30}$	$\frac{S+3000}{30} \geq 165\text{mm}$
	T-Beams	0.070L	0.065L
	Box Beams	0.060L	0.055L
	Pedestrian Structure Beams	0.035L	0.033L
Prestressed Concrete	Slabs	0.030L > 165 mm	0.027L > 165 mm
	Cast In Place Box Beams	0.045L	0.040L
	Precast I-Beams	0.045L	0.040L
	Pedestrian Structure Beams	0.033L	0.030L
	Adjacent Box Beams	0.030L	0.025L
Steel	Overall Depth of Composite I-Beam	0.040L	0.032L
	Depth of I-Beam Portion of Composite I-Beam	0.033L	0.027L
	Trusses	0.100L	0.100L

C Traditional minimum depths for constant depth superstructures, contained in previous editions of the **AASHTO Standard Specifications for Highway Bridges**, are given in [Table 2.1](#) with some modifications.

2.6.2.7. Consideration of Future Widening

1. Exterior Beams on Multi-beam Bridges

C This provision applies to any longitudinal flexural members traditionally considered to be stringers, beams, or girders.

Unless future widening is virtually inconceivable, the load carrying capacity of exterior beams shall not be less than the load carrying capacity of an interior beam.

2. Substructure

When future widening can be anticipated, consideration should be given to designing the substructure for the widened condition.

2.6.3. Constructibility

Constructibility issues should include, but not be limited to, consideration of deflection, strength of steel and concrete, and stability during critical stages of construction.

- C An example of a particular sequence of construction would be where the designer requires a steel girder to be supported while the concrete deck is cast, so that the girder and the deck will act compositely for dead load as well as live load.

Bridges should be designed in a manner such that fabrication and erection can be performed without undue difficulty or distress and that locked-in construction force effects are within tolerable limits. When the designer has assumed a particular sequence of construction in order to induce certain stresses under dead load, that sequence shall be defined in the contract documents.

Where there are, or are likely to be, constraints imposed on the method of construction, by environmental considerations or for other reasons, attention shall be drawn to those constraints in the contract documents.

Where the bridge is of unusual complexity, such that it would be unreasonable to expect an experienced contractor to predict and estimate a suitable method of construction while bidding the project, at least one feasible construction method shall be indicated in the contract documents.

- C An example of a complex bridge might be a cable-stayed bridge that has limitations on what it will carry, especially in terms of construction equipment, while it is under construction. If these limitations are not evident to an experienced contractor, the contractor may be required to do more prebid analysis than is reasonable. Given the usual constraints of time and budget for bidding, this may not be feasible for the contractor to do.
- C This Article does not require the designer to educate a contractor on how to construct a bridge; it is expected that the contractor will have the necessary expertise. Nor is it intended to restrict a contractor from using innovation to gain an edge over the competitors.
- C All other factors being equal, designs that are selfsupporting or use standardized falsework systems are normally preferred to those requiring unique and complex falsework.

If the design requires some strengthening and/or temporary bracing or support during erection by the selected method, indication of the need thereof shall be indicated in the contract documents.

- C Temporary falsework within the clear zone should be adequately protected from traffic.

Details that require welding in restricted areas or placement of concrete through congested reinforcing should be avoided.

Climatic and hydraulic conditions that may affect the construction of the bridge shall be considered.

2.6.4. Economy

2.6.4.1. General

Structural types, span lengths, and materials shall be selected with due consideration of projected cost. The cost of future expenditures during the projected service life of the bridge should be considered. Regional factors, such as availability of material, fabrication, location, shipping, and erection constraints, shall be considered.

- C If data for the trends in labor and material cost fluctuation are available, the effect of such trends should be projected to the time the bridge will likely be constructed.
- C Cost comparisons of structural alternatives should be based on long-range considerations, including inspection, maintenance, repair, and/or replacement. Lowest first cost does not necessarily lead to lowest total cost.

2.6.4.2. Alternative Plans

In instances where economic studies do not indicate a clear choice, the Owner may require that alternative contract plans be prepared and bid competitively. Designs for alternative plans shall be of equal safety, serviceability, and aesthetic value.

2.6.5. Bridge Aesthetics

Bridges should complement their surroundings, be graceful in form, and present an appearance of adequate strength.

- C Significant improvements in appearance can often be made with small changes in shape or position of structural members at negligible cost. For prominent bridges, however, additional cost to achieve improved appearance is often justified, considering that the bridge will likely be a feature of the landscape for 75 or more years.
- C Comprehensive guidelines for the appearance of bridges are beyond the scope of these Specifications. Engineers may resort to such documents as the [Transportation Research Board's Bridge Aesthetics Around the World \(1991\)](#) for guidance.

Engineers should seek more pleasant appearance by improving the shapes and relationships of the structural component themselves. The application of extraordinary and nonstructural embellishment should be avoided.

The following guidelines should be considered:

- Alternative bridge designs without piers or with few piers should be studied during the site selection and location stage and refined during the preliminary design stage.
 - Pier form should be consistent in shape and detail with the superstructure.
 - Abrupt changes in the form of components and structural type should be avoided. Where the interface of different structural types cannot be avoided, a smooth transition in appearance from one type to another should be attained.
 - Attention to details, such as deck drain downspouts, should not be overlooked.
 - If the use of a through structure is dictated by performance and/or economic considerations, the structural system should be selected to provide an open and uncluttered appearance.
 - The use of the bridge as a support for message or directional signing or lighting should be avoided wherever possible.
 - Transverse web stiffeners, other than those located at bearing points, should not be visible in elevation.
 - For spanning deep ravines, arch-type structures should be preferred.
- C The most admired modern structures are those that rely for their good appearance on the forms of the structural component themselves:
- Components are shaped to respond to the structural function. They are thick where the stresses are greatest and thin where the stresses are smaller.
 - The function of each part and how the function is performed is visible.
 - Components are slender and widely spaced, preserving views through the structure.
 - The bridge is seen as a single whole, with all members consistent and contributing to that whole; for example, all elements should come from the same family of shapes, such as shapes with rounded edges.
 - The bridge fulfills its function with a minimum of material and minimum number of elements.
 - The size of each member compared with the others is clearly related to the overall structural concept and the job the component does, and
 - The bridge as a whole has a clear and logical relationship to its surroundings.

- C Several procedures have been proposed to integrate aesthetic thinking into the design process (Gottemoeller, 1991).
- C Because the major structural components are the largest parts of a bridge and are seen first, they determine the appearance of a bridge. Consequently, engineers should seek excellent appearance in bridge parts in the following order of importance:
- Horizontal and vertical alignment and position in the environment;
 - Superstructure type, i.e., arch, girder, etc.;
 - Pier placement;
 - Abutment placement and height;
 - Superstructure shape, i.e., haunched, tapered, depth;
 - Pier shape;
 - Abutment shape;
 - Parapet and railing details;
 - Surface colors and textures; and
 - Ornament.
- C The Designer should determine the likely position of the majority of viewers of the bridge. Then use that information as a guide in judging the importance of various elements in the appearance of the structure.
- C Perspective drawings of photographs taken from the important viewpoints can be used to analyze the appearance of proposed structures. Models are also useful.
- C The appearance of standard details should be reviewed to make sure they fit the bridge's design concept.

2.7. HYDROLOGY AND HYDRAULICS

2.7.1. General

- C The provisions in this Article incorporate improved practices and procedures for the hydraulic design of bridges. Detailed guidance for applying these practices and procedures are contained in the [AASHTO Model Drainage Manual](#). This document contains guidance and references on design procedures and computer software for hydrologic and hydraulic design. It also incorporates guidance and references from the [AASHTO Drainage Guidelines](#), which is a companion document to the [AASHTO Model Drainage Manual](#).

Hydrologic and hydraulic studies and assessments of bridge sites for stream crossings shall be completed as part of the preliminary plan development. The detail of these studies should be commensurate with the importance of and risks associated with the structure.

Temporary structures for the Contractor's use or for accommodating traffic during construction shall be designed with regard to the safety of the traveling public and the adjacent property owners, as well as minimization of impact on floodplain natural resources. The Owner may permit revised design requirements consistent with the intended service period for, and flood hazard posed by, the temporary structure. Contract documents for temporary structures shall delineate the respective responsibilities and risks to be assumed by the highway agency and the Contractor.

Evaluation of bridge design alternatives shall consider stream stability, backwater, flow distribution, stream velocities, scour potential, flood hazards, tidal dynamics where appropriate and consistency with established criteria for the National Flood Insurance Program.

- C Hydrologic, hydraulic, scour, and stream stability studies are concerned with the prediction of flood flows and frequencies and with the complex physical processes involving the actions and interactions

of water and soil during the occurrence of predicted flood flows. These studies should be performed by the Engineer with the knowledge and experience to make practical judgments regarding the scope of the studies to be performed and the significance of the results obtained. The design of bridge foundations is best accomplished by an interdisciplinary team of structural, hydraulic, and geotechnical engineers.

2.7.2. Site Data

A site-specific data collection plan shall include consideration of:

- Collection of aerial and/or ground survey data for appropriate distances upstream and downstream from the bridge for the main stream channel and its floodplain;
- Estimation of roughness elements for the stream and the floodplain within the reach of the stream under study;
- Sampling of streambed material to a depth sufficient to ascertain material characteristics for scour analysis;
- Subsurface borings;
- Factors affecting water stages, including high water from streams, reservoirs, detention basins, tides, and flood control structures and operating procedures;
- Existing studies and reports, including those conducted in accordance with the provisions of the National Flood Insurance Program or other flood control programs;
- Available historical information on the behavior of the stream and the performance of the structure during past floods, including observed scour, bank erosion, and structural damage due to debris or ice flows; and
- Possible geomorphic changes in channel flow.

- C The assessment of hydraulics necessarily involves many assumptions. Key among these assumptions is the roughness coefficients and projection of long-term flow magnitudes, e.g., the 500-year flood or other superfloods. The runoff from a given storm can be expected to change with the seasons, immediate past weather conditions, and long-term natural and man-made changes in surface conditions. The ability to statistically project long recurrence interval floods is a function of the adequacy of the database of past floods, and such projections often change as a result of new experience.
- C The above factors make the check flood investigation of scour an important, but highly variable, safety criterion that may be expected to be difficult to reproduce, unless all of the Designer's original assumptions are used in a post design scour investigation. Obviously, those original assumptions must be reasonable given the data, conditions, and projections available at the time of the original design.

2.7.3. Hydrologic Analysis

The Owner shall determine the extent of hydrologic studies on the basis of the functional highway classification, the applicable local requirements, and the flood hazards at the site.

- C The return period of tidal flows should be correlated to the hurricane or storm tide elevations of water as reported in studies by Saudi Arabia Presidency of Meteorology and Environment (PME) or other agencies.
- C Particular attention should be given to selecting design and checking flood discharges for mixed population flood events. For example, flow in an estuary may consist of both tidal flow and runoff from the upland watershed.
- C If mixed population flows are dependent on the occurrence of a major meteorological event, such as a hurricane, the relative timing of the individual peak flow events needs to be evaluated and considered in selecting the design discharge. This is likely to be the case for flows in an estuary.

- C If the events tend to be independent, as might be the case for floods in a mountainous region caused by rainfall runoff or snow melt, the Designer should evaluate both events independently and then consider the probability of their occurrence at the same time.

The following flood flows should be investigated, as appropriate, in the hydrologic studies:

- For assessing flood hazards and meeting floodplain management requirements: the 100-year flood;
- For assessing risks to highway users and damage to the bridge and its roadway approaches: the overtopping flood and/or the design flood for bridge scour;
- For assessing catastrophic flood damage at high risk sites: a check flood of a magnitude selected by the Owner, as appropriate for the site conditions and the perceived risk;
- For investigating the adequacy of bridge foundations to resist scour: the check flood for bridge scour;
- To satisfy agency design policies and criteria: design floods for waterway opening and bridge scour for the various functional classes of highways;
- To calibrate water surface profiles and to evaluate the performance of existing structures: historical floods.
- To evaluate environmental conditions: low or base flow information, and in estuarine crossings, the spring and tide range.

Investigation of the effect of sea level rise on tidal ranges should be specified for structures spanning marine/estuarine resources.

2.7.4. Hydraulic Analysis

2.7.4.1. General

The Engineer shall utilize analytical models and techniques that have been approved by the Owner and that are consistent with the required level of analysis.

2.7.4.2. Stream Stability

Studies shall be carried out to evaluate the stability of the waterway and to assess the impact of construction on the waterway. The following items shall be considered:

- Whether the stream reach is degrading, aggrading, or in equilibrium;
- For stream crossing near confluences, the effect of the main stream and the tributary on the flood stages, velocities, flow distribution, vertical, and lateral movements of the stream, and the effect of the foregoing conditions on the hydraulic design of the bridge;
- Location of favorable stream crossing, taking into account whether the stream is straight, meandering, braided, or transitional, or control devices to protect the bridge from existing or anticipated future stream conditions;
- The effect of any proposed channel changes;
- The effect of aggregate mining or other operations in the channel;
- Potential changes in the rates or volumes of runoff due to land use changes;
- The effect of natural geomorphic stream pattern changes on the proposed structure; and

- The effect of geomorphic changes on existing structures in the vicinity of, and caused by, the proposed structure.

For unstable streams or flow conditions, special studies shall be carried out to assess the probable future changes to the plan form and profile of the stream and to determine countermeasures to be incorporated in the design, or at a future time, for the safety of the bridge and approach roadways.

2.7.4.3. Bridge Waterway

The design process for sizing the bridge waterway shall include:

- The evaluation of flood flow patterns in the main channel and floodplain for existing conditions, and
- The evaluation of trial combinations of highway profiles, alignments, and bridge lengths for consistency with design objectives.

Where use is made of existing flood studies, their accuracy shall be determined.

C Trial combinations should take the following into account:

- Increases in flood water surface elevations caused by the bridge,
- Changes in flood flow patterns and velocities in the channel and on the floodplain,
- Location of hydraulic controls affecting flow through the structure or long-term stream stability,
- Clearances between the flood water elevations and low sections of the superstructure to allow passage of ice and debris,
- Need for protection of bridge foundations and stream channel bed and banks, and
- Evaluation of capital costs and flood hazards associated with the candidate bridge alternatives through risk assessment or risk analysis procedures.

2.7.4.4. Bridge Foundations

1. General

The structural, hydraulic, and geotechnical aspects of foundation design shall be coordinated and differences resolved prior to approval of preliminary plans.

C To reduce the vulnerability of the bridge to damage from scour and hydraulic loads, consideration should be given to the following general design concepts:

- Set deck elevations as high as practical for the given site conditions to minimize inundation by floods. Where bridges are subject to inundation, provide for overtopping of roadway approach sections, and streamline the superstructure to minimize the area subject to hydraulic loads and the collection of ice, debris, and drifts.
- Utilize relief bridges, guide banks, dikes, and other river training devices to reduce the turbulence and hydraulic forces acting at the bridge abutments.
- Utilize continuous span designs. Anchor superstructures to their substructures where subject to the effects of hydraulic loads, buoyancy, ice, or debris impacts or accumulations. Provide for venting and draining of the superstructure.
- Where practical, limit the number of piers in the channel, streamline pier shapes, and align piers with the direction of flood flows. Avoid pier types that collect ice and debris. Locate piers beyond the immediate vicinity of stream banks.
- Locate abutments back from the channel banks where significant problems with ice/debris buildup, scour, or channel stability are anticipated, or where special environmental or regulatory needs must be met, e.g., spanning wetlands.

- Design piers on floodplains as river piers. Locate their foundations at the appropriate depth if there is a likelihood that the stream channel will shift during the life of the structure or that channel cutoffs are likely to occur.
- Where practical, use debris racks or ice booms to stop debris and ice before it reaches the bridge. Where significant ice or debris buildup is unavoidable, its effects should be accounted for in determining scour depths and hydraulic loads.

2. Bridge Scour

- C A majority of bridge failures in many countries with extensive bridge inventory are the result of scour.
- C The added cost of making a bridge less vulnerable to damage from scour is small in comparison to the total cost of a bridge failure.
- C The design flood for scour shall be determined on the basis of the Engineer's judgment of the hydrologic and hydraulic flow conditions at the site. The recommended procedure is to evaluate scour due to the specified flood flows and to design the foundation for the event expected to cause the deepest total scour.

As required by Article [3.7.5](#), scour at bridge foundations is investigated for two conditions:

- For the design flood for scour, the streambed material in the scour prism above the total scour line shall be assumed to have been removed for design conditions. The design flood storm surge, tide, or mixed population flood shall be the more severe of the 100-year events or from an overtopping flood of lesser recurrence interval.
 - For the check flood for scour, the stability of bridge foundation shall be investigated for scour conditions resulting from a designated flood storm surge, tide, or mixed population flood not to exceed the 500-year event or from an overtopping flood of lesser recurrence interval. Excess reserve beyond that required for stability under this condition is not necessary. The extreme event limit state shall apply.
- C The recommended procedure for determining the total scour depth at bridge foundations is as follows:
 - Estimate the long-term channel profile aggradation or degradation over the service life of the bridge;
 - Estimate the long-term channel plan form changes over the service life of the bridge;
 - As a design check, adjust the existing channel and floodplain cross-sections upstream and downstream of bridge as necessary to reflect anticipated changes in the channel profile and plan form;
 - Determine the combination of existing or likely future conditions and flood events that might be expected to result in the deepest scour for design conditions;
 - Determine water surface profiles for a stream reach that extends both upstream and downstream of the bridge site for the various combinations of conditions and events under consideration;
 - Determine the magnitude of contraction scour and local scour at piers and abutments; and
 - Evaluate the results of the scour analysis, taking into account the variables in the methods used, the available information on the behavior of the watercourse, and the performance of existing structures during past floods. Also consider present and anticipated future flow patterns in the channel and its floodplain. Visualize the effect of the bridge on these flow patterns and the effect of the flow on the bridge. Modify the bridge design where necessary to satisfy concerns raised by the scour analysis and the evaluation of the channel plan form.

If the site conditions, due to debris jams, and low tail water conditions near stream confluences dictate the use of a more severe flood event for either the design or check flood for scour, the Engineer may use such flood event.

Foundation designs should be based on the total scour depths estimated by the above procedure, taking into account appropriate geotechnical safety factors. Where necessary, bridge modifications may include:

- Relocation or redesign of piers or abutments to avoid areas of deep scour or overlapping scour holes from adjacent foundation elements,
 - Addition of guide banks, dikes, or other river training works to provide for smoother flow transitions or to control lateral movement of the channel,
 - Enlargement of the waterway area, or
 - Relocation of the crossing to avoid an undesirable location.
- C Foundations should be designed to withstand the conditions of scour for the design flood and the check flood. In general, this will result in deep foundations. The design of the foundations of existing bridges that are being rehabilitated should consider underpinning if scour indicates the need. Riprap and other scour countermeasures may be appropriate if underpinning is not cost effective.
- C Available technology has not developed sufficiently to provide reliable scour estimates for some conditions, such as bridge abutments located in areas of turbulence due to converging or diverging flows.

Spread footings on soil or erodible rock shall be located so that the bottom of footing is below scour depths determined for the check flood for scour. Spread footings on scour-resistant rock shall be designed and constructed to maintain the integrity of the supporting rock.

Deep foundations with footings shall be designed to place the top of the footing below the estimated contraction scour depth where practical to minimize obstruction to flood flows and resulting local scour. Even lower elevations should be considered for pile-supported footings where the piles could be damaged by erosion and corrosion from exposure to stream currents. Where conditions dictate a need to construct the top of a footing to an elevation above the streambed, attention shall be given to the scour potential of the design.

When fendering or other pier protection systems are used, their effect on pier scour and collection of debris shall be taken into consideration in the design.

The stability of abutments in areas of turbulent flow shall be thoroughly investigated. Exposed embankment slopes should be protected with appropriate scour countermeasures.

2.7.4.5. Roadway Approaches to Bridge

The design of the bridge shall be coordinated with the design of the roadway approaches to the bridge on the floodplain so that the entire flood flow pattern is developed and analyzed as a single, interrelated entity. Where roadway approaches on the floodplain obstruct over-bank flow, the highway segment within the floodplain limits shall be designed to minimize flood hazards.

- C Highway embankments on floodplains serve to redirect overbank flow, causing it to flow generally parallel to the embankment and return to the main channel at the bridge. For such cases, the highway designs shall include countermeasures where necessary to limit damage to highway fills and bridge abutments. Such countermeasures may include:
- Relief bridges,
 - Retarding the velocity of the overbank flow by promoting growth of trees and shrubs on the floodplain and highway embankment within the highway right-of-way or constructing small dikes along the highway embankment,
 - Protecting fill slopes subject to erosive velocities by use of riprap or other erosion protection materials on highway fills and spill-through abutments, and

- Use of guide banks where overbank flow is large to protect abutments of main channel and relief bridges from turbulence and resulting scour.
- C Although overtopping may result in failure of the embankment, this consequence is preferred to failure of the bridge. The low point of the overtopping section should not be located immediately adjacent to the bridge, because its failure at this location could cause damage to the bridge abutment. If the low point of the overtopping section must be located close to the abutment, due to geometric constraints, the scouring effect of the overtopping flow should be considered in the design of the abutment. Design studies for overtopping should also include evaluation of any flood hazards created by changes to existing flood flow patterns or by flow concentrations in the vicinity of developed properties.

Where diversion of flow to another watershed occurs as a result of backwater and obstruction of flood flows, an evaluation of the design shall be carried out to ensure compliance with legal requirements in regard to flood hazards in the other watershed.

2.7.5. Culvert Location, Length, and Waterway Area

In addition to the provisions of Articles [2.7.3](#) and [2.7.4](#), the following conditions should be considered:

- Passage of fish and wildlife,
 - Effect of high outlet velocities and flow concentrations on the culvert outlet, the downstream channel, and adjacent property,
 - Buoyancy effects at culvert inlets,
 - Traffic safety, and
 - The effects of high tail water conditions as may be caused by downstream controls or storm tides.
- C The discussion of site investigations and hydrologic and hydraulic analyses for bridges is generally applicable to large culvert installations classified as bridges.
- C The use of safety grates on culvert ends to protect vehicles that run off the road is generally discouraged for large culverts, including those classified as bridges, because of the potential for clogging and subsequent unexpected increase in the flood hazard to the roadway and adjacent properties. Preferred methods of providing for traffic safety include the installation of barriers or the extension of the culvert ends to increase the vehicle recovery zone at the site.

2.7.6. Roadway Drainage

2.7.6.1. General

- C Where feasible, bridge decks should be watertight and all of the deck drainage should be carried to the ends of the bridge.

The bridge deck and its highway approaches shall be designed to provide safe and efficient conveyance of surface runoff from the traveled way in a manner that minimizes damage to the bridge and maximizes the safety of passing vehicles. Transverse drainage of the deck, including roadway, bicycle paths, and pedestrian walkways, shall be achieved by providing a cross slope or superelevation sufficient for positive drainage. For wide bridges with more than three lanes in each direction, special design of bridge deck drainage and/or special rough road surfaces may be needed to reduce the potential for hydroplaning. Water flowing downgrade in the roadway gutter section shall be intercepted and not permitted to run onto the bridge. Drains at bridge ends shall have sufficient capacity to carry all contributing runoff. In those unique environmentally sensitive instances where it is not possible to discharge into the underlying watercourse, consideration should be given to conveying the water in a

longitudinal storm drain affixed to the underside of the bridge and discharging it into appropriate facilities on natural ground at bridge end.

- C A longitudinal gradient on bridges should be maintained. Zero gradients and sag vertical curves should be avoided. Design of the bridge deck and the approach roadway drainage systems should be coordinated.
- C Under certain conditions, open bridge railings may be desirable for maximum discharge of surface runoff from bridge decks.
- C The "Storm Drainage" chapter of the AASHTO Model Drainage Manual contains guidance on recommended values for cross slopes.

2.7.6.2. Design Storm

The design storm for bridge deck drainage shall not be less than the storm used for design of the pavement drainage system of the adjacent roadway, unless otherwise specified by the Owner.

2.7.6.3. Type, Size, and Number of Drains

The number of deck drains should be kept to a minimum consistent with hydraulic requirements.

- C For further guidance or design criteria on bridge deck drainage, see the "Storm Drainage" chapter of the AASHTO Model Drainage Manual, Policy on Geometric Design of Highways and Streets, and AASHTO/FHW A Research Report RD-87-014, Bridge Deck Drainage Guidelines.

In the absence of other applicable guidance, for bridges where the highway design speed is less than 75 km/h, the size and number of deck drains should be such that the spread of deck drainage does not encroach on more than one-half the width of any designated traffic lane. For bridges where the highway design speed is not less than 75 km/h, the spread of deck drainage should not encroach on any portion of the designated traffic lanes. Gutter flow should be intercepted at cross slope transitions to prevent flow across the bridge deck. Scuppers or inlets of a deck drain shall be hydraulically efficient and accessible for cleaning.

- C The minimum internal dimension of a downspout should not normally be less than 150 mm, but not less than 200 mm where ice accretion on the bridge deck is expected.

2.7.6.4. Discharge from Deck Drains

Deck drains shall be designed and located such that surface water from the bridge deck or road surface is directed away from the bridge superstructure elements and the substructure.

- C Consideration should be given to the effect of drainage systems on bridge aesthetics.

If the Owner has no specific requirements for controlling the effluent from drains and pipes, consideration should be given to:

- A minimum 100 mm projection below the lowest adjacent superstructure component,
- Location of pipe outlets such that a 45° cone of splash will not touch structural components,
- Use of free drops or slots in parapets wherever practical and permissible,
- Use of bends not greater than 45°, and
- Use of cleanouts.

- C For bridges where free drops are not feasible, attention should be given to the design of the outlet piping system to:
 - Minimize clogging and other maintenance problems and
 - Minimize the intrusive effect of the piping on the bridge symmetry and appearance.
- C Free drops should be avoided where runoff creates problems with traffic, rail, or shipping lanes. Riprap or pavement should be provided under the free drops to prevent erosion.

Runoff from bridge decks and deck drains shall be disposed of in a manner consistent with environmental and safety requirements.

2.7.6.5. Drainage of Structures

Cavities in structures where there is likelihood for entrapment of water shall be drained at their lowest point. In-place forms can be used to permit the egress of water.

Decks and wearing surfaces shall be designed to prevent the ponding of water, especially at deck joints. For bridge decks with non-integral wearing surfaces or stay-in-place forms, consideration shall be given to the evacuation of water that may accumulate at the interface.

- C Weep holes in concrete decks and drain holes in stay-in-place forms can be used to permit the egress of water.

2.8. BRIDGE SECURITY

2.8.1. General

An assessment of the importance of a bridge should be conducted during the planning of new bridges and/or during rehabilitation of existing bridges. This should take into account the social/economic impact of the loss of the bridge, the availability of alternate routes, and the effect of closing the bridge on the security/defense of the region.

For bridges deemed important, a formal vulnerability study should be conducted, and measures to mitigate the vulnerabilities should be considered for incorporation into the design.

2.8.2. Design Demand

Bridge owners should establish criteria for the size and location of the threats to be considered in the analysis of bridges for security. These criteria should take into account the type, geometry, and importance of the structure being considered. The criteria should also consider multi-tier threat sizes and define the associated level of structural performance for each tier.

Design demands should be determined from analysis of a given size design threat taking into account the associated performance levels. Given the demands, a design strategy should be developed and approved by the bridge owner.

2.9. REFERENCES

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SECTION 3. LOADS AND LOAD FACTORS

3.1. SCOPE

This section specifies minimum requirements for loads and forces, the limits of their application, load factors, and load combinations used for the design of new bridges. The load provisions may also be applied to the structural evaluation of existing bridges. Where multiple performance levels are provided, the selection of the design performance level is the responsibility of the Owner.

- C This section includes, in addition to traditional loads, the force effects due to collisions, earthquakes, and settlement and distortion of the structure.
- C Vehicle and vessel collisions, earthquakes, and aeroelastic instability develop force effects that are dependent upon structural response. Therefore, such force effects cannot be determined without analysis and/or testing.
- C With the exception of segmental concrete bridges, construction loads are not provided, but the Designer should obtain pertinent information from prospective contractors.

A minimum load factor is specified for force effects that may develop during construction. Additional requirements for construction of segmental concrete bridges are specified in Article [5.18.2](#).

3.2. DEFINITIONS

<i>Active Earth Pressure</i>	: Lateral pressure resulting from the retention of the earth by a structure or component that is tending to move away from the soil mass.
<i>Active Earth Wedge</i>	: Wedge of earth with a tendency to become mobile if not retained by a structure or component.
<i>Aeroelastic Vibration</i>	: Periodic, elastic response of a structure to wind.
<i>Apparent Earth Pressure</i>	: Lateral pressure distribution for anchored walls constructed from the top down.
<i>Axle Unit</i>	: Single axle or tandem axle.
<i>Berm</i>	: An earthwork used to redirect or slow down impinging vehicles or vessels and to stabilize fill, embankment, or soft ground and cut slopes.
<i>Centrifugal Force</i>	: A lateral force resulting from a change in the direction of a vehicle's movement.
<i>Damper</i>	: A device that transfers and reduces forces between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements, while permitting thermal movements. The device provides damping by dissipating energy under seismic, braking or other dynamic loads.
<i>Deep Draft Waterways</i>	: A navigable waterway used by merchant ships with loaded drafts of 4200 – 18 000 + mm.

<i>Design Lane</i>	: A notional traffic lane positioned transversely on the roadway.
<i>Design Thermal Movement Range</i>	: The structure movement range resulting from the difference between the maximum design temperature and minimum design temperature.
<i>Design Water Depth</i>	: Depth of water at mean high water.
<i>Distortion</i>	: Change in structural geometry.
<i>Dolphin</i>	: Protective object that may have its own fender system and that is usually circular in plan and structurally independent from the bridge.
<i>Dynamic Load Allowance</i>	: An increase in the applied static force effects to account for the dynamic interaction between the bridge and moving vehicles.
<i>Equivalent Fluid</i>	: A notional substance whose density is such that it would exert the same pressure as the soil it is seen to replace for computational purposes.
<i>Exposed</i>	: A condition in which a portion of a bridge's substructure or superstructure is subject to physical contact by any portion of a colliding vessel's bow, deck house, or mast.
<i>Extreme</i>	: A maximum or a minimum.
<i>Fender</i>	: Protection hardware attached to the structural component to be protected or used to delineate channels or to redirect aberrant vessels.
<i>Frazil Ice</i>	: Ice resulting from turbulent water flow.
<i>Global</i>	: Pertinent to the entire superstructure or to the whole bridge.
<i>Influence Surface</i>	: A continuous or discretized function over a bridge deck whose value at a point, multiplied by a load acting normal to the deck at that point, yields the force effect being sought.
<i>Lane</i>	: The area of deck receiving one vehicle or one uniform load line.
<i>Leeward</i>	: The lee side; the point or quarter toward which the wind blows.
<i>Lever Rule</i>	: The statical summation of moments about one point to calculate the reaction at a second point.
<i>Liquefaction</i>	: The loss of shear strength in a saturated soil due to excess hydrostatic pressure. In saturated, cohesionless soils, such a strength loss can result from loads that are applied instantaneously or cyclically, particularly in loose fine to medium sands that are uniformly graded.
<i>Load</i>	: The effect of acceleration, including that due to gravity, imposed deformation, or volumetric change.
<i>Local</i>	: Pertinent to a component or subassembly of components.
<i>Megagram (Mg)</i>	: 1000 kg (a unit of mass).

<i>Mode of Vibration</i>	: A shape of dynamic deformation associated with a frequency of vibration.
<i>Navigable Waterway</i>	: A waterway, determined by the K.S.A. Coast Guard as being suitable for commerce.
<i>Nominal Load</i>	: An arbitrarily selected design load level.
<i>Normally Consolidated Soil</i>	: A soil for which the current effective overburden pressure is the same as the maximum pressure that has been experienced.
<i>Overall Stability</i>	: Stability of the entire retaining wall or abutment structure and is determined by evaluating potential slip surfaces located outside of the whole structure.
<i>Over-consolidated Soil</i>	: A soil that has been under greater overburden pressure than currently exists.
<i>Over-consolidation Ratio</i>	: Ratio of the maximum preconsolidation pressure to the overburden pressure.
<i>Passive Earth Pressure</i>	: Lateral pressure resulting from the earth's resistance to the lateral movement of a structure or component into the soil mass.
<i>Permanent Loads</i>	: Loads and forces that are, or are assumed to be, either constant upon completion of construction or varying only over a long time interval.
<i>Permit Vehicle</i>	: Any vehicle whose right to travel is administratively restricted in any way due to its weight or size.
<i>Reliability Index</i>	: A quantitative assessment of safety expressed as the ratio of the difference between the mean resistance and mean force effect to the combined standard deviation of resistance and force effect.
<i>Restrainers</i>	: A system of high-strength cables or rods that transfers forces between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements under seismic or other dynamic loads after an initial slack is taken up, while permitting thermal movements.
<i>Roadway Width</i>	: Clear space between barriers and/or curbs.
<i>Setting Temperature</i>	: A structure's average temperature, which is used to determine the dimensions of a structure when a component is added or set in place.
<i>Shallow Draft Waterways</i>	: A navigable waterway used primarily by barge vessels with loaded drafts of less than 2.7 to 3 m.
<i>Shock Transmission Unit (STU)</i>	: A device that provides a temporary rigid link between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements under seismic, braking or other dynamic loads, while permitting thermal movements.
<i>Structurally Continuous Barrier</i>	: A barrier or any part thereof, which is interrupted only at deck joints.

<i>Substructure</i>	: Structural parts of the bridge that support the horizontal span.
<i>Superstructure</i>	: Structural parts of the bridge that provide the horizontal span.
<i>Surchage</i>	: A load used to model the weight of earth fill or other loads applied to the top of the retained material.
<i>Tandem</i>	: Two closely spaced axles usually connected to the same under-carriage, by which the equalization of load between the axles is enhanced.
<i>Transient Loads</i>	: Loads and forces that can vary over a short time interval relative to the lifetime of the structure.
<i>Wall Friction Angle</i>	: An angle whose arctangent represents the apparent friction between a wall and a soil mass.
<i>Wheel</i>	: Single or dual tire at one end of an axle.
<i>Wheel Line</i>	: A transverse or longitudinal grouping of wheels.
<i>Windward</i>	: The point or quarter from which the wind blows or the side toward the wind.

3.3. NOTATIONS

3.3.1. General

A_S	= peak seismic ground acceleration coefficient modified by short-period site factor
AEF	= apparent earth pressure for anchored walls (MPa)
AF	= annual frequency of bridge element collapse (number/yr.)
a	= length of uniform deceleration at braking (mm); truncated distance (mm); average bow damage length (mm)
a_B	= bow damage length of standard hopper barge (mm)
a_s	= bow damage length of ship (mm)
B'	= equivalent footing width (mm)
B_e	= width of excavation (mm)
B_M	= beam (width) for barge, barge tows, and ship vessels (mm)
B_p	= width of bridge pier (mm)
BR	= vehicular braking force; base rate of vessel aberrancy
b	= braking force coefficient; width of a discrete vertical wall element (mm)
b_f	= width of applied load or footing (mm)
C	= coefficient to compute centrifugal forces; constant for terrain conditions in relation to wind approach

C_{sm}	=	elastic seismic response coefficient for the m^{th} mode of vibration
C_a	=	coefficient for force due to crushing of ice
C_D	=	drag coefficient ($\text{sec.}^2 \text{ N/m}^4$)
C_H	=	hydrodynamic mass coefficient
C_L	=	lateral drag coefficient.
C_n	=	coefficient for nose inclination to compute F_b .
C_{sm}	=	elastic seismic response coefficient for the m^{th} mode of vibration.
C	=	soil cohesion (MPa).
c_f	=	distance from back of a wall face to the front of an applied load or footing (mm).
D	=	depth of embedment for a permanent nongravity cantilever wall with discrete vertical wall elements (mm).
D_B	=	bow depth (mm).
d_c	=	total thickness of cohesive soil layers in the top 30 m
D_E	=	minimum depth of earth cover (mm).
D_o	=	calculated embedment depth to provide equilibrium for nongravity cantilevered with continuous vertical elements by the simplified method (mm)
d_s	=	total thickness of cohesionless soil layers in the top 30 m
DWT	=	size of vessel based on deadweight tonnage (Mg)
D_l	=	effective width of applied load at any depth (mm)
d	=	depth of potential base failure surface below base of excavation (mm); horizontal distance from the back of a wall face to the centerline of an applied load (mm)
d_c	=	Total thickness of cohesive soil layers in the top 30.48 m.
d_s	=	Total thickness of cohesionless soil layers in the top 30 m.
E	=	Young's modulus (MPa)
E_B	=	deformation energy (J)
e'	=	eccentricity of load on footing (mm)
F	=	longitudinal force on pier due to ice floe (N); force required to fail an ice sheet (N/mm); force at base of nongravity cantilevered wall required to provide force equilibrium (N/mm)
F_a	=	site factor for short-period range of acceleration response spectrum
F_b	=	horizontal force due to failure of ice flow due to bending (N)

F_c	=	horizontal force due to crushing of ice (N)
F_{pga}	=	site factor at zero-period on acceleration response spectrum
FS_{BH}	=	factor of safety against basal heave
F_t	=	transverse force on pier due to ice flow (N)
F_v	=	; site factor for long-period range of acceleration response spectrum
F_l	=	lateral force due to earth pressure (N/mm)
F_2	=	lateral force due to traffic surcharge (N/mm)
f	=	constant applied in calculating the coefficient C used to compute centrifugal forces, taken equal to 4/3 for load combinations other than fatigue and 1.0 for fatigue
f'_c	=	specified compressive strength of concrete for use in design (MPa)
g	=	gravitational acceleration (m/sec. ²)
H	=	ultimate bridge element strength (N); final height of retaining wall (mm); total excavation depth (mm); resistance of bridge component to a horizontal force (N)
H_L	=	depth of barge head-block on its bow (mm)
H_p	=	ultimate bridge pier resistance (N)
H_s	=	ultimate bridge superstructure resistance (N)
H_l	=	distance from ground surface to uppermost ground anchor (mm)
	H_{n+1}	= distance from base of excavation to lowermost ground anchor (mm)
H_{n+1}	=	Distance from base of excavation to lowermost ground anchor (mm)
h	=	notional height of earth pressure diagram (mm)
h_{eq}	=	equivalent height of soil for vehicular load (mm)
IM	=	dynamic load allowance
KE	=	design impact energy of vessel collision (J)
K_l	=	ice force reduction factor for small streams
k	=	number of cohesive soil layers in the top 30 m
k_a	=	coefficient of active lateral earth pressure
k_o	=	coefficient of at rest lateral earth pressure
k_p	=	coefficient of passive lateral earth pressure
k_s	=	coefficient of earth pressure due to surcharge
L	=	perimeter of pier (mm); length of soil reinforcing elements in an MSE wall (mm); length of footing (mm); expansion length (mm)

ℓ	=	characteristic length (mm); center-to-center spacing of vertical wall elements (mm)
LOA	=	length overall of ship or barge tow including the tug or tow boat (mm)
M	=	mass of vessel (Mg)
m	=	multiple presence factor, number of cohesionless soil layers in the top 30 m
N	=	number of one way passages of vessel navigating through the bridge.
$\bar{N}$	=	average Standard Penetration Test (SPT) blow count (blows/(0.3 m)) (ASTM D1586) for the upper 30 m of the soil profile
$\bar{N}_{ch}$	=	average Standard Penetration Test (SPT) blow count (blows/(0.3 m)) (ASTM D1586) for cohesive soil layers in the upper 30 m of the soil profile and s_u for cohesive soil layers ($PI > 20$) in the top 30 m (s_u method)
N_{chi}	=	blowcount for a cohesionless soil layer (not to exceed 100 blows/0.3 m in the above expression)
N_i	=	Standard Penetration Test blow count of a layer (not to exceed 100 blows/0.3 m in the above expression) Note that when using Method B, $\bar{N}$ values are for cohesionless soils and cohesive soil and rock layers within the upper 30 m. Where refusal is met for a rock layer, N_i should be taken as 100 blows/0.3 m
N_s	=	stability number
OCR	=	overconsolidation ratio
P	=	maximum vertical force for single ice wedge (N); load resulting from vessel impact (N); concentrated wheel load (N); live load intensity; point load (N)
PA	=	probability of vessel aberrancy
P_a	=	force resultant per unit width of wall (N/mm)
P_B	=	barge collision impact force for head-on collision between barge bow and a rigid object (N); base wind pressure corresponding to a wind speed of 160 km/hr. (MPa)
$\bar{P}_B$	=	average equivalent static barge impact force resulting from Meir-Dornberg Study (N)
P_{BH}	=	ship collision impact force between ship bow and a rigid superstructure (N)
PC	=	probability of bridge collapse
P_D	=	design wind pressure (MPa)
P_{DH}	=	ship collision impact force between ship deck house and a rigid superstructure (N)
PG	=	geometric probability of vessel collision with bridge pier/span
P_H	=	lateral force due to superstructure or other concentrated lateral loads (N/mm)
P_h	=	horizontal component of resultant earth pressure on wall (N/mm)

PI	=	plasticity index (ASTM D4318)
P_{MT}	=	ship collision impact force between ship mast and a rigid superstructure (N)
P_p	=	passive earth pressure (N/mm)
P_S	=	ship collision impact force for head-on collision between ship bow and a rigid object (N)
P_v	=	vertical component of resultant earth pressure on wall (N/mm); load per linear mm of strip footing (N/mm)
P'_v	=	load on isolated rectangular footing or point load (N)
p	=	effective ice crushing strength (MPa); stream pressure (MPa); basic earth pressure (MPa); fraction of truck traffic in a single lane; load intensity (MPa)
p_a	=	apparent earth pressure (MPa); maximum ordinate of pressure diagram (MPa)
p_p	=	passive earth pressure (MPa)
Q	=	total factored load; load intensity for infinitely long line loading (N/mm)
Q_i	=	force effects
q	=	surcharge pressure (MPa)
q_s	=	uniform surcharge pressure (MPa)
R'	=	radius of curvature (mm); radius of circular pier (mm); seismic response modification factor; reduction factor of lateral passive earth pressure; radial distance from point of load application to a point on the wall (mm); reaction force to be resisted by subgrade below base of excavation (N/mm)
R_B	=	PA correction factor for bridge location
R_{BH}	=	ratio of exposed superstructure depth to the total ship bow depth
R_C	=	PA correction factor for currents parallel to vessel transit path
R_D	=	PA correction factor for vessel traffic density
R_{DH}	=	reduction factor for ship deck house collision force
R_{XC}	=	PA correction factor for cross-currents acting perpendicular to vessel transit path
R	=	radius of pier nose (mm)
S_{DS}	=	horizontal response spectral acceleration coefficient at 0.2-sec. period modified by short-period site factor
S_{DI}	=	horizontal response spectral acceleration coefficient at 1.0 sec. period modified by long-period site factor
S_f	=	freezing index
S_m	=	shear strength of rock mass (MPa)

S_S	=	horizontal response spectral acceleration coefficient at 0.2 sec. period on rock (Site Class B)
S_u	=	undrained shear strength for cohesive soil (MPa)
S_{ub}	=	undrained strength of soil below excavation base (MPa)
S_v	=	vertical spacing of reinforcements (mm)
$\bar{s}_u$	=	average un-drained shear strength in MPa (ASTM D2166 or D2850) for the upper 30 m of the soil profile
s_{ui}	=	Un-drained shear strength for a cohesive soil layer (not to exceed 0.24 MPa in the above expression)
S_I	=	horizontal response spectral acceleration coefficient at 1.0 sec. period on rock (Site Class B)
T	=	mean daily air temperature (°C)
T_F	=	period of fundamental mode of vibration of bridge (sec.)
T_{hi}	=	horizontal load in anchor i (N/mm)
T_m	=	period of vibration for m^{th} mode (sec.)
T_{max}	=	applied load to reinforcement in a mechanically stabilized earth wall (N/mm)
$T_{MaxDesign}$	=	maximum design temperature used for thermal movement effects (°C)
$T_{MinDesign}$	=	minimum design temperature used for thermal movement effects (°C)
T_S	=	corner period at which acceleration response spectrum changes from being independent of period to being inversely proportional to period (sec.)
T_0	=	reference period used to define shape of acceleration response spectrum (sec.)
t	=	thickness of ice (mm); thickness of deck (mm)
V	=	design velocity of water (m/sec.); design impact speed of vessel (m/sec.)
V_B	=	base wind velocity taken as 160 km/hr.
V_C	=	waterway current component acting parallel to the vessel transit path (km/hr.)
V_{DZ}	=	design wind velocity at design Elevation Z (km/hr.)
V_{MIN}	=	minimum design impact velocity taken not less than the yearly mean current velocity for the bridge location (km/hr.)
V_s	=	average shear wave velocity for the upper 30 m of the soil profile
V_T	=	vessel transit speed in the navigable channel (km/hr.)
V_{XC}	=	waterway current component acting perpendicular to the vessel transit path (km/hr.)
V_0	=	friction velocity, a meteorological wind characteristic for various upwind surface characteristics (km/hr.)

V_{10}	=	wind speed at 10 000 mm above low ground or water level (km/hr.)
v	=	highway design speed (m/sec.)
$\bar{v}_s$	=	Average shear wave velocity for the upper 30 m of the soil profile (m/sec.)
w	=	width of clear roadway (mm); width of pier at level of ice action (mm); density of water (kg/m ³)
w	=	moisture content (ASTM D2216) (3.10.3.1)
X	=	horizontal distance from back of wall to point of load application (mm); distance to bridge element from the centerline of vessel transit path (mm)
X_c	=	distance to edge of channel from centerline of vessel transit path (mm)
X_L	=	distance from centerline of vessel transit path equal to 3×LOA (mm)
X_I	=	distance from the back of the wall to the start of the line load (mm)
X_2	=	length of the line load (mm)
Z	=	structure height above low ground or water level > 10 000 mm (mm); depth below surface of soil (mm); depth from the ground surface to a point on the wall under consideration (mm); vertical distance from point of load application to the elevation of a point on the wall under consideration (mm)
Z_0	=	friction length of upstream fetch, a meteorological wind characteristic (mm)
Z_2	=	depth where effective width intersects back of wall face (mm)
z	=	depth below surface of backfill (mm)
α	=	constant for terrain conditions in relation to wind approach; coefficient for local ice condition; inclination of pier nose with respect to a vertical axis (°); inclination of back of wall with respect to a vertical axis (°); angle between foundation wall and a line connecting the point on the wall under consideration and a point on the bottom corner of the footing nearest to the wall (rad.); coefficient of thermal expansion (mm/mm/°C)
B	=	notional slope of backfill (°)
β	=	safety index; nose angle in a horizontal plane used to calculate transverse ice forces (°); slope of backfill surface behind retaining wall; {+ for slope up from wall; – for slope down from wall} (°)
β'	=	slope of ground surface in front of wall {+ for slope up from wall; – for slope down from wall} (°)
γ	=	load factors; density of materials (kg/m ³); density of water (kg/m ³); density of soil (kg/m ³)
γ_s	=	density of soil (kg/m ³)
γ'_s	=	effective soil density (kg/m ³)
γ_{EQ}	=	load factor for live load applied simultaneously with seismic loads

γ_{eq}	=	equivalent-fluid unit weight of soil (kg/m ³)
γ_i	=	load factor
γ_p	=	load factor for permanent loading
γ_{SE}	=	load factor for settlement
γ_{TG}	=	load factor for temperature gradient
Δ	=	movement of top of wall required to reach minimum active or maximum passive pressure by tilting or lateral translation (mm)
Δ_p	=	constant horizontal earth pressure due to uniform surcharge (MPa)
Δ_{ph}	=	constant horizontal pressure distribution on wall resulting from various types of surcharge loading (MPa)
Δ_T	=	design thermal movement range (mm)
$\Delta\sigma_H$	=	horizontal stress due to surcharge load (MPa)
$\Delta\sigma_v$	=	vertical stress due to surcharge load (MPa)
δ	=	angle of truncated ice wedge (°); friction angle between fill and wall (°); angle between foundation wall and a line connecting the point on the wall under consideration and a point on the bottom corner of the footing furthest from the wall (rad.)
η_i	=	load modifier specified in; wall face batter
θ	=	angle of back of wall to the horizontal (°); angle of channel turn or bend (°); angle between direction of stream flow and the longitudinal axis of pier (°).
θ_f	=	friction angle between ice floe and pier (°).
σ	=	standard deviation of normal distribution
σ_T	=	tensile strength of ice (MPa).
ν	=	Poisson's Ratio (dim.)
ϕ	=	resistance factors
ϕ_f	=	angle of internal friction (°)
ϕ'_f	=	effective angle of internal friction (°)
r	=	internal friction angle of reinforced fill (°)
ϕ'_s	=	angle of internal friction of retained soil (°)

3.3.2. Load and Load Designation

The following permanent and transient loads and forces shall be considered:

- Permanent loads

<i>CR</i>	=	force effects due to creep
<i>DD</i>	=	down-drag force
<i>DC</i>	=	dead load of structural components and nonstructural attachments
<i>DW</i>	=	dead load of wearing surfaces and utilities
<i>EH</i>	=	horizontal earth pressure load
<i>EL</i>	=	miscellaneous locked-in force effects resulting from the construction process, including jacking apart of cantilevers in segmental construction.
<i>ES</i>	=	earth surcharge load
<i>EV</i>	=	vertical pressure from dead load of earth fill
<i>PS</i>	=	secondary forces from post-tensioning
<i>SH</i>	=	force effects due to shrinkage

- Transient Loads

<i>BR</i>	=	vehicular braking force
<i>CE</i>	=	vehicular centrifugal force
<i>CT</i>	=	vehicular collision force
<i>CV</i>	=	vessel collision force
<i>EQ</i>	=	earthquake load
<i>FR</i>	=	friction load
<i>IM</i>	=	vehicular dynamic load allowance
<i>LL</i>	=	vehicular live load
<i>LS</i>	=	live load surcharge
<i>PL</i>	=	pedestrian live load
<i>SE</i>	=	force effects due to Settlement
<i>TG</i>	=	force effects due to temperature gradient
<i>TU</i>	=	force effects due to uniform temperature
<i>WA</i>	=	water load and stream pressure
<i>WL</i>	=	wind on live load
<i>WS</i>	=	wind load on structure

3.4. LOAD FACTORS AND LOAD COMBINATIONS

3.4.1. Load Factors and Load Combinations

The total factored force effect shall be taken as:

$$Q = \sum \eta_i \gamma_i Q_i \quad (3.1)$$

where:

- η_i = load modifier specified in Article 1.3.2
- Q_i = force effects from loads specified herein
- γ_i = load factors specified in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2

Components and connections of a bridge shall satisfy Eq. (3.1) for the applicable combinations of factored extreme force effects as specified at each of the following limit states:

- STRENGTH I: Basic load combination relating to the normal vehicular use of the bridge without wind.
- STRENGTH II: Load combination relating to the use of the bridge by Owner-specified special design vehicles, evaluation permit vehicles, or both without wind.
- STRENGTH III: Load combination relating to the bridge exposed to wind velocity exceeding 90 km/hr.
- STRENGTH IV: Load combination relating to very high dead load to live load force effect ratios.
- STRENGTH V: Load combination relating to normal vehicular use of the bridge with wind of 90 km/hr velocity.
- EXTREME EVENT I: Load combination including earthquake.
- EXTREME EVENT II: Load combination relating to ice load, collision by vessels and vehicles, and certain hydraulic events with a reduced live load other than that which is part of the vehicular collision load, CT .
- SERVICE I: Load combination relating to the normal operational use of the bridge with a 90 km/hr. wind and all loads taken at their nominal values. Also related to deflection control in buried metal structures, tunnel liner plate, and thermoplastic pipe, to control crack width in reinforced concrete structures, and for transverse analysis relating to tension in concrete segmental girders. This load combination should also be used for the investigation of slope stability.
- SERVICE II: Load combination intended to control yielding of steel structures and slip of slip-critical connections due to vehicular live load.
- SERVICE III: Load combination for longitudinal analysis relating to tension in prestressed concrete superstructures with the objective of crack control and to principal tension in the webs of segmental concrete girders.
- SERVICE IV: Load combination relating only to tension in prestressed concrete columns with the objective of crack control.

- **FATIGUE:** Fatigue and fracture load combination relating to repetitive gravitational vehicular live load and dynamic responses under a single design truck having the axle spacing specified in Article 3.6.1.4.1.

The load factors for various loads comprising a design load combination shall be taken as specified in Table 3.1. All relevant subsets of the load combinations shall be investigated. For each load combination, every load that is indicated to be taken into account and that is germane to the component being designed, including all significant effects due to distortion, shall be multiplied by the appropriate load factor and multiple presence factors specified in Article 3.6.1.1.2, if applicable. The products shall be summed as specified in (1.1) and multiplied by the load modifiers specified in Article 1.3.2.

The factors shall be selected to produce the total extreme factored force effect. For each load combination, both positive and negative extremes shall be investigated.

In load combinations where one force effect decreases another effect, the minimum value shall be applied to the load reducing the force effect. For permanent force effects, the load factor that produces the more critical combination shall be selected from Table 3.2. Where the permanent load increases the stability or load-carrying capacity of a component or bridge, the minimum value of the load factor for that permanent load shall also be investigated.

The larger of the two values provided for load factors of TU , CR , and SH shall be used for deformations and the smaller values for all other effects. For simplified analysis of concrete substructures in the strength limit state, a value of 0.5 for γ_{TU} may be used when calculating force effects, but shall be taken in conjunction the gross moment of inertia in the columns or piers. When a refined analysis is completed for concrete substructures in the strength limit state, a value of 1.0 for γ_{TU} shall be used in conjunction with a partially cracked moment of inertia determined by analysis. For concrete substructures in the strength limit state, the value of 0.5 for γ_{PS} , γ_{CR} , and γ_{SH} may similarly be used when calculating force effects in non-segmental structures, but shall be taken in conjunction with the gross moment of inertia in the columns or piers. For steel substructures, a value of 1.0 for γ_{TU} , γ_{PS} , γ_{CR} , and γ_{SH} shall be used.

The evaluation of overall stability of retained fills, as well as earth slopes with or without a shallow or deep foundation unit should be investigated at the service limit state based on the Service I Load Combination and an appropriate resistance factor as specified in Articles 9.5.6 and 9.6.2.3.

For structural plate box structures complying with the provisions of Article 10.10, the live load factor for the vehicular live loads LL and IM shall be taken as 2.0.

The load factor for temperature gradient, γ_{TG} , should be considered on a project-specific basis. In lieu of project-specific information to the contrary, γ_{TG} may be taken as:

- 0.0 at the strength and extreme event limit states,
- 0.5 at the service limit state when live load is considered, and
- 1.0 at the service limits state when live load is not considered.

The load factor for settlement, γ_{SE} , should be considered on a project-specific basis. In lieu of project-specific information to the contrary, γ_{SE} may be taken as 1.0. Load combinations which include settlement shall also be applied without settlement.

For segmentally constructed bridges, the following combination shall be investigated at the service limit state:

$$DC + DW + EH + EV + ES + WA + CR + SH + TG + EL + PS \quad (3.2)$$

Table 3.1: Load Combinations and Load Factors

Load Combination Limit State	DC DD DW EH EV ES EL	LL IM CE BR PL LS	WA	WS	WL	FR	TU CR SH	TG	SE	Use One of These at a Time			
										EQ	IC	CT	CV
STRENGTH I (unless noted)	γ_p	1.75	1.00	—	—	1.00	0.50/1.20	γ_{TG}	γ_{SE}	—	—	—	—
STRENGTH II	γ_p	1.35	1.00	—	—	1.00	0.50/1.20	γ_{TG}	γ_{SE}	—	—	—	—
STRENGTH III	γ_p	—	1.00	1.40	—	1.00	0.50/1.20	γ_{TG}	γ_{SE}	—	—	—	—
STRENGTH IV	γ_p	—	1.00	—	—	1.00	0.50/1.20	—	—	—	—	—	—
STRENGTH V	γ_p	1.35	1.00	0.40	1.00	1.00	0.50/1.20	γ_{TG}	γ_{SE}	—	—	—	—
EXTREME EVENT I	γ_p	γ_{EQ}	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—	—	1.00	—	—	—
EXTREME EVENT II	γ_p	0.50	1.00	—	—	1.00	—	—	—	—	1.00	1.00	1.00
SERVICE I	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.30	1.00	1.00	1.00/1.20	γ_{TG}	γ_{SE}	—	—	—	—
SERVICE II	1.00	1.30	1.00	—	—	1.00	1.00/1.20	—	—	—	—	—	—
SERVICE III	1.00	0.80	1.00	—	—	1.00	1.00/1.20	γ_{TG}	γ_{SE}	—	—	—	—
SERVICE IV	1.00	—	1.00	0.70	—	1.00	1.00/1.20	—	1.0	—	—	—	—
FATIGUE— LL, IM & CE ONLY	—	0.75	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Table 3.2: Load Factors for Permanent Loads, γ_p .

Type of Load, Foundation Type, and Method Used to Calculate Downdrag		Load Factor	
		Maximum	Minimum
DC: Component and Attachments		1.25	0.90
DC: Strength IV only		1.50	0.90
DD: Downdrag	Piles, α Tomlinson Method	1.4	0.25
	Piles, λ Method	1.05	0.30
	Drilled shafts, O'Neill and Reese (1999) Method	1.25	0.35
DW: Wearing Surfaces and Utilities		1.50	0.65
EH: Horizontal Earth Pressure			
• Active		1.50	0.90
• At-Rest		1.35	0.90
• AEP for anchored walls		1.35	N/A
EL: Locked-in Construction Stresses		1.00	1.00
EV: Vertical Earth Pressure			
• Overall Stability		1.00	N/A
• Retaining Walls and Abutments		1.35	1.00
• Rigid Buried Structure		1.30	0.90
• Rigid Frames		1.35	0.90
• Flexible Buried Structures other than Metal Box Culverts		1.95	0.90
• Flexible Metal Box Culverts		1.50	0.90
ES: Earth Surcharge		1.50	0.75

Table 3.3: Load Factors for Permanent Loads due to superimposed deformations, γ_p .

Bridge component	PS	CR,SH
Superstructures—Segmental	1.0	See γ_p for
Concrete Substructures supporting Segmental Superstructures (see 3.11.3 , 3.11.4)		DC, Table 3.2
Concrete Superstructures—non-segmental	1.0	1.0
Substructures supporting non-segmental Superstructures		
• using I_g	0.5	0.5
• using $I_{\text{effective}}$	1.0	1.0
Steel substructures	1.0	1.0

Where prestressed components are used in conjunction with steel girders, the force effects from the following sources shall be considered as construction loads, *EL*:

- In conjunction with longitudinal prestressing of a precast deck prior to making the deck sections composite with the girders, the friction between the precast deck sections and the steel girders.
- When longitudinal post-tensioning is performed after the deck becomes composite with the girders, the additional forces induced in the steel girders and shear connectors.
- The effects of differential creep and shrinkage of the concrete.
- The Poisson effect.

The load factor for live load in Extreme Event Load Combination I, γ_{EQ} , shall be determined on a project-specific basis.

Engineering judgment shall be exercised when applying blast loading and when combining them with other loads.

C For more information see Article [3.17.1](#) in Appendix B3.

3.4.2. Load Factors for Construction Loads

3.4.2.1. Evaluation at the Strength Limit State

All appropriate strength load combinations in [Table 3.1](#), modified as specified herein, shall be investigated.

When investigating Strength Load Combinations I, III, and V during construction, load factors for the weight of the structure and appurtenances, DC and DW, shall not be taken to be less than 1.25.

Unless otherwise specified by the Owner, the load factor for construction loads and for any associated dynamic effects shall not be less than 1.5 in Strength Load Combination I. The load factor for wind in Strength Load Combination III shall not be less than 1.25.

C The load factors presented here should not relieve the contractor of responsibility for safety and damage control during construction.

C Construction loads are permanent loads and other loads that act on the structure only during construction. Construction loads include the mass of equipment such as deck finishing machines or loads applied to the structure through false work or other temporary supports. Often the construction loads are not accurately known at design time; however, the magnitude and location of these loads considered in the design should be noted on the contract documents.

3.4.2.2. Evaluation of Deflection at the Service Limit State

In the absence of special provisions to the contrary, where evaluation of construction deflections are required by the contract documents, Load Combination Service I shall apply. Construction dead loads shall be considered as part of the permanent load and construction transient loads considered part of the live load. The associated permitted deflections shall be included in the contract documents.

3.4.3. Load Factors for Jacking and Post-Tensioning Forces

3.4.3.1. Jacking Forces

Unless otherwise specified by the Owner, the design forces for jacking in service shall not be less than 1.3 times the permanent load reaction at the bearing, adjacent to the point of jacking.

Where the bridge will not be closed to traffic during the jacking operation, the jacking load shall also contain a live load reaction consistent with the maintenance of traffic plan, multiplied by the load factor for live load.

3.4.3.2. Force for Post-Tensioning Anchorage Zones

The design force for post-tensioning anchorage zones shall be taken as 1.2 times the maximum jacking force.

3.5. PERMANENT LOADS

3.5.1. Dead Loads: *DC*, *DW*, and *EV*

Dead load shall include the weight of all components of the structure, appurtenances and utilities attached thereto, earth cover, wearing surface, future overlays, and planned widening.

In the absence of more precise information, the densities, specified in [Table 3.4](#), may be used for dead loads.

- C [Table 3.4](#) provides traditional densities. The density of granular materials depends upon the degree of compaction and water content. The density of concrete is primarily affected by the density of the aggregate, which varies by geological location and increases with concrete compressive strength. The density of reinforced concrete is generally taken as 72 kg/m^3 greater than the density of plain concrete. The values provided for wood include the mass of mandatory preservatives. The mass of transit rails, etc., is to be used only for preliminary design.
- C Densities shown with the units kg/m^3 and kg/mm are in mass units, not force units. To convert to force units of N/m^3 multiply by the gravitation at constant $g = 9.8066 \text{ m/sec}^2$ and collect the units kg m/sec^2 as a Newton.

Table 3.4: Densities

Material		Density (kg/m^3)
Aluminum Alloys		2800
Bituminous Wearing Surfaces		2250
Cast Iron		7200
Cinder Filling		960
Compacted Sand, Silt, or Clay		1925
Concrete	Low-density	1775
	Sand-low-density	1925
	Normal Density with $f'_c \leq 35 \text{ MPa}$	2320
	Normal Density with $35 < f'_c \leq 105 \text{ MPa}$	$2240 + 2.29 f'_c$
Loose Sand, Silt, or Gravel		1600
Soft Clay		1600
Rolled Gravel, Macadam, or Ballast		2250
Steel		7850
Stone Masonry		2725
Wood	Hard	960
	Soft	800
Water	Fresh	1000
	Salt	1025
Item		Mass per Unit Length (kg/mm)
Transit Rails, Ties, and Fastening per Track		0.30

3.5.2. Earth Loads: *EH*, *ES*, and *DD*

Earth pressure, earth surcharge, and downdrag loads shall be as specified in Article [3.10](#).

3.6. LIVE LOADS

3.6.1. Gravity Loads: LL and PL

3.6.1.1. Vehicular Live Load

1. Number of Design Lanes

Generally, the number of design lanes should be determined by taking the integer part of the ratio $w/3600$, where w is the clear roadway width in mm between curbs and/or barriers. Possible future changes in the physical or functional clear roadway width of the bridge should be considered.

In cases where the traffic lanes are less than 3.6 m wide, the number of design lanes shall be equal to the number of traffic lanes, and the width of the design lane shall be taken as the width of the traffic lane.

C It is not the intention of this Article to promote bridges with narrow traffic lanes. Wherever possible, bridges should be built to accommodate the standard design lane and appropriate shoulders.

Roadway widths from 6 to 7.2 m shall have two design lanes, each equal to one-half the roadway width.

2. Multiple Presence of Live Load

The provisions of this Article shall not be applied to the fatigue limit state for which one design truck is used, regardless of the number of design lanes. Where the single-lane approximate distribution factors in Articles [4.6.2.2](#) and [4.6.2.3](#) are used, other than the lever rule and statical method, the force effects shall be divided by 1.20.

Unless specified otherwise herein, the extreme live load force effect shall be determined by considering each possible combination of number of loaded lanes multiplied by a corresponding multiple presence factor to account for the probability of simultaneous lane occupation by the full MOMRA design live load. In lieu of site specific data, the values in [Table 3.5](#):

- Shall be used when investigating the effect of one lane loaded,
- May be used when investigating the effect of three or more lanes loaded.

For the purpose of determining the number of lanes when the loading condition includes the pedestrian loads specified in Article [3.6.1.6](#) combined with one or more lanes of the vehicular live load, the pedestrian loads may be taken to be one loaded lane.

The factors specified in [Table 3.5](#) shall not be applied in conjunction with approximate load distribution factors specified in Articles [4.6.2.2](#) and [4.6.2.3](#), except where the lever rule is used or where special requirements for exterior beams in beam-slab bridges, specified in Article [4.6.2.2.2.c](#), are used.

Table 3.5: Multiple Presence Factors m .

Number of Loaded Lanes	Multiple Presence Factors m
1	1.20
2	1.00
3	0.85
>3	0.65

C For more information see Article [3.17.2](#) in Appendix B3.

3.6.1.2. Design Vehicular Live Load

1. General

Vehicular live loading on the roadways of bridges or incidental structures, designated **MOMRA** shall consist of a combination of the:

- Design truck or design tandem, and
- Design lane load.

Except as modified in Article [3.6.1.3.1](#), each design lane under consideration shall be occupied by either the design truck or tandem, coincident with the lane load, where applicable. The loads shall be assumed to occupy 3 m transversely within a design lane.

2. Design Truck

The weights and spacing of axles and wheels for the design truck shall be as specified in [Figure 3.1](#) and dynamic load allowance shall be considered as specified in Article [3.6.2](#).

Except as specified in Articles [3.6.1.3.1](#) and [3.6.1.4.1](#), the spacing between the two 260 kN axles shall be varied between 4.3 and 9 m to produce extreme force effects.

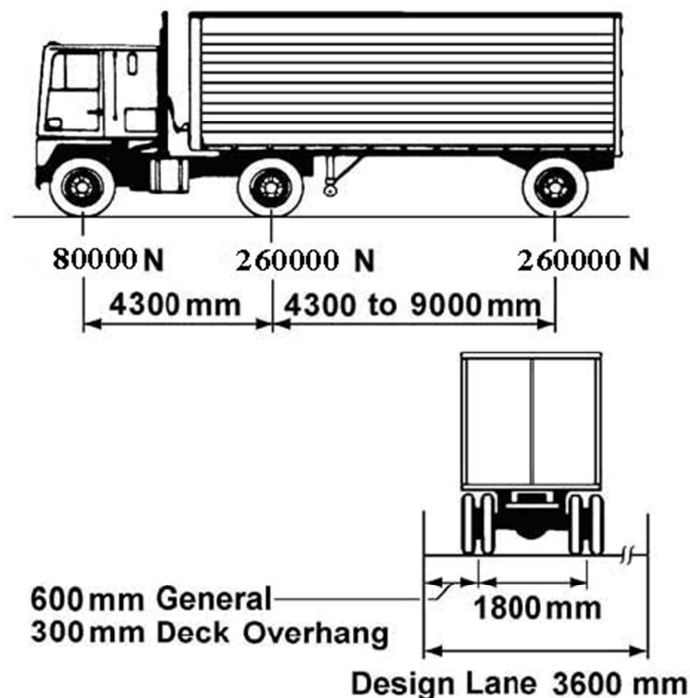


Figure 3.1: Characteristics of the Design Truck.

3. Design Tandem

The design tandem shall consist of a pair of 250 kN axles spaced 1.2 m apart. The transverse spacing of wheels shall be taken as 1.8 m. A dynamic load allowance shall be considered as specified in Article [3.6.2](#).

4. Design Lane Load

The design lane load shall consist of a load of 20 kN/m uniformly distributed in the longitudinal direction.

Transversely, the design lane load shall be assumed to be uniformly distributed over 3 m width. The force effects from the design lane load shall not be subject to a dynamic load allowance.

5. Tire Contact Area

The tire contact area of a wheel consisting of one or two tires shall be assumed to be a single rectangle, whose width and length can be calculated as follows:

$$\text{Tire width} = P/142$$

$$\text{Tire length} = 165\gamma(1 + IM/100)$$

where:

- γ = load factor
- IM = dynamic load allowance percent
- P = design wheel load (N)

The tire pressure shall be assumed to be uniformly distributed over the contact area. The tire pressure shall be assumed to be distributed as follows:

- On continuous surfaces, uniformly over the specified contact area, and
- On interrupted surfaces, uniformly over the actual contact area within the footprint with the pressure increased in the ratio of the specified to actual contact areas.

6. Distribution of Wheel Loads through Earth Fills

C This provision applies to relieving slabs below grade and to top slabs of box culverts.

Where the depth of fill is less than 600 mm, live loads shall be distributed to the top slabs of culverts as specified in Article [4.6.2.10](#).

- C Traditionally, the effect of fills less than 600 mm deep on live load has been ignored. Research ([McGrath, et al. 2004](#)) has shown that in design of box sections allowing distribution of live load through fill in the direction parallel to the span provides a more accurate design model to predict moment, thrust, and shear forces. Provisions in Article [4.6.2.10](#) provide a means to address the effect of shallow fills.
- C Elastic solutions for pressures produced within an infinite half-space by loads on the ground surface can be found in [Poulos and Davis \(1974\)](#), [NAVFAC DM-7.1 \(1982\)](#), and soil mechanics textbooks.
- C This approximation is similar to the 60° rule found in many texts on soil mechanics. The dimensions of the tire contact area are determined at the surface based on the dynamic load allowance of 33 percent at depth = 0. They are projected through the soil as specified. The pressure intensity on the surface is based on the wheel load without dynamic load allowance. A dynamic load allowance is added to the pressure on the projected area. The dynamic load allowance also varies with depth as specified in Article [3.6.2.2](#). The design lane load is applied where appropriate and multiple presence factors apply.

In lieu of a more precise analysis, or the use of other acceptable approximate methods of load distribution permitted in [Section 10](#), where the depth of fill is 600 mm or greater, wheel loads may be considered to be uniformly distributed over a rectangular area with sides equal to the dimension of the tire contact area, as specified in Article [3.6.1.2.5](#), and increased by either 1.15 times the depth of the fill in select

granular backfill, or the depth of the fill in all other cases. The provisions of Articles 3.6.1.1.2 and 3.6.1.3 shall apply.

Where such areas from several wheels overlap, the total load shall be uniformly distributed over the area.

For single-span culverts, the effects of live load may be neglected where the depth of fill is more than 2.4 m and exceeds the span length; for multiple span culverts, the effects may be neglected where the depth of fill exceeds the distance between faces of end walls.

Where the live load and impact moment in concrete slabs, based on the distribution of the wheel load through earth fills, exceeds the live load and impact moment calculated according to Article 4.6.2.10, the latter moment shall be used.

3.6.1.3. Application of Design Vehicular Live Loads

1. General

Unless otherwise specified, the extreme force effect shall be taken as the larger of the following:

- The effect of the design tandem combined with the effect of the design lane load, or
 - The effect of one design truck with the variable axle spacing specified in Article 3.6.1.2.2, combined with the effect of the design lane load, and
 - For negative moment between points of contra-flexure under a uniform load on all spans, and reaction at interior piers only, 90% ninety percent of the effect of two design trucks spaced a minimum of 15 m between the lead axle of one truck and the rear axle of the other truck, combined with 90% ninety percent of the effect of the design lane load. The distance between the 260 kN axles of each truck shall be taken as 4.3 m. The two design truck shall be placed in adjacent spans to produce maximum force effects.
- C The effects of an axle sequence and the lane load are superposed in order to obtain extreme values. This is a deviation from the traditional AASHTO approach, in which either the truck or the lane load, with an additional concentrated load, and provided for extreme effects.
- C The lane load is not interrupted to provide space for the axle sequences of the design tandem or the design truck; interruption is needed only for patch loading patterns to produce extreme force effects.

Axles that do not contribute to the extreme force effect under consideration shall be neglected.

Both the design lanes and the 3 m loaded width in each lane shall be positioned to produce extreme force effects. The design truck or tandem shall be positioned transversely such that the center of any wheel load is not closer than:

- For the design of the deck overhang: 300 mm from the face of the curb or railing;
- For the design of all other components: 600 mm from the edge of the design lane.

Unless otherwise specified, the lengths of design lanes, or parts thereof that contribute to the extreme force effect under consideration shall be loaded with the design lane load.

- C The loaded length should be determined by the points where the influence surface meets the centerline of the design lane.
- C Where a sidewalk is not separated from the roadway by a crashworthy traffic barrier, consideration should be given to the possibility that vehicles can mount the sidewalk.

2. Loading for Optional Live Load Deflection Evaluation

If the Owner invokes the optional live load deflection criteria specified in Article 2.6.2.6.2, the deflection should be taken as the larger of:

- That resulting from the design truck alone, or
 - That resulting from twenty five percent 25% of the design truck taken together with the design lane load.
- C As indicated in Article 2.6.2.6.1, live load deflection is a service issue, not a strength issue. Experience with bridges designed under previous editions of the **AASHTO Standard Specifications** indicated no adverse effects of live load deflection per se. Therefore, there appears to be little reason to require that the past criteria be compared to a deflection based upon the heavier live load required by these Specifications.

3. Design Loads for Decks, Deck Systems, and the Top Slabs of Box Culverts

The provisions of this Article shall not apply to decks designed under the provisions of Article 7.7.2, “Empirical Design”.

- C This Article clarifies the selection of wheel loads to be used in the design of bridge decks, slab bridges, and top slabs of box culverts.
- C The design load is always an axle load; single wheel loads should not be considered.
- C The design truck and tandem without the lane load and with a multiple presence factor of 1.2 results in factored force effects that are similar to the factored force effects using earlier specifications for typical span ranges of box culverts.
- C Individual owners may choose to develop other axle weights and configurations to capture the load effects of the actual loads in their jurisdiction based upon local legal-load and permitting policies. Triple axel configurations of single unit vehicles have been observed to have load effects in excess of the **MOMRA tandem axle load**.

Where the approximate strip method is used to analyze decks and top slabs of culverts, force effects shall be determined on the following basis:

- Where the slab spans primarily in the transverse direction, only the axles of the design truck of Article 3.6.1.2.2 or design tandem of Article 3.6.1.2.3 shall be applied to the deck slab or the top slab of box culverts.
- Where the slab spans primarily in the longitudinal direction:
 - For top slabs of box culverts of all spans and for all other cases, including slab-type bridges where the span does not exceed 4.6 m, only the axle loads of the design truck or design tandem of Articles 3.6.1.2.2 and 3.6.1.2.3, respectively, shall be applied.
 - For all other cases, including slab-type bridges (excluding top slabs of box culverts) where the span exceeds 4.6 m, all of the load specified in Article 3.6.1.2 shall be applied.

Where the refined methods are used to analyze decks, force effects shall be determined on the following basis:

- Where the slab spans primarily in the transverse direction, only the axles of the design truck of Article 3.6.1.2.2 or design tandem of Article 3.6.1.2.3 shall be applied to the deck slab.
- Where the slab spans primarily in the longitudinal direction (including slab-type bridges), all of the loads specified in Article 3.6.1.2 shall be applied.

Wheel loads shall be assumed to be equal within an axle unit, and amplification of the wheel loads due to centrifugal and braking forces need not be considered for the design of decks.

4. Deck Overhang Load

The LRFD Specifications allows the structural contribution of any structurally continuous barrier to be used to resist transient loads at the service and fatigue-and-fracture limit states. This is typically not done in these specifications but may be considered in rehabilitation if the contribution of the barrier is significant.

Horizontal loads on the overhang resulting from vehicle collision with barriers shall be in accordance with the provisions of Section 11.

- C Structurally continuous barriers have been observed to be effective in distributing wheel loads in the overhang.

3.6.1.4. Fatigue Load

1. Magnitude and Configuration

The fatigue load shall be one design truck or axles thereof specified in Article 3.6.1.2.2, but with a constant spacing of 9 m between the 260 KN axles.

The dynamic load allowance specified in Article 3.6.2 shall be applied to the fatigue load.

2. Frequency

- C Since the fatigue and fracture limit state is defined in terms of accumulated stress-range cycles, specification of load alone is not adequate. Load should be specified along with the frequency of load occurrence.
- C For the purposes of this Article, a truck is defined as any vehicle with more than either two axles or four wheels.

The frequency of the fatigue load shall be taken as the single-lane average daily truck traffic ($ADTT_{SL}$). This frequency shall be applied to all components of the bridge, even to those located under lanes that carry a lesser number of trucks.

- C The single-lane $ADTT$ is that for the traffic lane in which the majority of the truck traffic crosses the bridge. On a typical bridge with no nearby entrance/exit ramps, the shoulder lane carries most of the truck traffic.
- C Since future traffic patterns on the bridge are uncertain, the frequency of the fatigue load for a single lane is assumed to apply to all lanes.

In the absence of better information, the single-lane average daily truck traffic shall be taken as:

$$ADTT_{SL} = p \times ADTT \quad (3.3)$$

where:

$ADTT$ = the number of trucks per day in one direction averaged over the design life

- $ADTT_{SL}$ = the number of trucks per day in a single-lane averaged over the design life.
- p = taken as specified in [Table 3.6](#)

Table 3.6: Fraction of Truck Traffic in a Single Lane, p

Number of Lanes Available to Trucks	p
1	1.00
2	0.85
3 or more	0.80

- C Research has shown that the average daily traffic (ADT), including all vehicles, i.e., cars and trucks, is physically limited to about 20 000 vehicles per day under normal conditions. This limiting value of traffic should be considered when estimating the $ADTT$. The $ADTT$ can be determined by multiplying the ADT by the fraction of trucks in the traffic. In lieu of site-specific fraction of truck traffic data, the values of [Table 3.7](#) may be applied for routine bridges.

Table 3.7: Fraction of Trucks in Traffic.

Class of Highway	Fraction of Trucks in Traffic
Rural Interstate	0.20
Urban Interstate	0.15
Other Rural	0.15
Other Urban	0.10

3. Load Distribution for Fatigue

a. Refined Methods

Where the bridge is analyzed by any refined method, as specified in Article [4.6.3](#), a single design truck shall be positioned transversely and longitudinally to maximize stress range at the detail under consideration, regardless of the position of traffic or design lanes on the deck.

- C If it were assured that the traffic lanes would remain as they are indicated at the opening of the bridge throughout its entire service life, it would be more appropriate to place the truck at the center of the traffic lane that produces maximum stress range in the detail under consideration. But because future traffic patterns on the bridge are uncertain and in the interest of minimizing the number of calculations required of the Designer, the position of the truck is made independent of the location of both the traffic lanes and the design lanes.

b. Approximate Methods

Where the bridge is analyzed by approximate load distribution, as specified in Article [4.6.2](#), the distribution factor for one traffic lane shall be used.

3.6.1.5. Rail Transit Load

Where a bridge also carries rail-transit vehicles, the Owner shall specify the transit load characteristics and the expected interaction between transit and highway traffic.

- C If rail transit is designed to occupy an exclusive lane, transit loads should be included in the design, but the bridge should not have less strength than if it had been designed as a highway bridge of the same width.
- C If the rail transit is supposed to mix with regular highway traffic, the Owner should specify or approve an appropriate combination of transit and highway loads for the design.
- C Transit load characteristics may include:

- Loads,
- Load distribution,
- Load frequency,
- Dynamic allowance, and
- Dimensional requirements.

3.6.1.6. Pedestrian Loads

A pedestrian load of 3.6×10^{-3} MPa shall be applied to all sidewalks wider than 600 mm and considered simultaneously with the vehicular design live load in the vehicle lane. Where vehicles can mount the sidewalk, sidewalk pedestrian load shall not be considered concurrently. If a sidewalk can be removed in the future, the vehicle live loads shall be applied at 0.3 m. from edge-of-deck for design of the overhang, and 0.6 m. from edge-of-deck for design of all other components.

Bridges for only pedestrian and/or bicycle traffic shall be designed for a live load of 4.1×10^{-3} MPa. The frequency of pedestrian footfall loads in either the vertical or transverse lateral direction shall not resonate with the natural frequencies of the structure.

Where sidewalks, pedestrian, and/or bicycle bridges can be used by maintenance and/or other incidental vehicles, the following loads shall be considered in the strength II Load Combination, unless otherwise specified by the Owner.

Clear Bridge Width (w)	Design Load
$2 \text{ m.} \leq w < 3 \text{ m.}$	H5
$w \geq 3 \text{ m.}$	H10

The pedestrian load shall not be considered to act concurrently with these vehicles. The dynamic load allowance need not be considered for these vehicles.

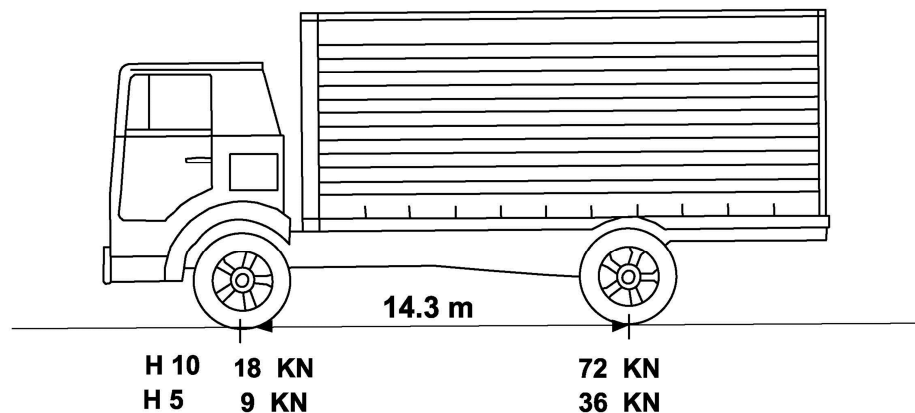


Figure 3.2: H-Vehicle Configuration

3.6.1.7. Loads on Railings

Loads on railings shall be taken as specified in [Section 11](#).

3.6.2. Dynamic Load Allowance *IM*

3.6.2.1. General

Unless otherwise permitted in Articles [3.6.2.2](#), the static effects of the design truck or tandem, other than centrifugal and braking forces, shall be increased by the percentage specified in [Table 3.8](#) for dynamic load allowance.

The factor to be applied to the static load shall be taken as: $(1 + IM/100)$.

The dynamic load allowance shall not be applied to pedestrian loads or to the design lane load.

Table 3.8: Dynamic Load Allowance, *IM*

Component	<i>IM</i>
Deck Joints—All Limit States	75%
All Other Components	
• Fatigue and Fracture Limit State	15%
• All Other Limit States	33%

The application of dynamic load allowance for buried components, covered in [Section 10](#), shall be as specified in Article [3.6.2.2](#).

Dynamic load allowance need not be applied to:

- Retaining walls not subject to vertical reactions from the superstructure, and
- Foundation components that are entirely below ground level.

The dynamic load allowance may be reduced for components, other than joints, if justified by sufficient evidence, in accordance with the provisions of Article [4.7.2.1](#).

C For more information see Article [3.17.3](#) in Appendix B3.

3.6.2.2. Buried Components

The dynamic load allowance for culverts and other buried structures covered by [Section 10](#), in percent, shall be taken as:

$$IM = 33(1.0 - 4.1 \times 10^{-4} D_E) \geq 0\% \quad (3.4)$$

where:

D_E = the minimum depth of earth cover above the structure (mm)

3.6.3. Centrifugal Forces: *CE*

C Centrifugal force is not required to be applied to the design lane load, as the spacing of vehicles at high speed is assumed to be large, resulting in a low density of vehicles following and/or preceding the design truck. For all other consideration of live load other than for fatigue, the design lane load is still considered even though the centrifugal effect is not applied to it.

For the purpose of computing the radial force or the overturning effect on wheel loads, the centrifugal effect on live load shall be taken as the product of the axle weights of the design truck or tandem and the factor *C*, taken as:

$$C = f \frac{v^2}{g.R} \quad (3.5)$$

where:

- v = highway design speed (m/sec.)
 f = 4/3 for load combinations other than fatigue
 1.0 for fatigue
 g = gravitational acceleration: 9.807 (m/sec.²)
 R = radius of curvature of traffic lane (m)

- C The specified live load combination of the design truck and lane load, however, represents a group of exclusion vehicles that produce force effects of at least 4/3 of those caused by the design truck alone on short- and medium-span bridges. This ratio is indicated in Eq. (3.5) for the service and strength limit states. For the fatigue and fracture limit state, the factor 1.0 is consistent with cumulative damage analysis. The provision is not technically perfect, yet it reasonably models the representative exclusion vehicle traveling at design speed with large headways to other vehicles. The approximation attributed to this convenient representation is acceptable in the framework of the uncertainty of centrifugal force from random traffic patterns.

Highway design speed shall not be taken to be less than the value specified in the current edition of the **AASHTO publication, A Policy of Geometric Design of Highways and Streets**.

The multiple presence factors specified in Article 3.6.1.1.2 shall apply.

Centrifugal forces shall be applied horizontally at a distance 1.8 m above the roadway surface. A load path to carry the radial force to the substructure shall be provided.

- C Centrifugal force also causes an overturning effect on the wheel loads because the radial force is applied 1.8m above the top of the deck. Thus, centrifugal force tends to cause an increase in the vertical wheel loads toward the outside of the bridge and an unloading of the wheel loads toward the inside of the bridge.

The effect of super-elevation in reducing the overturning effect of centrifugal force on vertical wheel loads may be considered.

- C Superelevation helps to balance the overturning effect due to the centrifugal force and this beneficial effect may be considered. The effects due to vehicle cases with centrifugal force effects included should be compared to the effects due to vehicle cases with no centrifugal force, and the worst case selected.

3.6.4. Braking Force: **BR**

The braking force shall be taken as the greater of:

- 25 percent of the axle weights of the design truck or design tandem or,
 - 5 percent of the design truck plus lane load or 5 percent of the design tandem plus lane load.
- C Based on energy principles, and assuming uniform deceleration, the braking force determined as a fraction of vehicle weight is:

$$b = \frac{v^2}{2ga} \quad (3.6)$$

- C Where a is the length of uniform deceleration and b is the fraction. Calculations using a braking length of 122 m and a speed of 90 km/hr. (25 m/sec.) yield $b = 0.26$ for a horizontal force that will act for a period of about 10 seconds. The factor b applies to all lanes in one direction because all vehicles may have reacted within this time frame.

This braking force shall be placed in all design lanes which are considered to be loaded in accordance with Article 3.6.1.1.1 and which are carrying traffic headed in the same direction. These forces shall be assumed to act horizontally at a distance of 1.8 m

above the roadway surface in either longitudinal direction to cause extreme force effects. All design lanes shall be simultaneously loaded for bridges likely to become one-directional in the future.

The multiple presence factors specified in Article [3.6.1.1.2](#) shall apply.

- C For short- and medium-span bridges, the specified braking force can be significantly larger than was required in the Standard Specifications. The braking force specified in the Standard Specifications dates back to at least the early 1940's without any significant changes to address the improved braking capacity of modern trucks.

3.6.5. Vehicular Collision Force: *CT*

3.6.5.1. Protection of Structures

The provisions of Article [3.6.5.2](#) need not be considered for structures which are protected by:

- An embankment;
- A structurally independent, crashworthy ground-mounted 1.37 m high barrier, located within 3.0 m from the component being protected; or
- A 1.0 m high barrier located at more than 3 m from the component being protected.

In order to qualify for this exemption, such barrier shall be structurally and geometrically capable of surviving the crash test for Test Level 5, as specified in [0](#).

- C For the purpose of this Article, a barrier may be considered structurally independent if it does not transmit loads to the bridge.
- C Full-scale crash tests have shown that some vehicles have a greater tendency to lean over or partially cross over a 1070-mm high barrier than a 1370-mm high barrier. This behavior would allow a significant collision of the vehicle with the component being protected if the component is located within a meter or so of the barrier. If the component is more than about 3m behind the barrier, the difference between the two barrier heights is no longer important.

3.6.5.2. Vehicle and Railway Collision with Structures

- C It is not the intent of this provision to encourage unprotected piers and abutments within the setbacks indicated, but rather to supply some guidance for structural design when it is deemed totally impractical to meet the requirements of Article [3.6.5.1](#).

Unless protected as specified in Article [3.6.5.1](#), abutments and piers located within a distance of 9.0 m to the edge of roadway, or within a distance of 15 m to the centerline of a railway track, shall be designed for an equivalent static force of 1800 kN, which is assumed to act in any direction in a horizontal plane, at a distance of 1.20 m above ground.

- C The equivalent static force of 1800 KN is based on the information from full-scale crash tests of barriers for redirecting 360 KN tractor trailers and from analysis of other truck collisions. The 1800KN train collision loads is based on recent, physically unverified, analytical work ([Hirsch 1989](#)). For individual column shafts, the 1800 KN load should be considered a point load. For wall piers, the load may be considered to be a point load or may be distributed over an area deemed suitable for the size of the structure and the anticipated impacting vehicle, but not greater than 1500 mm wide by 600 mm high. These dimensions were determined by considering the size of a truck frame.

The provisions of Article [2.3.2.3.1](#) shall apply.

3.6.5.3. Vehicle Collision with Barriers

The provisions of [Section 11](#) shall apply.

3.7. WATER LOADS

3.7.1. Static Pressure

Static pressure of water shall be assumed to act perpendicular to the surface that is retaining the water. Pressure shall be calculated as the product of height of water above the point of consideration, the density of water, and g (the acceleration of gravity). Design water levels for various limit states shall be as specified and/or approved by the Owner.

3.7.2. Buoyancy

Buoyancy shall be considered to be an uplift force, taken as the sum of the vertical components of static pressures, as specified in Article 3.7.1, acting on all components below design water level.

- C For substructures with cavities in which the presence or absence of water cannot be ascertained, the condition producing the least favorable force effect should be chosen.

3.7.3. Stream Pressure

3.7.3.1. Longitudinal

The pressure of flowing water acting in the longitudinal direction of substructures shall be taken as:

$$P = 5.14 \times 10^{-4} C_D V^2 \quad (3.7)$$

where:

- P = pressure of flowing water (MPa)
 C_D = drag coefficient for piers as specified in Table 3.9
 V = design velocity of water for the design flood in strength and service limit states and for the check flood in the extreme event limit state (m/sec.)

Table 3.9: Drag Coefficient

Type	C_D
Semicircular-nosed pier	0.7
Square-ended pier	1.4
Debris lodged against the pier	1.4
Wedge-nosed pier with nose angle 90° or less	0.8

The longitudinal drag force shall be taken as the product of longitudinal stream pressure and the projected surface exposed thereto.

- C For more information and details see 3.17.4 in Appendix B3.

3.7.3.2. Lateral

The lateral, uniformly distributed pressure on a substructure due to water flowing at an angle, θ , to the longitudinal axis of the pier shall be taken as:

$$P = 5.14 \times 10^{-4} C_L V^2 \quad (3.8)$$

where:

- P = lateral pressure (MPa)
 C_L = lateral drag coefficient specified in Table 3.10

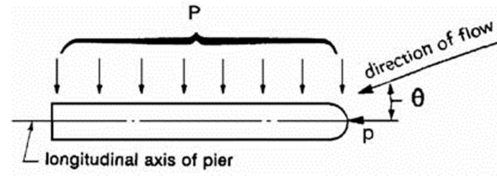


Figure 3.3: Plan View of Pier Showing Stream Flow Pressure.

Table 3.10: Lateral Drag Coefficient.

Angle, θ , between direction of flow and longitudinal axis of the pier	CL
0°	0.0
5°	0.5
10°	0.7
20°	0.9
$\geq 30^\circ$	1.0

The lateral drag force shall be taken as the product of the lateral stream pressure and the surface exposed thereto.

C The discussion of Eq. (3.7) also applies to Eq. (3.8).

3.7.4. Wave Load

Wave action on bridge structures shall be considered for exposed structures where the development of significant wave forces may occur.

C Loads due to wave action on bridge structures shall be determined using accepted engineering practice methods. Site-specific conditions should be considered. The latest edition of the Shore Protection Manual, published by the Coastal Engineering Research Center, Department of the Army, is recommended for the computation of wave forces.

3.7.5. Change in Foundations Due to Limit State for Scour

C Provisions concerning the effects of scour are given in Section 2.

C Scour per se is not a force effect, but by changing the conditions of the substructure it may significantly alter the consequences of force effects acting on structures.

The provisions of Article 2.7.4.4 shall apply. The consequences of changes in foundation conditions resulting from the design flood for scour shall be considered at strength and service limit states. The consequences of changes in foundation conditions due to scour resulting from the check flood for bridge scour and from hurricanes shall be considered at the extreme event limit states.

3.8. WIND LOAD

3.8.1. Horizontal Wind Pressure

3.8.1.1. General

Pressures specified herein shall be assumed to be caused by a base design wind velocity, V_B , of 160 km/hr. Wind load shall be assumed to be uniformly distributed on the area exposed to the wind. The exposed area shall be the sum of areas of all components, including floor system and railing, as seen in elevation taken

perpendicular to the assumed wind direction. This direction shall be varied to determine the extreme force effect in the structure or in its components. Areas that do not contribute to the extreme force effect under consideration may be neglected in the analysis. For bridges or parts of bridges more than 10 m above low ground or water level, the design wind velocity, V_{DZ} , should be adjusted according to:

$$V_{DZ} = 2.5V_0 \left(\frac{V_{10}}{V_B} \right) \ln \left(\frac{Z}{Z_0} \right) \quad (3.9)$$

where:

- V_{DZ} = design wind velocity at design elevation, Z (km/hr.)
- V_{10} = wind velocity at 10 m above low ground or above design water level as specified in [Figure 3.4](#) (km/hr.)
- V_B = base wind velocity of 160 km/hr. at 10 m height, yielding design pressures specified in Articles [3.8.1.2](#) and [3.8.2](#).
- Z = height of structure at which wind loads are being calculated as measured from low ground, or from water level, > 10 m.
- V_0 = friction velocity, a meteorological wind characteristic taken, as specified in [Table 3.11](#), for various upwind surface characteristics (km/hr.)
- Z_0 = friction length of upstream fetch, a meteorological wind characteristic taken as specified in [Table 3.11](#) (mm).

Table 3.11: Values of V_0 and Z_0 for Various Upstream Surface Conditions.

CONDITION	OPEN COUNTRY	SUBURBAN	CITY
V_0 (km/hr.)	13.2	17.6	19.3
Z_0 (mm)	70	1000	2500

V_{10} may be established from:

- Basic Wind Speed charts available in [ASCE 7-88](#) for various recurrence intervals, Site-specific wind surveys, and
- In the absence of better criterion, the assumption that $V_{10} = V_B = 160$ km/hr.

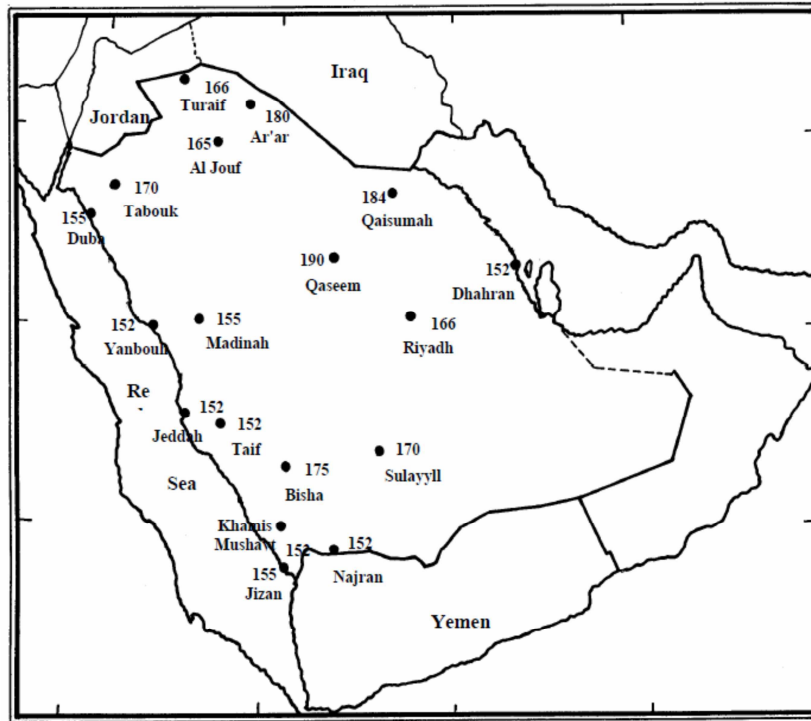


Figure 3.4: Basic 3-Second Gust Wind Speed in km/h for Selected Cities of KSA

ADOPTED FROM SAUDI ARAMCO DATA SAES A-112.

C For more information see Article [3.17.5](#) in Appendix B3.**3.8.1.2. Wind Pressure on Structures: WS** **1. General**

If justified by local conditions, a different base design wind velocity may be selected for load combinations not involving wind on live load. The direction of the design wind shall be assumed to be horizontal, unless otherwise specified in Article [3.8.3](#). In the absence of more precise data, design wind pressure, in MPa, may be determined as:

$$P_D = P_B \left(\frac{V_{DZ}}{V_B} \right) = P_B \frac{V_{DZ}}{25600} \quad (3.10)$$

P_B = base wind pressure specified in [Table 3.12](#) (MPa)

Table 3.12: Base Pressures, P_B Corresponding to $V_B = 160$ km/hr.

Superstructure Components	Windward Load, MPa	Leeward Load, MPa
Trusses, Columns, and arches	0.0024	0.0012
Beams	0.0024	NA
Large Flat Surfaces	0.0019	NA

The total wind loading shall not be taken less than 4.4 N/mm in the plane of a windward chord and 2.2 N/mm in the plane of a leeward chord on truss and arch components, and not less than 4.4 N/mm on beam or girder spans.

- C The stagnation pressure associated with a wind velocity of 160 km/hr. is 1.23×10^{-3} MPa, which is significantly less than the values specified in [Table 3.12](#). The difference reflects the effect of gusting combined with some tradition of long-time usage.
- C The pressures specified in N/mm or MPa ($=\text{N/mm}^2$) should be chosen to produce the greater net wind load on the structure.
- C Wind tunnel tests may be used to provide more precise estimates of wind pressures. Such testing should be considered where wind is a major design load.
- C The term "columns" in [Table 3.12](#) refers to columns in superstructures such as spandrel columns in arches.

2. Loads from Superstructures

Except where specified herein, where the wind is not taken as normal to the structure, the base wind pressures, P_B , for various angles of wind direction may be taken as specified in [Table 3.13](#) and shall be applied to a single place of exposed area. The skew angle shall be taken as measured from a perpendicular to the longitudinal axis. The wind direction for design shall be that which produces the extreme force effect on the component under investigation. The transverse and longitudinal pressures shall be applied simultaneously.

Table 3.13: Base Wind Pressures, P_B , for Various Angles of Attack and $V_B = 160$ km/hr.

Skew Angle of Wind	Trusses, Columns and Arches		Girders	
	Lateral Load	Longitudinal Load	Lateral Load	Longitudinal Load
Degrees	MPa	MPa	MPa	MPa
0	0.0036	0.0000	0.0024	0.0000
15	0.0034	0.0006	0.0021	0.0003
30	0.0031	0.0013	0.0020	0.0006
45	0.0023	0.0020	0.0016	0.0008
60	0.0011	0.0024	0.0008	0.0009

- C For trusses, columns, and arches, the base wind pressures specified in [Table 3.13](#) are the sum of the pressures applied to both the windward and leeward areas.

For the usual girder and slab bridges having an individual span length of not more than 38 m. and a maximum height of 9 m. above low ground or water level the following wind loading may be used:

- 2.4×10^{-3} Pa, transverse
- 0.6×10^{-3} Pa, longitudinal

Both forces shall be applied simultaneously.

3. Forces Applied Directly to the Substructure

The transverse and longitudinal forces to be applied directly to the substructure shall be calculated from an assumed base wind pressure of 0.0019 MPa. For wind

directions taken skewed to the substructure, this force shall be resolved into components perpendicular to the end and front elevations of the substructure. The component perpendicular to the end elevation shall act on the exposed substructure area as seen in end elevation, and the component perpendicular to the front elevation shall act on the exposed areas and shall be applied simultaneously with the wind loads from the superstructure.

3.8.1.3. Wind Pressure on Vehicles: *WL*

When vehicles are present, the design wind pressure shall be applied to both structure and vehicles. Wind pressure on vehicles shall be represented by an interruptible, moving force of 1.46 N/mm acting normal to, and 1.8 m above, the roadway and shall be transmitted to the structure.

- C Based on practical experience, maximum live loads are not expected to be present on the bridge when the wind velocity exceeds 90 km/hr. The load factor corresponding to the treatment of wind on structure only in Load Combination Strength III would be $(90/160)^2 (1.4) = 0.44$, which has been rounded to 0.40 in the Strength V Load Combination. This load factor corresponds to 0.3 in Service I.
- C The 1.46 N/mm wind load is based on a long row of randomly sequenced passenger cars, commercial vans, and trucks exposed to the 90 km/hr. design wind. This horizontal live load, similar to the design lane load, should be applied only to the tributary areas producing a force effect of the same kind.

Except where specified herein, when wind on vehicles is not taken as normal to the structure, the components of normal and parallel force applied to the live load may be taken as specified in [Table 3.14](#) with the skew angle taken as referenced normal to the surface.

Table 3.14: Wind Components on Live Load.

Skew Angle	Normal Component	Parallel Component
Degrees	N/mm	N/mm
0	1.46	0.00
15	1.28	0.18
30	1.20	0.35
45	0.96	0.47
60	0.50	0.55

For the usual girder and slab bridges having an individual span length of not more than 38 m. and a maximum height of 9 m. above low ground or water level the following wind loading may be used:

- 4.8×10^{-3} Pa, transverse
- 1.9×10^{-3} Pa, longitudinal

Both forces shall be applied simultaneously.

3.8.2. Vertical Wind Pressure

- C The intent of this Article is to account for the effect resulting from interruption of the horizontal flow of air by the superstructure. This load is to be applied even to discontinuous bridge decks, such as grid decks. This load may govern where overturning of the bridge is investigated.

Unless otherwise determined in Article [3.8.3](#), a vertical upward wind force of 96×10^{-3} MPa times the width of the deck, including parapets and sidewalks, shall be considered to be a longitudinal line load. This force shall be applied only for the

Strength III and Service IV limit states which do not involve wind on live load, and only when the direction of wind is taken to be perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the bridge. This lineal force shall be applied at the windward quarter-point of the deck width in conjunction with the horizontal wind loads specified in Article [3.8.1](#).

3.8.3. Aeroelastic Instability

3.8.3.1. General

Aeroelastic force effects shall be taken into account in the design of bridges and structural components apt to be wind-sensitive. For the purpose of this Article, all bridges, and structural components thereof with a span length to width or depth ratio exceeding 30.0 shall be deemed to be wind-sensitive.

- C Because of the complexity of analyses often necessary for an in-depth evaluation of structural aeroelasticity, this Article is intentionally kept to a simple statement. Many bridges, decks, or individual structural components have been shown to be aeroelastically insensitive if their length-to-width or length-to-depth ratios are under about 30.0, a somewhat arbitrary value helpful only in identifying likely wind-sensitive cases.

The vibration of cables due to the interaction of wind and rain shall also be considered.

- C Flexible bridges, such as cable-supported or very long spans of any type, may require special studies based on wind tunnel information. In general, appropriate wind tunnel tests involve simulation of the wind environment local to the bridge site. Details of this are part of the existing wind tunnel state of the art and are beyond the scope of this commentary.

3.8.3.2. Aeroelastic Phenomena

The aeroelastic phenomena of vortex excitation, galloping, flutter, and divergence shall be considered where applicable.

- C Excitation due to vortex shedding is the escape of wind-induced vortices behind the member, which tend to excite the component at its fundamental natural frequency in harmonic motion. It is important to keep stresses due to vortex-induced oscillations below the "infinite life" fatigue stress. Methods exist for estimating such stress amplitudes, but they are outside the scope of this commentary.
- C Tubular components can be protected against vortex-induced oscillation by adding bracing, strakes, or tuned mass dampers or by attaching horizontal flat plates parallel to the tube axis above and/or below the central third of their span. Such aerodynamic damper plates should lie about one-third tube diameter above or below the tube to allow free passage of wind. The width of the plates may be the diameter of the tube or wider.
- C Galloping is a high-amplitude oscillation associated with ice-laden cables or long, flexible members having aerodynamically unsymmetrical cross-sections. Cable-stays, having circular sections, will not gallop unless their circumferences are deformed by ice, dropping water, or accumulated debris.
- C Flexible bridge decks, as in very long spans and some pedestrian bridges, may be prone to wind-induced flutter, a wind-excited oscillation of destructive amplitudes, or, on some occasions, divergence, and an irreversible twist under high wind. Analysis methods, including wind tunnel studies leading to adjustments of the deck form, are available for prevention of both flutter and divergence.

3.8.3.3. Control of Dynamic Responses

Bridges and structural components thereof, including cables, shall be designed to be free of fatigue damage due to vortex-induced or galloping oscillations. Bridges shall be designed to be free of divergence and catastrophic flutter up to 1.2 times the design wind velocity applicable at bridge deck height.

- C Cables in stayed-girder bridges have been successfully stabilized against excessive dynamic responses by attaching automotive dampers to the bridge at deck level or by cross-tying multiple cable-stays.

3.8.3.4. Wind Tunnel Tests

Representative wind tunnel tests may be used to satisfy the requirements of Articles [3.8.3.2](#) and [3.8.3.3](#).

- C Wind tunnel testing of bridges and other civil engineering structures is a highly developed technology, which may be used to study the wind response characteristics of a structural model or to verify the results of analysis ([Simiu 1976](#)).

3.9. EARTHQUAKE EFFECTS: EQ

3.9.1. General

- C Earthquake loads are given by the product of the elastic seismic response coefficient C_{sm} and the equivalent weight of the superstructure. The equivalent weight is a function of the actual weight and bridge configuration and is automatically included in both the single-mode and multimode methods of analysis specified in Article [4.7.4](#). Design and detailing provisions for bridges to minimize their susceptibility to damage from earthquakes are contained in [Section 3](#), [Section 4](#), [Section 5](#), [Section 6](#), [Section 8](#) and [Section 9](#).

Bridges shall be designed to have a low probability of collapse but may suffer significant damage and disruption to service when subject to earthquake ground motions that have a 2% probability of exceedance in 50 years. Partial or complete replacement may be required. Higher levels of performance may be used with the authorization of the bridge owner.

Earthquake loads shall be taken to be horizontal force effects determined in accordance with the provisions of Article [4.7.4](#) on the basis of the elastic response coefficient, C_{sm} , specified in Article [3.9.4](#), and the equivalent weight of the superstructure, and adjusted by the response modification factor, R , specified in Article [3.9.7.1](#).

The provisions herein shall apply to bridges of conventional slab, beam girder, box girder, and truss superstructure construction with spans not exceeding 150 m. For other types of construction and bridges with spans exceeding 150 m, the Owner shall specify and/or approve appropriate provisions. Unless otherwise specified by the Owner, these provisions need not be applied to completely buried structures.

Seismic effects for box culverts and buried structures need not be considered, except where they cross active faults.

The potential for soil liquefaction and slope movements shall be considered.

- C These Specifications establish design and detailing provisions for bridges to minimize their susceptibility to damage from earthquakes.
- C The design earthquake motions and forces specified in these provisions are based on a low probability of their being exceeded during the normal life expectancy of a bridge. Bridges that are designed and detailed in accordance with the provisions may suffer damage, but should have low probability of collapse due to seismically induced ground shaking.
- C The principles used for the development of these Specifications are:
 - Small to moderate earthquakes should be resisted within the elastic range of the structural components without significant damage.
 - Realistic seismic ground motion intensities and forces should be used in the design procedures; and
 - Exposure to shaking from large earthquakes should not cause collapse of all or part of the bridge. Where possible, damage that does occur should be readily detectable and accessible for inspection and repair.
- C These Specifications are considered to be "force-based" wherein a bridge is designed to have adequate strength (capacity) to resist earthquake forces (demands).

- C In recent years there has been a trend away from "force-based" procedures to those that are "displacement-based," wherein a bridge is designed to have adequate displacement capacity to accommodate earthquake demands. Displacement-based procedures are believed to more reliably identify the limit states that cause damage leading to collapse, and in some cases produce more efficient designs against collapse. It is recommended that the displacement capacity of bridges designed in accordance with these Specifications, be checked using a displacement-based procedure, particularly those bridges in high seismic zones. *The AASHTO Guide Specifications for LRFD Seismic Design (pending 2008)*, are "displacement-based."

3.9.2. Seismic Hazard

The seismic hazard at a bridge site shall be characterized by the acceleration response spectrum for the site and the site factors for the relevant site class.

The acceleration spectrum shall be determined using either the General Procedure specified in Article [3.9.2.1](#) or the Site Specific Procedure specified in Article [3.9.2.2](#).

A Site-Specific Procedure shall be used if any one of the following conditions exists:

- The site is located within 10 kilometers of an active fault,
- The site is classified as Site Class F (Article [3.9.3.1](#)),
- Long-duration earthquakes are expected in the region,
- The importance of the bridge is such that a lower probability of exceedance (and therefore a longer return period) should be considered.

If time histories of ground acceleration are used to characterize the seismic hazard for the site, they shall be determined in accordance with Article [4.7.4.3.4.b](#).

3.9.2.1. General Procedure

The General Procedure shall use the short and long period spectral acceleration coefficients (S_S and S_I respectively) to calculate the spectrum as specified in Article [3.9.4](#). Values of S_S , S_I shall be determined from either [Figure 3.5](#) to [Figure 3.21](#) as appropriate, or from region ground motion maps approved by the owner. Linear interpolation shall be used for sites located between contour lines or between a contour line and a local maximum or minimum.

The effect of site class on the seismic hazard shall be as specified in Article [3.9.3](#).

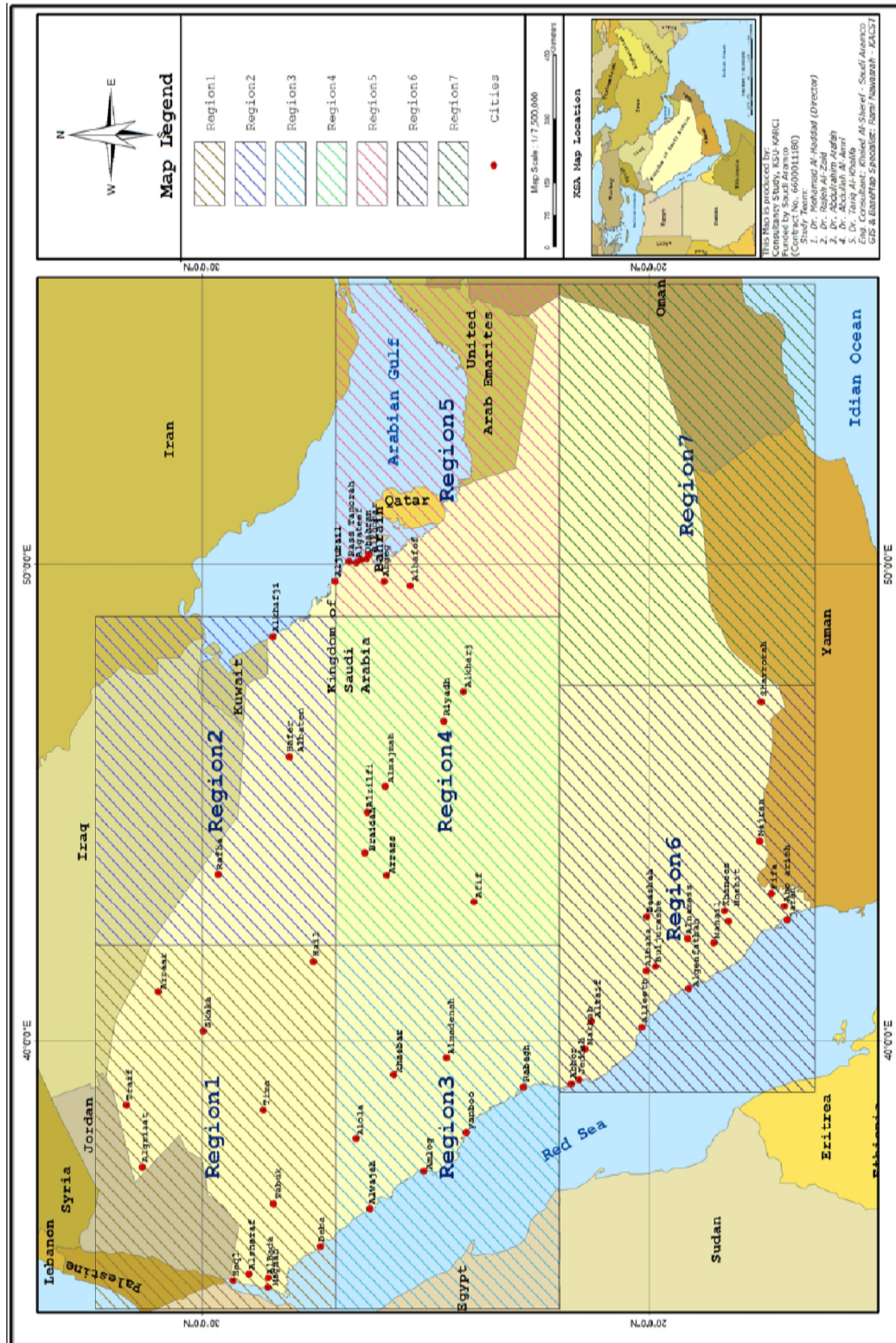


Figure 3.5: Regions for Determination of the Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

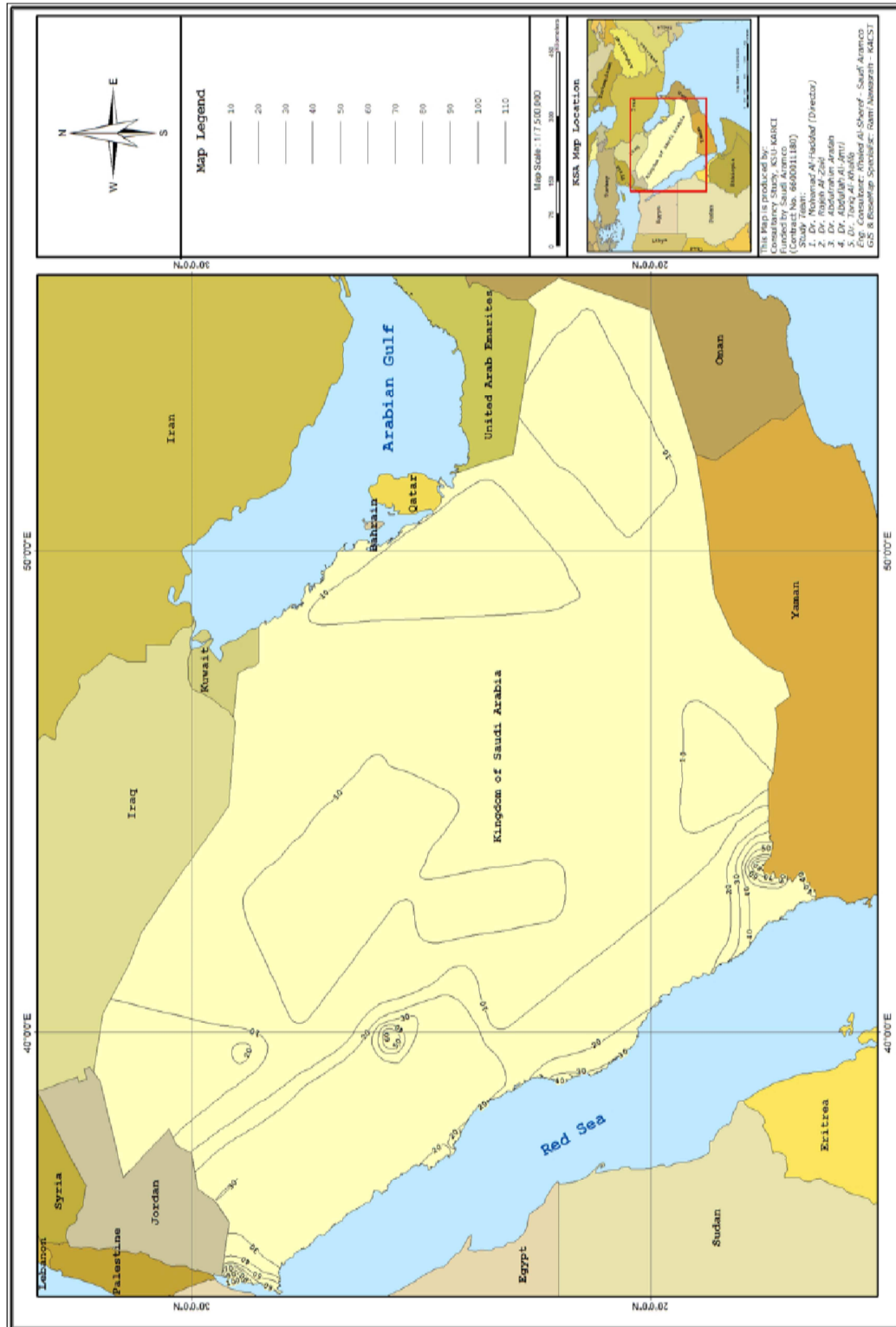


Figure 3.6: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 0.2 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_s in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (All Region)

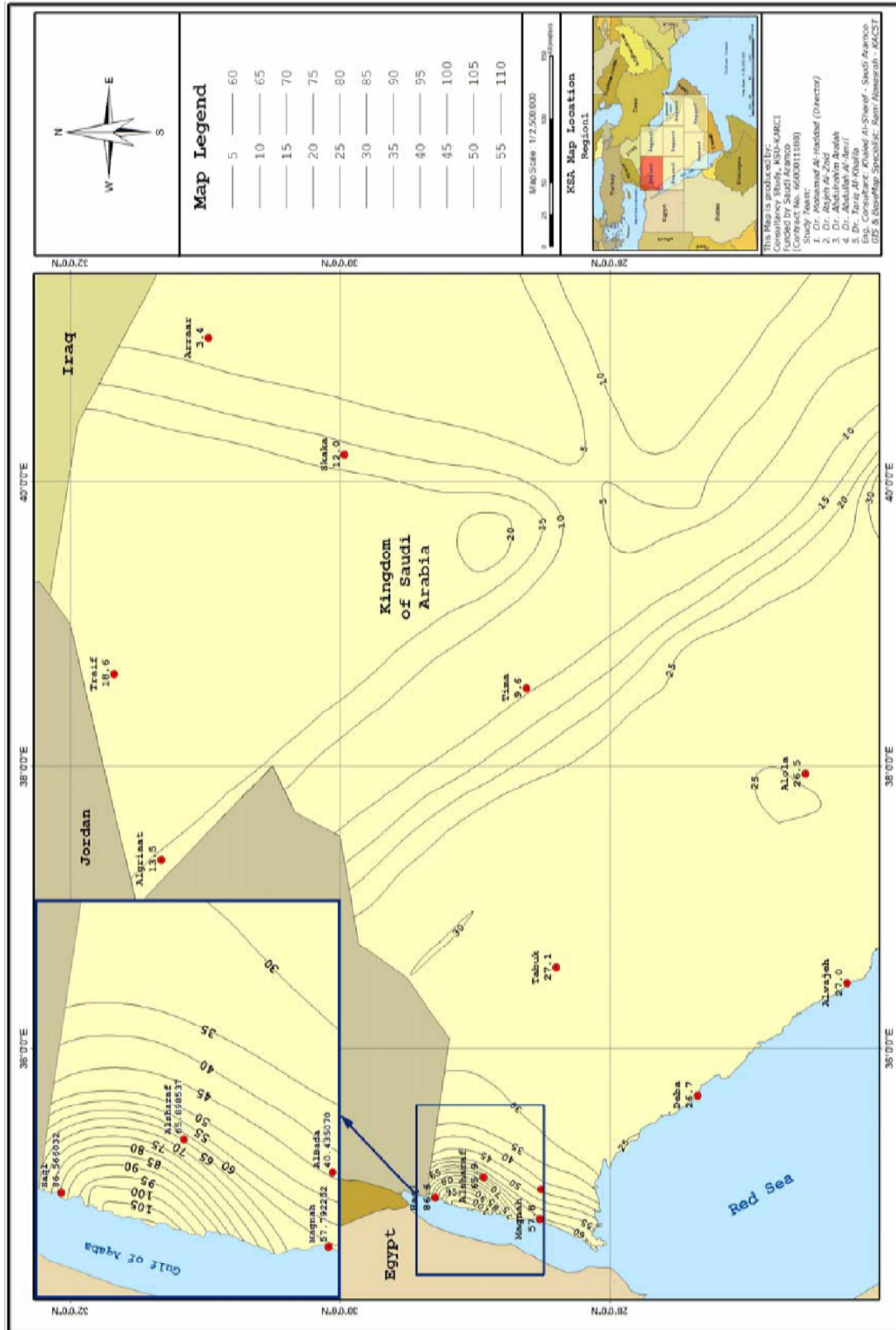
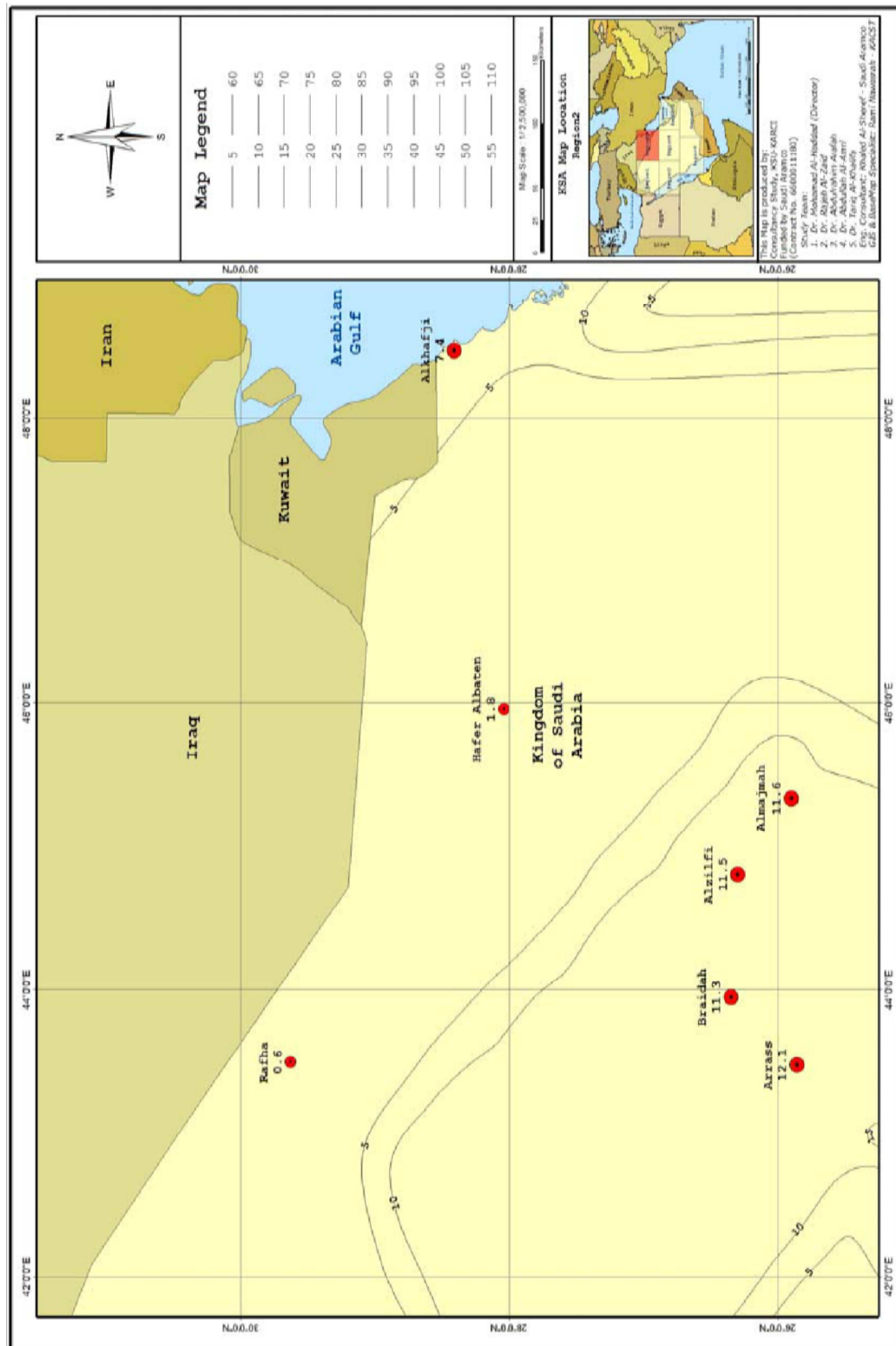


Figure 3.7: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 0.2 sec Spectral Response Acceleration (S_s in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 1)



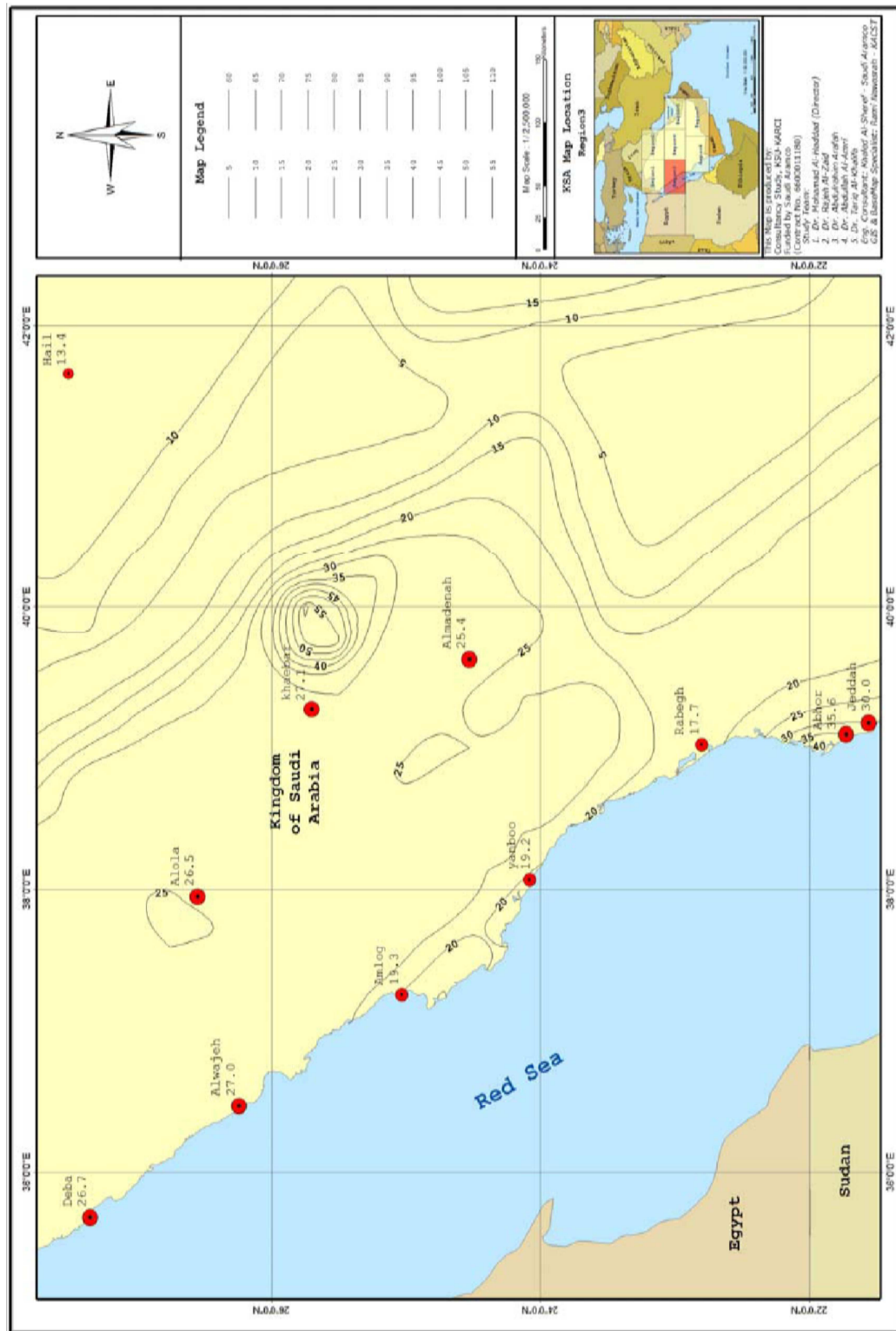


Figure 3.9: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 0.2 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_s in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 3)

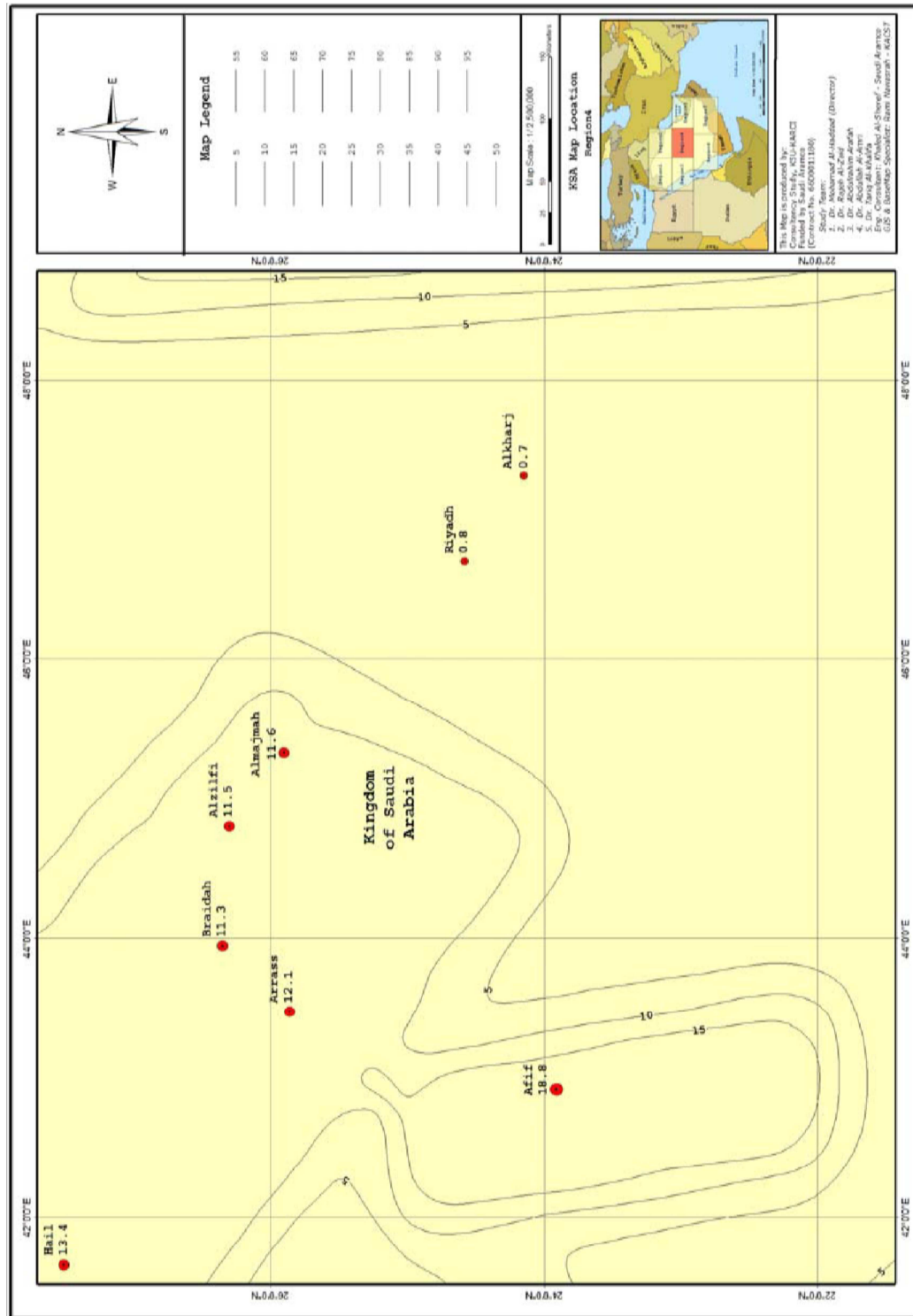


Figure 3.10: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 0.2 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_s in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 4)

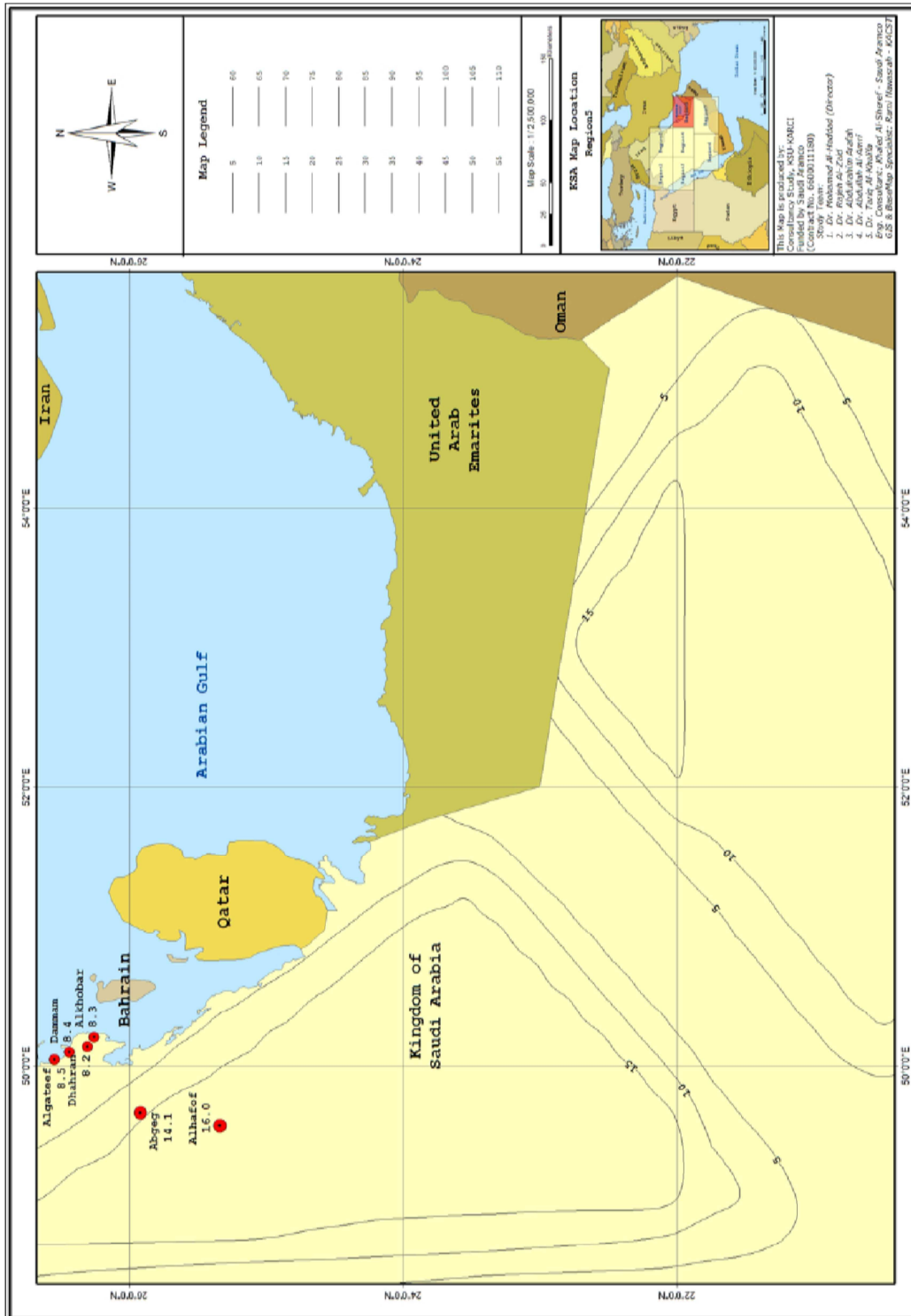


Figure 3.11: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 0.2 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_s in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 5)

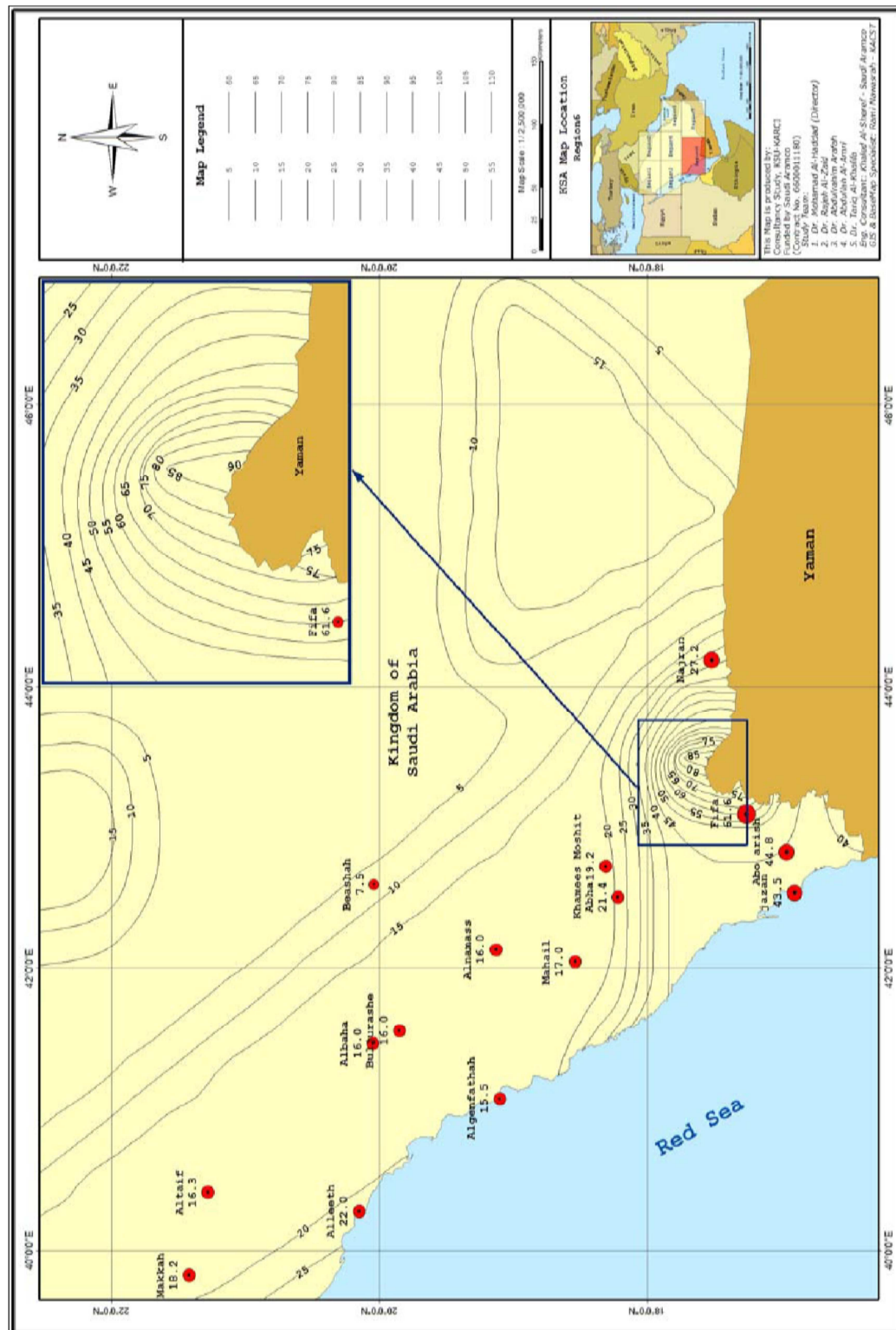


Figure 3.12: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 0.2 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_S in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 6)

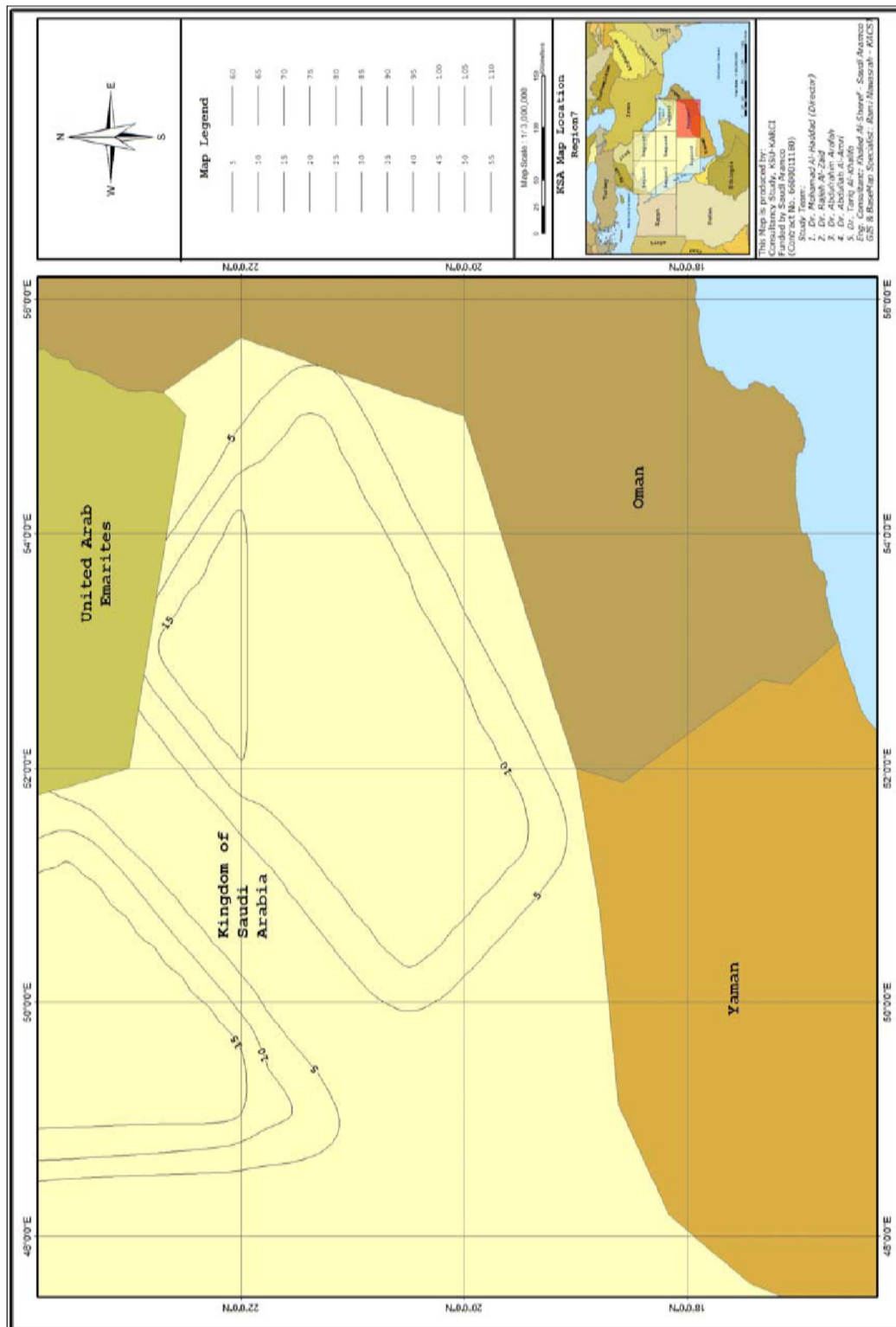


Figure 3.13: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 0.2 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_s in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 7)

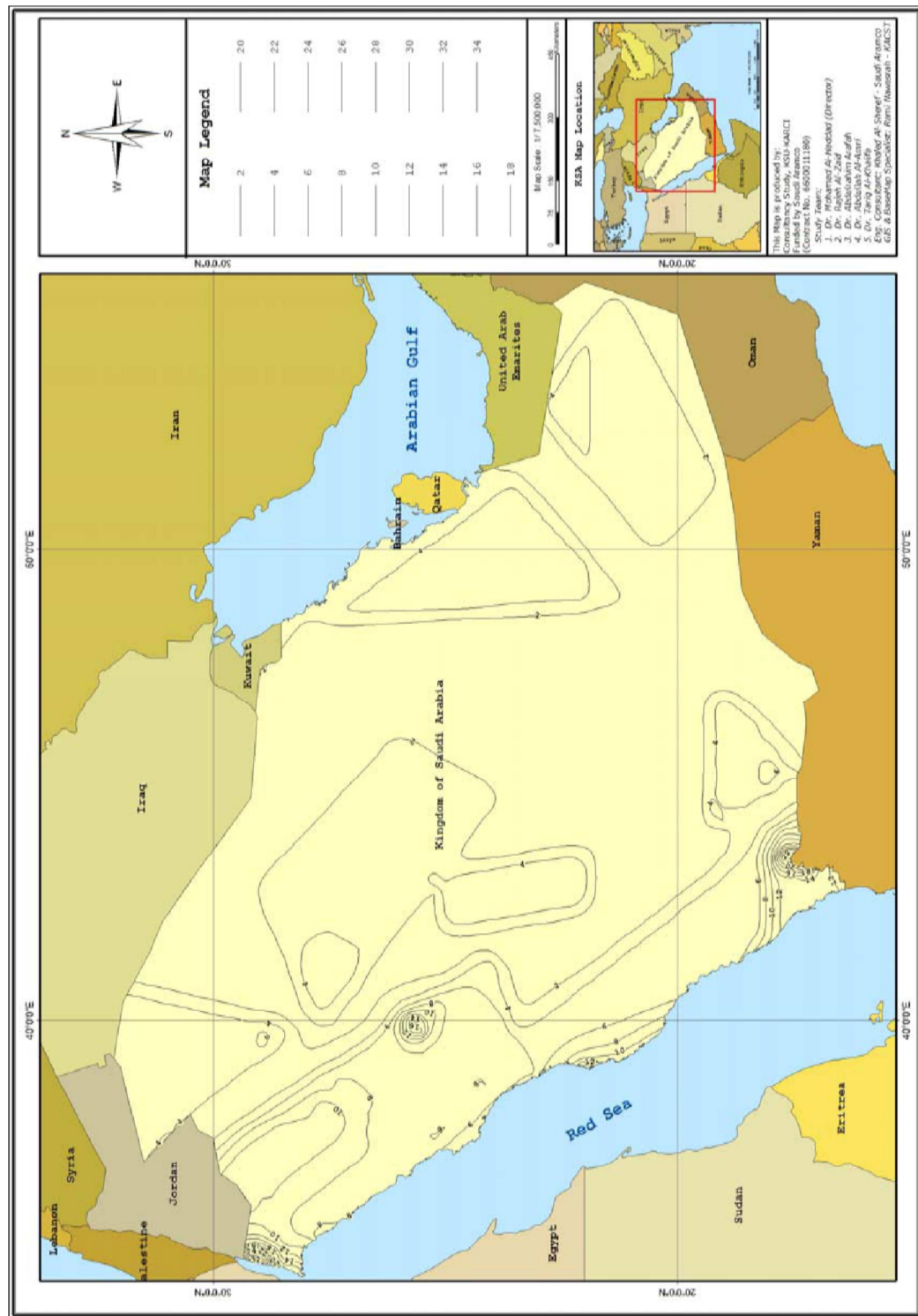


Figure 3.14: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_1 in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (All Regions)

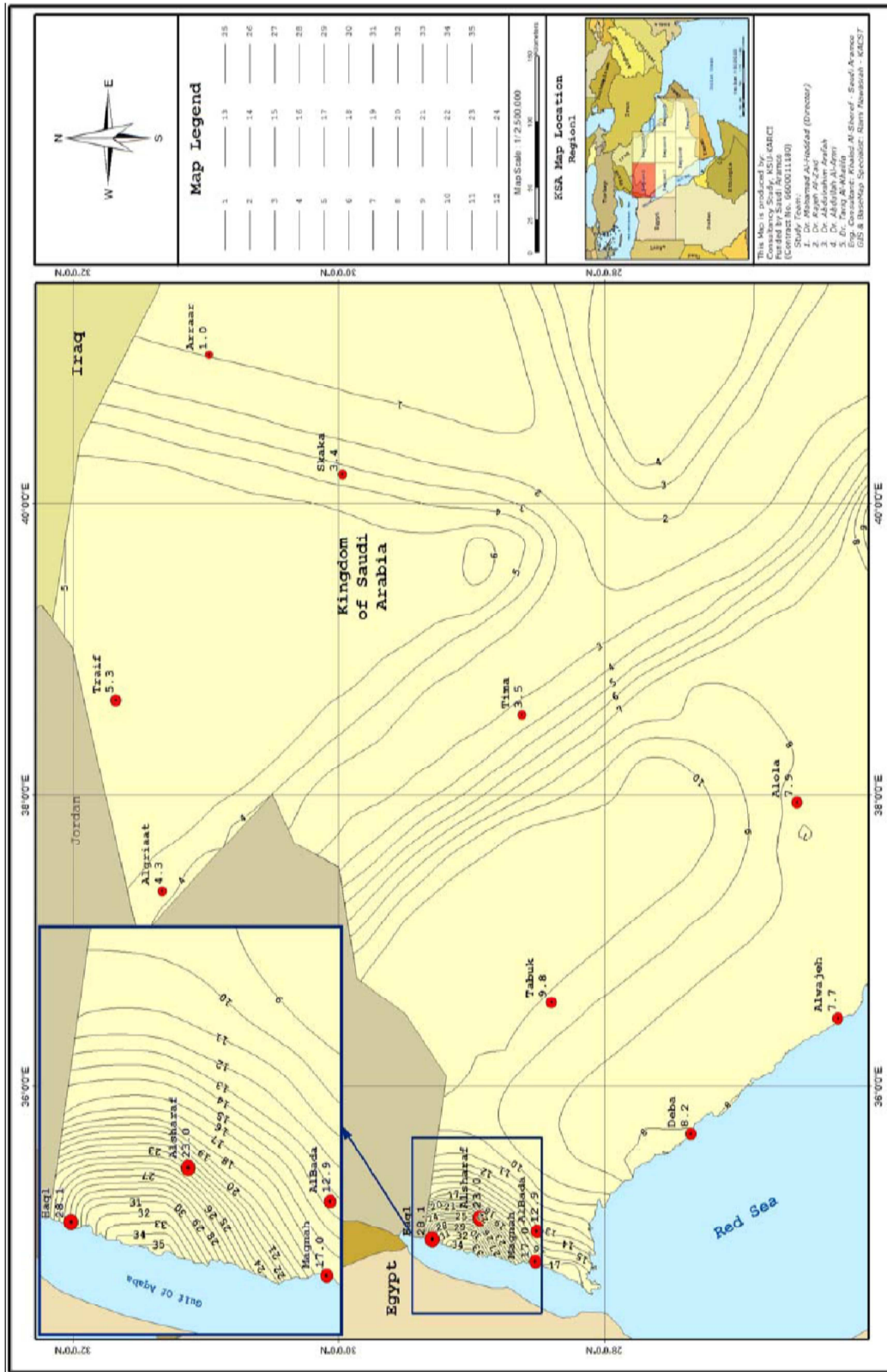


Figure 3.15: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_1 in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 1)

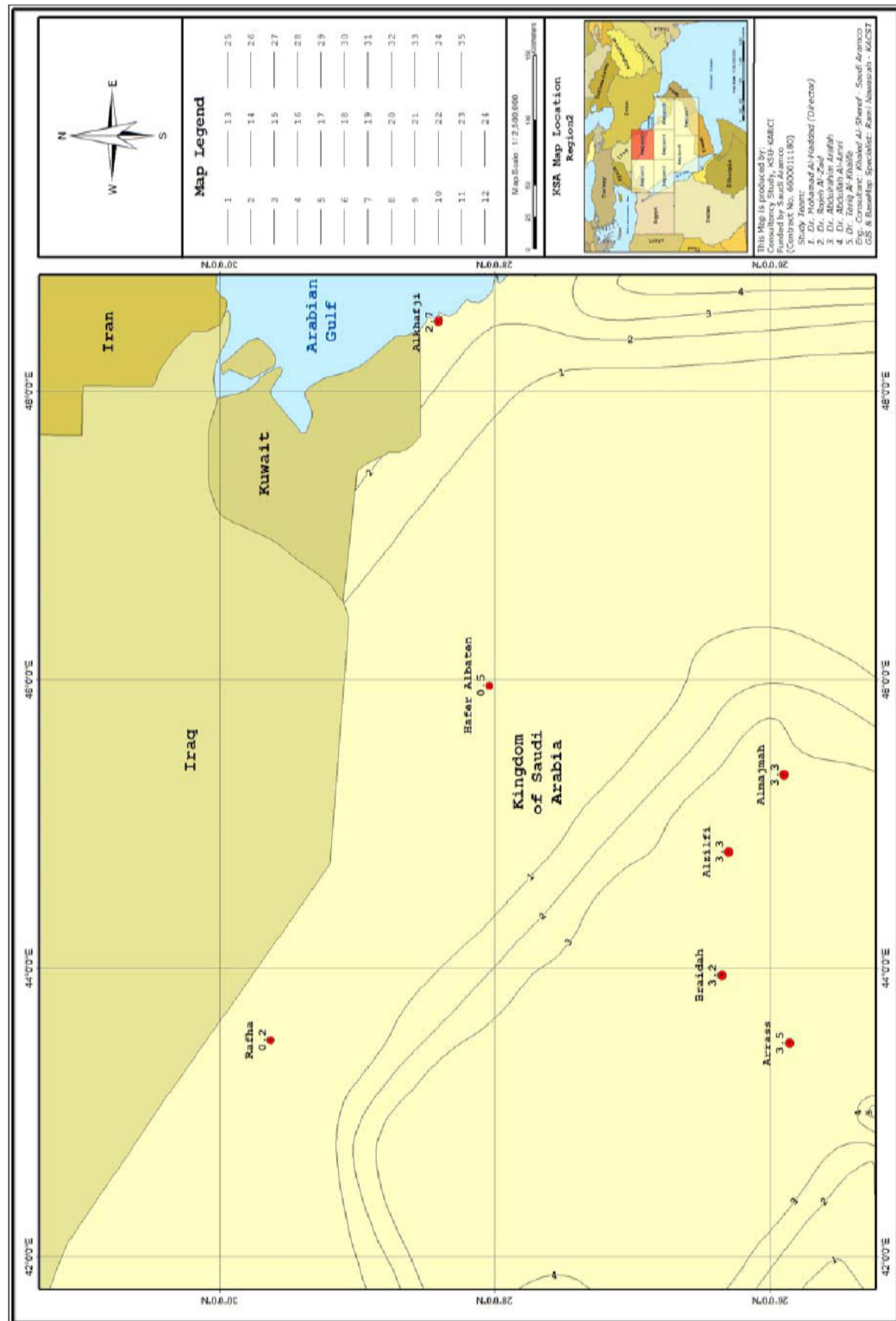


Figure 3.16: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_1 in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 2)

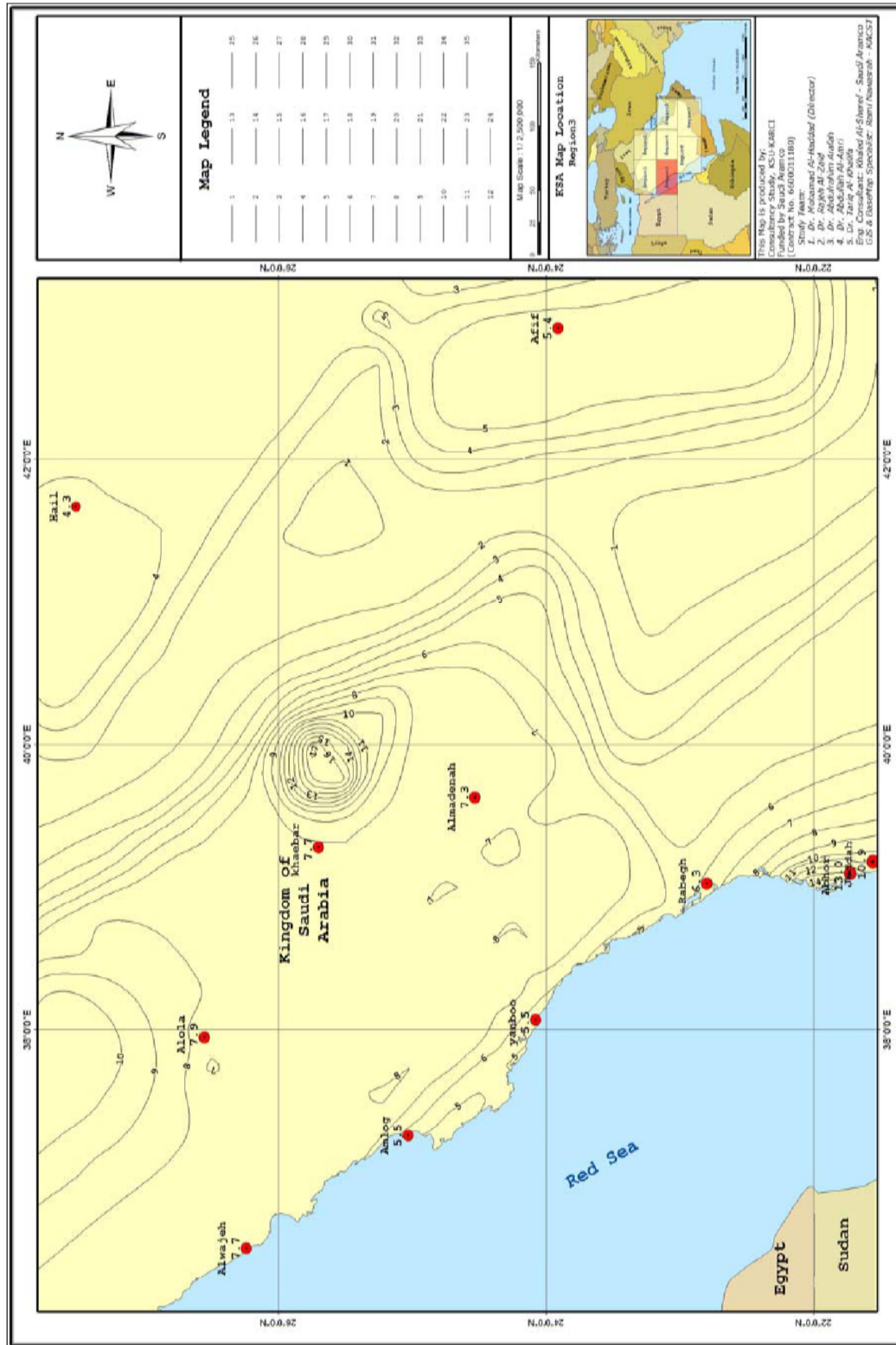


Figure 3.17: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_T in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 3)

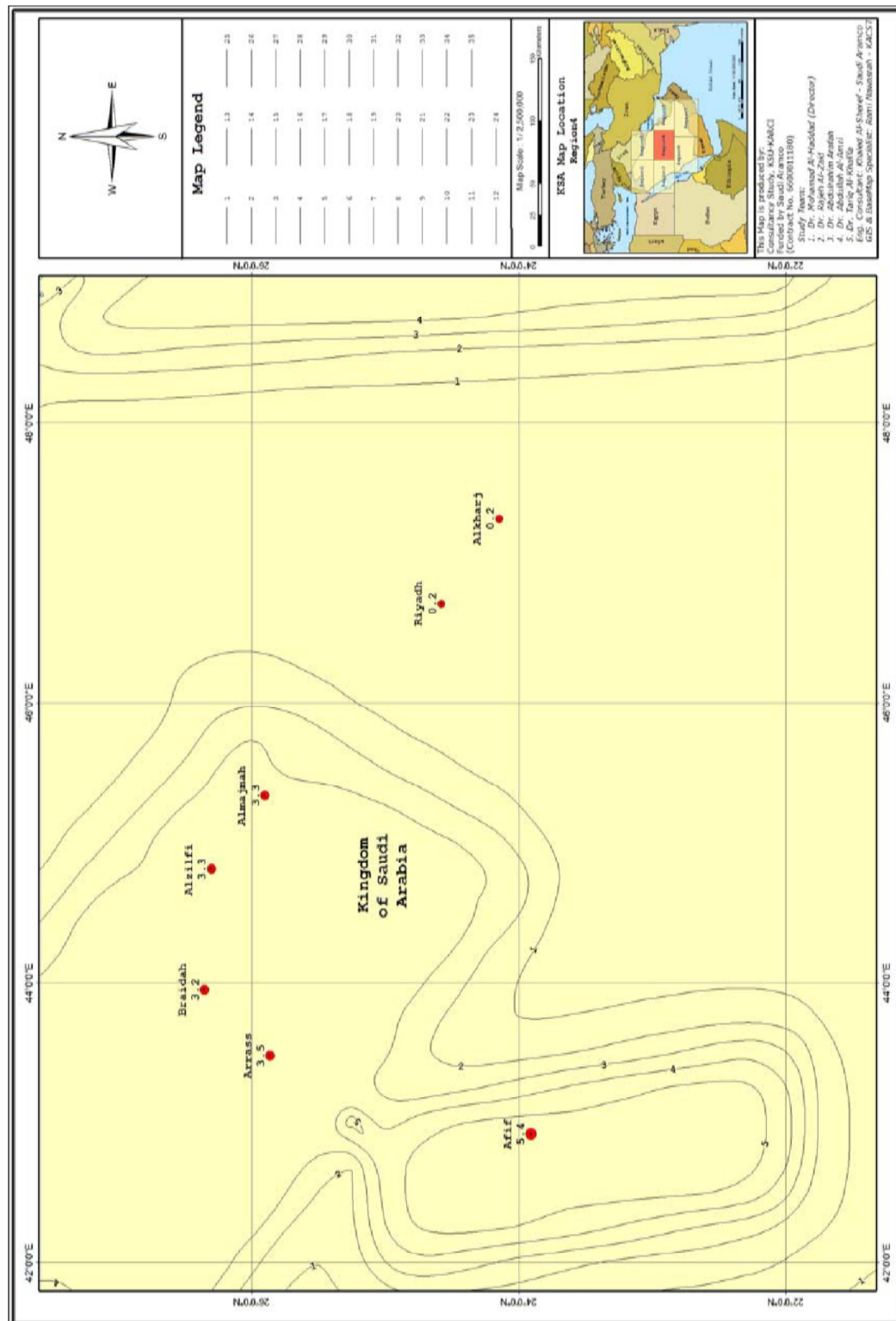


Figure 3.18: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_1 in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 4)

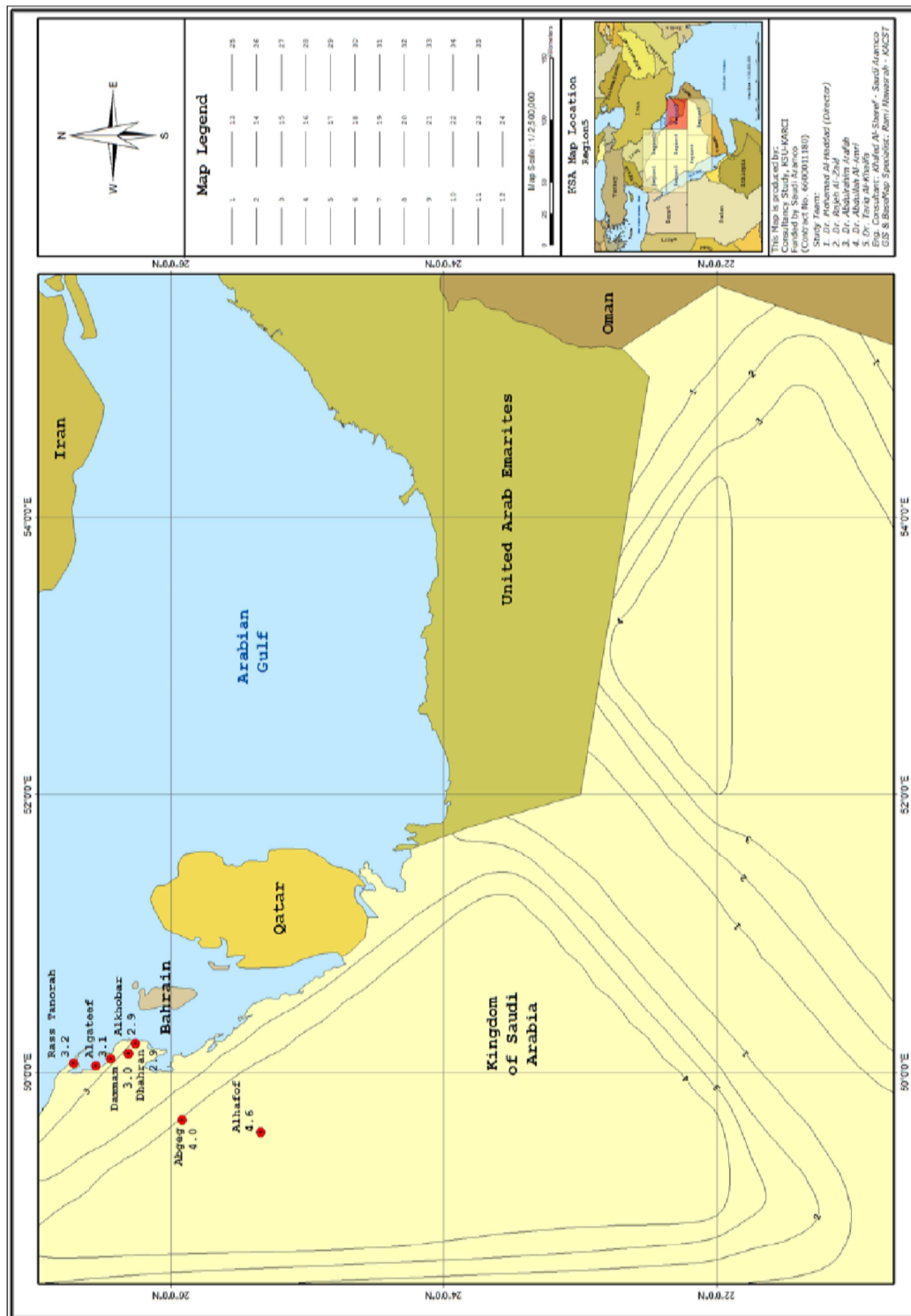


Figure 3.19: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_I in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 5)

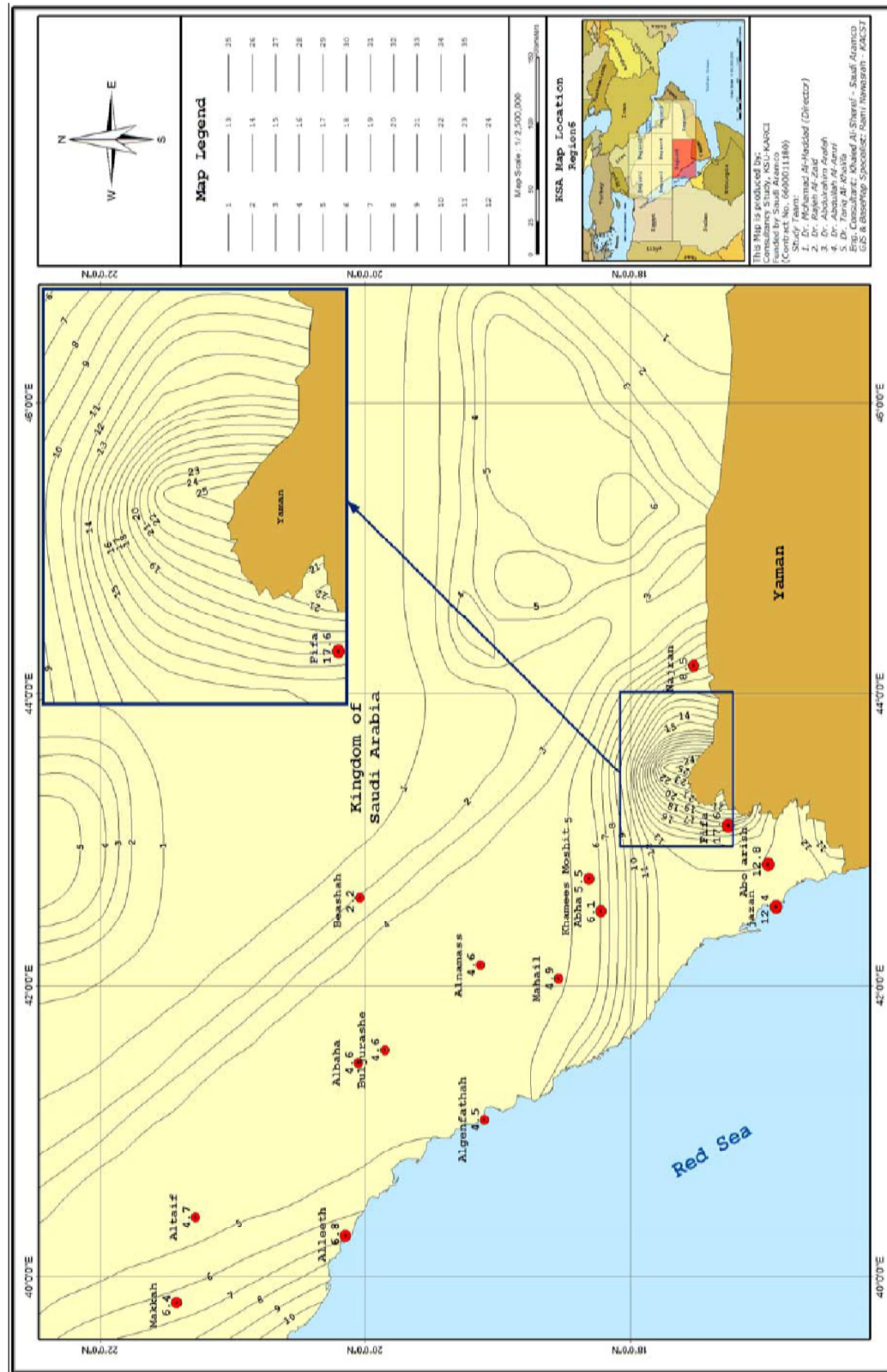


Figure 3.20: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_I in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 6)

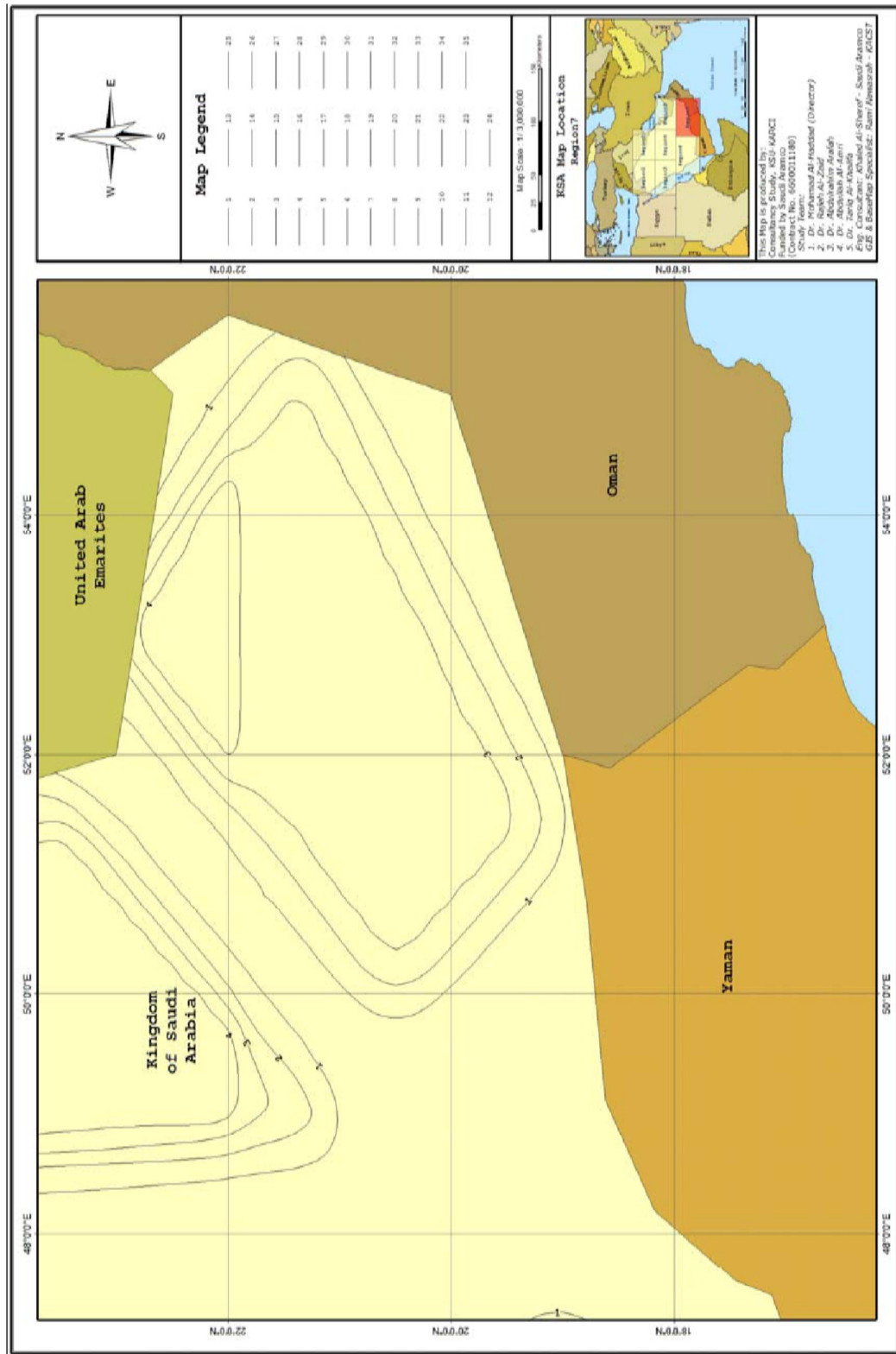


Figure 3.21: Maximum Considered Earthquake Ground Motion for the Kingdom of 1 sec. Spectral Response Acceleration (S_I in %) (5 percent of Critical Damping), Site Class B (Region 7)

3.9.2.2. Site Specific Procedure

A site-specific procedure to develop design response spectra of earthquake ground motions shall be performed when required by Article 3.9.2 and may be performed for any site. The objective of the site-specific probabilistic ground-motion analysis should be to generate a uniform-hazard acceleration response spectrum considering a 2% probability of exceedance in 50 years for spectral values over the entire period range of interest. This analysis should involve establishing:

- The contributing seismic sources, An upper-bound earthquake magnitude for each source zone,
- Median attenuation relations for acceleration response spectral values and their associated standard deviations,
- A magnitude-recurrence relation for each source zone, and
- A fault-rupture-length relation for each contributing fault.

Uncertainties in source modeling and parameter values shall be taken into consideration. Detailed documentation of ground-motion analysis is required and shall be peer reviewed.

Where analyses to determine site soil response effects are required by Articles 3.9.3.1 for Site Class F soils, the influence of the local soil conditions shall be determined based on site-specific geotechnical investigations and dynamic site response analyses.

For sites located within 10 kilometers of an active surface or a shallow fault, studies shall be considered to quantify near-fault effects on ground motions to determine if these could significantly influence the bridge response.

A deterministic spectrum may be utilized in regions having known active faults if the deterministic spectrum is no less than 2/3 of the probabilistic spectrum in the region of $0.5T_F$ to $2T_F$ of the spectrum where T_F is the bridge fundamental period. Where use of a deterministic spectrum is appropriate, the spectrum shall be either:

- the envelope of a median spectra calculated for characteristic maximum magnitude earthquakes on known active faults; or
- a deterministic spectra may be defined for each fault, and, in the absence of a clearly controlling spectra, each spectrum should be used.

Where response spectra are determined from a site-specific study, the spectra shall not be lower than 2/3 of the response spectra determined using the general procedure of Article 3.9.2.1 in the region of $0.5T_F$ to $2T_F$ of the spectrum where T_F is the bridge fundamental period.

C For more information see Article 3.17.6 in Appendix B3.

3.9.3. Site Effects

Site classes and site factors specified herein shall be used in the General Procedure for characterizing the seismic hazard specified in Article 3.9.4.

- C The behavior of a bridge during an earthquake is strongly related to the soil conditions at the site. Soils can amplify ground motions in the underlying rock, sometimes by factors of two or more. The extent of this amplification is dependent on the profile of soil types at the site and the intensity of shaking in the rock below. Sites are classified by type and profile for the purpose of defining the

overall seismic hazard, which is quantified as the product of the soil amplification and the intensity of shaking in the underlying rock.

3.9.3.1. Site Class Definitions

A site shall be classified as A through F in accordance with the site class definitions in [Table 3.15](#). Sites shall be classified by their stiffness as determined by the shear wave velocity in the upper 30 m. Standard Penetration Test (SPT), blow counts and undrained shear strengths of soil samples from soil borings may also be used to classify sites as indicated in [Table 3.15](#).

Table 3.15: Site Class Definitions

Site Class	Soil Type and Profile
A	Hard rock with measured shear wave velocity, $v_s > 1524$ m/sec.
B	Rock with v_s ranging between (762 – 1524) m/sec.
C	Very dense soil and soil rock with v_s ranging between (365 – 762) m/sec, or with either $N > 50$ blows/0.3 m, or $s_u > 96 \times 10^{-3}$ MPa.
D	Stiff soil with v_s ranging between (183 – 365) m/sec, or with either $15 < N < 50$ blows/0.3 m, or $48 \times 10^{-3} < s_u < 96 \times 10^{-3}$ MPa.
E	Soil profile with $v_s < 183$ m/sec or with either $N < 15$ blows/0.3 m or $s_u < 48 \times 10^{-3}$ MPa, or any profile with more than 3 m of soft clay defined as soil with $PI > 20$, $w > 40\%$ and $s_u < 24 \times 10^{-3}$ MPa.
F	Soils requiring site-specific evaluations, such as: 1. Peats or highly organic clays ($H > 3$ m of peat or highly organic clay where H = thickness of soil). 2. Very high plasticity clays ($H > 7.5$ m with $PI > 75$). 3. Very thick soft/medium stiff clays ($H > 36$ m).
Exceptions: Where the soil properties are not known in sufficient detail to determine the site class, a site investigation shall be undertaken sufficient to determine the site class. Site classes E or F should not be assumed unless the authority having jurisdiction determines that site classes E or F could be present at the site or in the event that site classes E or F are established by geotechnical data.	

where:

- v_s = average shear wave velocity for the upper 30 m of the soil profile.
- N = average Standard Penetration Test (SPT) blow count blows/0.3 m ([ASTM D1586](#)) for the upper 30 m of the soil profile.
- s_u = average undrained shear strength in MPa ([ASTM D2166](#) or [D2850](#)) for the upper 30 m of the soil profile.
- PI = plasticity index ([ASTM D4318](#)).
- w = moisture content ([ASTM D2216](#)).
- H = thickness of soil (m).

C Steps that may be followed to classify a site are given in [Table 3.16](#).

Table 3.16: Steps for Site Classification

Step	Description
1	Check for the three categories of site class F in Table 3.15 requiring site-Specific evaluation. If the site corresponds to any of these categories, classify the site as Site Class F and conduct a site-specific evaluation.
2	Check for existence of a soft layer with total thickness > 3 m, where soft layer is defined by $s_u < 0.024\text{MPa}$, $w > 40\%$, and $PI > 20$. If these criteria are met, classify site as Sit Class E.
3	Categorize the site into one the site classes in Table 3.15 using one of the following three methods to calculate: $\bar{v}_s$ for the top 30 m. ($\bar{v}_s$ method) $\bar{N}$ for the top 30 m. ($\bar{N}$ method) $\bar{N}_{ch}$ for cohesionless soil layers ($PI < 20$) in the top 30 m. and $\bar{s}_u$ for cohesive soil layers ($PI > 20$) in the top 30 m ($\bar{s}_u$ method) To make these calculations, the soil profile is subdivided into n distinct soil and rock lavers, and in the method below the symbol i refers to any one of these layers from 1 to n. Method A: $\bar{v}_s$ method The average $\bar{v}_s$ for the top 30 m is determined as: $\bar{v}_s = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{d_i}{v_{si}}}$ Where: $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 30m$ $\bar{v}_s$ = shear wave velocity in m/sec. of a lave d_i thickness of a layer between 0 and 30 m Method B: $\bar{N}$ method The average $\bar{N}$ for the top 30 m. shall be determined as: $\bar{v}_s = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{d_i}{N_i}}$ Where: N_i = Standard penetration test below count of a layer (not to exceed 100 blows/300 mm. in the above expression)

Note: When using Method B, $\bar{N}$ values are for cohesionless soils and cohesive soil and rock lavers within the upper 30 m. Where refusal is met for a rock layer. N_i should be taken as 100 blows/3000 mm.

Method C: $\bar{S}_u$ method

The average $\bar{N}_{ch}$ for the top 30 m. is determined as:

$$\bar{N}_{ch} = \frac{d_s}{\sum_{i=1}^m \frac{d_i}{N_{chi}}}$$

In which:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m d_i = d_s$$

Where:

m = number of cohesion-less soil layer in the top 30 m

N_{chi} = blow count for a cohesion-less soil layer (not to exceed 100 blows/300 mm. in the above expression)

d_s = total thickness of cohesion-less soil layers in the top 30 m.

The average $\bar{S}_u$ for cohesive soil layers in the top 30 m. is determined as:

$$\bar{S}_u = \frac{d_c}{\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{d_i}{S_{ui}}}$$

In which:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k d_i = d_c$$

Where:

k = number of cohesive soil layers in the top 30 m.

$\bar{S}_u$ = undrained shear strength for a cohesive soil layer (not to exceed 0.24 MPa in the above expression)

d_c = total thickness of cohesive soil layers in the top 30 m.

Note: When using Method C, if the site class resulting from $\bar{N}_{chi}$ and $\bar{S}_u$ differ, select the site class that gives the highest site factors and design spectral response in the period range of interest. For example, if $\bar{N}_{chi}$ as equal to 20 blows/300 mm and $\bar{S}_u$ was equal to 0.038 MPa, the site would classify as D or E in accordance with Method C and the site class definitions of [Table 3.15](#). In this example, for relatively low response spectral acceleration and for long-period motions, [Table 3.18](#) indicates that the site factors are highest for Site Class E. However, for relatively high short-period spectral acceleration ($S_s > 0.75$), short period site factors, F_a , are higher for Site Class D.

3.9.3.2. Site Factors

Site Factors F_a and F_v specified in [Table 3.17](#) and [Table 3.18](#) shall be used in the zero-period, short-period range and long-period range, respectively. These factors shall be determined using the Site Class given in [Table 3.15](#) and the mapped values of the coefficients S_s and S_l in [Figure 3.5](#) to [Figure 3.21](#).

- C Site Class B (soft rock) is taken to be the reference site category for the Consultancy Study, KSU-KARCI ground shaking maps. Site class B rock is therefore the site condition for which the site factor is 1.0. Site classes A, C, D, and E have separate sets of site factors for the short period range (F_a), the long-period range (F_v), as indicated in [Table 3.17](#), [Table 3.18](#). These site factors generally increase as the soil profile becomes softer (in going from site class A to E).

- C Except for site class A (hard rock), the factors also decrease as the ground motion level increases, due to the strongly nonlinear behavior of the soil. For a given site class, C, D, or E, these nonlinear site factors increase the ground motion more in areas having lower rock ground motions than in areas having higher rock ground motions.

Table 3.17 Values of Site Factor, F_a , For Short-Period Range of Acceleration Spectrum.

Site Class	Spectral Acceleration Coefficient at Period 0.2 sec (S_s) ¹				
	$S_s < 0.25$	$S_s = 0.50$	$S_s = 0.75$	$S_s = 1.00$	$S_s > 1.25$
A	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
B	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
C	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0
D	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.0
E	2.5	1.7	1.2	0.9	0.9
F ²	*	*	*	*	*

Notes:
¹Use straight-line interpolation for intermediate values of S_s .
²Site-specific geotechnical investigation and dynamic site response analysis should be performed for all sites in Site Class F.

Table 3.18: Values of Site Factor, F_v , For Long-Period Range of Acceleration Spectrum.

Site Class	Spectral Acceleration Coefficient at Period 1.0 sec (S_l) ¹				
	$S_l < 0.1$	$S_l = 0.2$	$S_l = 0.3$	$S_l = 0.4$	$S_l > 0.5$
A	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
B	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
C	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.3
D	2.4	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.5
E	3.5	3.2	2.8	2.4	2.4
F ²	*	*	*	*	*

Notes:
¹Use straight-line interpolation for intermediate values of S_l .
²Site-specific geotechnical investigation and dynamic site response analysis should be performed for all sites in Site Class F.

3.9.4. Seismic Hazard Characterization

3.9.4.1. Design Response Spectrum

The 5-percent-damped-design response spectrum shall be taken as specified in [Figure 3.22](#). This spectrum shall be calculated using the mapped peak ground acceleration coefficients and the spectral acceleration coefficients from [Figure 3.5](#) to [Figure 3.21](#), scaled by the zero-, short- and long-period site factors, F_{pga} , F_a and F_v , respectively.

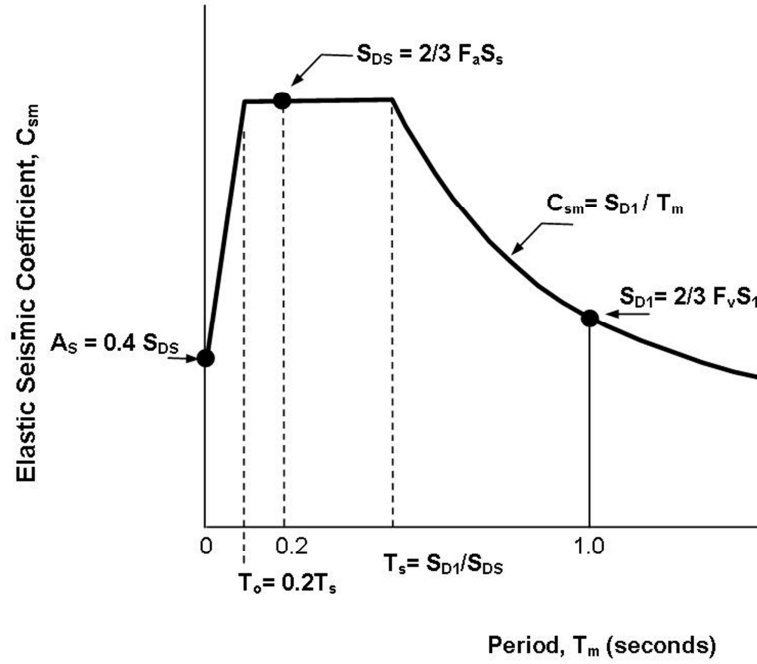


Figure 3.22: Design Response Spectrum

3.9.4.2. Elastic Seismic Response Coefficient

For periods less than or equal to T_o , the elastic seismic coefficient for the m^{th} mode of vibration, C_{sm} , shall be taken as:

$$C_{sm} = A_s + (S_{DS} - A_s) (T_m / T_o) \quad (3.11)$$

in which:

$$A_s = 0.4 S_{DS} \quad (3.12)$$

$$S_{DS} = \frac{2}{3} F_a S_s \quad (3.13)$$

where:

S_s = horizontal response spectral acceleration coefficient at 0.2 sec period on rock (Site Class B)

T_m = period of vibration of m^{th} mode (sec.)

T_o = reference period used to define spectral shape = 0.2 T_s (sec.)

T_s = corner period at which spectrum changes from being independent of period to being inversely proportional to period = S_{D1} / S_{DS} (sec.)

For periods greater than or equal to T_o and less than or equal to T_s , the elastic seismic response coefficient shall be taken as:

$$C_{sm} = S_{DS} \quad (3.14)$$

For periods greater than T_s , the elastic seismic response coefficient shall be taken as:

$$C_{sm} = S_{D1} / T_m \quad (3.15)$$

in which:

$$S_{DI} = \frac{2}{3} F_v S_I \quad (3.16)$$

where:

S_I = horizontal response spectral acceleration coefficient at 1.0 sec period on rock (Site Class B)

3.9.5. Importance Categories

For the purpose of Article 3.9, the Owner or those having jurisdiction shall classify the bridge into one of three importance categories as follows:

- Critical bridges,
- Essential bridges, or
- Other bridges.

The basis of classification shall include social/survival and security/defense requirements. In classifying a bridge, consideration should be given to possible future changes in conditions and requirements.

- C Essential bridges are generally those that should, as a minimum, be open to emergency vehicles and for security/defense purposes immediately after the design earthquake, i.e., a 1,000-year return period event.
- C However, some bridges must remain open to all traffic after the design earthquake and be usable by emergency vehicles and for security/defense purposes immediately after a large earthquake, e.g., a 2,500-year return period event. These bridges should be regarded as critical structures.

3.9.6. Seismic Design Categories

Each bridge shall be assigned to one of the four Seismic Design Categories in accordance with Table 3.19 using the value of S_{DI} given by Eq. (3.16).

Table 3.19: Seismic Design Categories

Value of $S_{DI} = (2/3)F_v S_I$	Seismic Design Category
$S_{DI} < 0.15$	A
$0.15 < S_{DI} < 0.30$	B
$0.30 < S_{DI} < 0.50$	C
$0.50 < S_{DI}$	D

- C These seismic zones reflect the variation in seismic risk across the country and are used to permit different requirements for methods of analysis, minimum support lengths, column design details, and foundation and abutment design procedures.

3.9.7. Response Modification Factors

3.9.7.1. General

To apply the response modification factors specified herein, the structural details shall satisfy the provisions of Articles 5.15.2 and 5.17.4.6. Except as noted herein, seismic design force effects for substructures and the connections between parts of structures, listed in Table 3.21, shall be determined by dividing the force effects resulting from elastic analysis by the appropriate response modification factor, R , as Specified in Table 3.20 and Table 3.21, respectively. As an alternative to the use of the R -

factors, specified in [Table 3.21](#) for connections, monolithic joints between structural members and/or structures, such as a column-to-footing connection, may be designed to transmit the maximum force effects that can be developed by the inelastic hinging of the column or multicolumn bent they connect as specified in Article [3.9.9.4.3](#).

If an inelastic time history method of analysis is used, the response modification factor, R , shall be taken as 1.0 for all substructure and connections.

- C These Specifications recognize that it is uneconomical to design a bridge to resist large earthquakes elastically.
- C Columns are assumed to deform inelastically where seismic forces exceed their design level, which is established by dividing the elastically computed force effects by the appropriate R -factor.
- C R -factors for connections are smaller than those for substructure members in order to preserve the integrity of the bridge under these extreme loads. For expansion joints within the superstructure and connections between the superstructure and abutment, the application of the R factor results in force effect magnification. Connections that transfer forces from one part of a structure to another include, but are not limited to, fixed bearings, expansion bearings with either restrainers, STU's, or dampers, and shear keys. For one-directional bearings, these R -factors are used in the restrained direction only. In general, forces determined on the basis of plastic hinging will be less than those given by using [Table 3.21](#), resulting in a more economical design.

Table 3.20: Response Modification Factor—Substructures.

Substructure	Importance Category		
	Critical	Essential	Other
Wall-type piers—larger dimension	1.5	1.5	2.0
Reinforced concrete pile bents			
• Vertical piles only	1.5	2.0	3.0
• With batter piles	1.5	1.5	2.0
Single columns	1.5	2.0	3.0
Steel or composite steel and concrete pile bents			
• Vertical pile only	1.5	3.5	5.0
• With batter piles	1.5	2.0	3.0
Multiple column bents	1.5	3.5	5.0

Table 3.21: Response Modification Factor—Connections.

Connection	All Importance Categories
Superstructure to abutment	0.8
Expansion joints within a span of the superstructure	0.8
Columns, piers, or pile bents to cap beam or superstructure	1.0
Columns or piers to foundations	1.0

3.9.7.2. Application

Seismic loads shall be assumed to act in any lateral direction.

The appropriate R -factor shall be used for both orthogonal axes of the substructure.

A wall-type concrete pier may be analyzed as a single column in the weak direction if all the provisions for columns, as specified in [Section 5](#), are satisfied.

- C Usually the orthogonal axes will be the longitudinal and transverse axes of the bridge. In the case of a curved bridge, the longitudinal axis may be the chord joining the two abutments.
- C Wall-type piers may be treated as wide columns in the strong direction provided the appropriate R -factor in this direction is used.

3.9.8. Combination of Seismic Force Effects

The elastic seismic force effects on each of the principal axes of a component resulting from analyses in the two perpendicular directions shall be combined to form two load cases as follows:

- 100 percent of the absolute value of the force effects in one of the perpendicular directions combined with 30 percent of the absolute value of the force effects in the second perpendicular direction, and
- 100 percent of the absolute value of the force effects in the second perpendicular direction combined with 30 percent of the absolute value of the force effects in the first perpendicular direction.

Where foundation and/or column connection forces are determined from plastic hinging of the columns specified in Article 3.9.9.4.3, the resulting force effects may be determined without consideration of combined load cases specified herein. For the purpose of this provision, “column connection forces” shall be taken as the shear and moment, computed on the basis of plastic hinging. The axial load shall be taken as that resulting from the appropriate load combination with the axial load, if any, associated with plastic hinging taken as EQ. If a pier is designed as a column as specified in Article 3.9.7.2, this exception shall be taken to apply for the weak direction of the pier where force effects resulting from plastic hinging are used; the combination load cases specified must be used for the strong direction of the pier.

- C The exception to these load combinations indicated at the end of this section should also apply to bridges in seismic design category B where foundation forces are determined from plastic hinging of the columns.

3.9.9. Calculation of Design Forces

3.9.9.1. General

For single-span bridges, regardless of Seismic Design Category, the minimum design connection force effect in the restrained direction between the superstructure and the substructure shall not be less than the product of the acceleration coefficient, A_s , specified in Eq. (3.12), and the tributary permanent load.

Minimum support lengths at expansion bearings of multi-span bridges shall either comply with Article 4.7.4.4 or STUs (Shock Transmission Units), and dampers shall be provided.

- C This Article refers to superstructure effects carried into substructure. Abutments on multi-span bridges, but not single-span bridges, and retaining walls are subject to acceleration-augmented soil pressures as specified in Articles 3.10.4 and 9.6.5. Wing-walls on single-span structures are not fully covered at this time, and the Engineer should use judgment in this area.

3.9.9.2. Seismic Design Category A

For bridges in Seismic Design Category A where the acceleration coefficient, A_s , as specified in Eq. (3.12), is less than 0.05, the horizontal design connection force in the restrained directions shall not be less than 0.15 times the vertical reaction due to the tributary permanent load and the tributary live loads assumed to exist during an earthquake.

For all other sites in Seismic Design Category A, the horizontal design connection force in the restrained directions shall not be less than 0.25 times the vertical reaction

due to the tributary permanent load and the tributary live loads assumed to exist during an earthquake.

For each uninterrupted segment of a superstructure, the tributary permanent load at the line of fixed bearings, used to determine the longitudinal connection design force, shall be the total permanent load of the segment.

If each bearing supporting an uninterrupted segment or simply-supported span is restrained in the transverse direction, the tributary permanent load used to determine the connection design force shall be the permanent load reaction at that bearing.

Each elastomeric bearing and its connection to the masonry and sole plates shall be designed to resist the horizontal seismic design forces transmitted through the bearing. For all bridges in Seismic Design Category A and all single-span bridges, these seismic shear forces shall not be less than the connection force specified herein.

3.9.9.3. Seismic Design Category B

Structures in Seismic Design Category B shall be analyzed according to the minimum requirements specified in Articles [4.7.4.1](#) and [4.7.4.3](#). Except for foundations, seismic design forces for all components, including pile bents and retaining walls, shall be determined by dividing the elastic seismic forces, obtained from Article [3.9.8](#), by the appropriate response modification factor, R , specified in [Table 3.20](#). Seismic design forces for foundations, other than pile bents and retaining walls, shall be determined by dividing elastic seismic forces, obtained from Article [3.9.8](#), by half of the response modification factor, R , from [Table 3.20](#), for the substructure component to which it is attached. The value of $R/2$ shall not be taken as less than 1.0. Where a group load other than EXTREME EVENT I, specified in [Table 3.1](#), governs the design of columns, the possibility that seismic forces transferred to the foundations may be larger than those calculated using the procedure specified above, due to possible over-strength of the columns, shall be considered.

3.9.9.4. Seismic Design Categories C and D

1. General

Structures in Seismic Design Categories C and D shall be analyzed according to the minimum requirements specified in Articles [4.7.4.1](#) and [4.7.4.3](#).

The design forces of each component shall be taken as the lesser of those determined using:

- The provisions of Article [3.9.9.4.2](#), or
- The provisions of Article [3.9.9.4.3](#),

For all components of a column, column bent and its foundation and connections.

2. Modified Design Forces

Modified design forces shall be determined as specified in Article [3.9.9.3](#), except that for foundations the R -factor shall be taken as 1.0.

- C Acceptable damage is restricted to inelastic hinges in the columns. The foundations should, therefore, remain in their elastic range. Hence the value for the R -factor is taken as 1.0.

3. Inelastic Hinging Forces

a. General

Where inelastic hinging is invoked as a basis for seismic design, the force effects resulting from plastic hinging at the top and/or bottom of the column shall be calculated after the preliminary design of the columns has been completed utilizing the modified design forces specified in Article 3.9.9.4.2 as the seismic loads. The consequential forces resulting from plastic hinging shall then be used for determining design forces for most components as identified herein. The procedures for calculating these consequential forces for single column and pier supports and bents with two or more columns shall be taken as specified in the following Articles.

Inelastic hinges shall be ascertained to form before any other failure due to overstress or instability in the structure and/or in the foundation. Inelastic hinges shall only be permitted at locations in columns where they can be readily inspected and/or repaired. Inelastic flexural resistance of substructure components shall be determined in accordance with the provisions of Section 5 and Section 6.

Superstructure and substructure components and their connections to columns shall also be designed to resist a lateral shear force from the column determined from the factored inelastic flexural resistance of the column using the resistance factors specified herein.

These consequential shear forces, calculated on the basis of inelastic hinging, may be taken as the extreme seismic forces that the bridge is capable of developing.

- C By virtue of Article 3.9.9.4.2, alternative conservative design forces are specified if plastic hinging is not invoked as a basis for seismic design.
- C In most cases, the maximum force effects on the foundation will be limited by the extreme horizontal force that a column is capable of developing. In these circumstances, the use of a lower force, lower than that specified in Article 3.9.9.4.2, is justified and should result in a more economic foundation design.
- C See also Article 3.15 in Appendix A3.

b. Single Columns and Piers

Force effects shall be determined for the two principal axes of a column and in the weak direction of a pier or bent as follows:

- Step 1: Determine the column over-strength moment resistance. Use a resistance factor, ϕ of 1.3 for reinforced concrete columns and 1.25 for structural steel columns. For both materials, the applied axial load in the column shall be determined using Extreme Event Load Combination I, with the maximum elastic column axial load from the seismic forces determined in accordance with Article 3.9.8 taken as EQ.
- C The use of the factors 1.3 and 1.25 corresponds to the normal use of a resistance factor for reinforced concrete. In this case, it provides an increase in resistance, i.e., overstrength. Thus, the term "overstrength moment resistance" denotes a factor resistance in the parlance of these Specifications.
- Step 2: Using the column over-strength moment resistance, calculate the corresponding column shear force. For flared columns, this calculation shall be performed using the over-strength resistances at both the top and bottom of the flare in conjunction with the appropriate column height. If the foundation of a column is significantly below ground level, consideration should be given to the possibility of the plastic hinge forming above the foundation. If this can

occur, the column length between plastic hinges shall be used to calculate the column shear force. Force effects corresponding to a single column hinging shall be taken as:

- Axial Forces: Those determined using Extreme Event Load Combination I, with the unreduced maximum and minimum seismic axial load of Article 3.9.8 taken as EQ .
- Moments: Those calculated in Step 1.
- Shear Force: That calculated in Step 2.

c. Piers with Two or More Columns

Force effects for bents with two or more columns shall be determined both in the plane of the bent and perpendicular to the plane of the bent. Perpendicular to the plane of the bent, the forces shall be determined as for single columns in Article 3.9.9.4.3.b. In the plane of the bent, the forces shall be calculated as follows:

- Step 1: Determine the column over-strength moment resistances. Use a resistance factor, ϕ of 1.3 for reinforced concrete columns and 1.25 for structural steel columns. For both materials the initial axial load should be determined using the Extreme Event Load Combination I with $EQ = 0$.
- Step 2: Using the column over-strength moment resistance, calculate the corresponding column shear forces. Sum the column shears of the bent to determine the maximum shear force for the pier. If a partial-height wall exists between the columns, the effective column height should be taken from the top of the wall. For flared columns and foundations below ground level, the provisions of Article 3.9.9.4.3.b shall apply. For pile bents, the length of pile above the mud line shall be used to calculate the shear force.
- Step 3: Apply the bent shear force to the center of mass of the superstructure above the pier and determine the axial forces in the columns due to overturning when the column over-strength moment resistances are developed.
- Step 4: Using these column axial forces as EQ in the Extreme Event Load Combination I, determine revised column over-strength moment resistance. With the revised over-strength moment resistances, calculate the column shear forces and the maximum shear force for the bent. If the maximum shear force for the bent is not within 10 percent of the value previously determined, use this maximum bent shear force and return to Step 3.

The forces in the individual columns in the plane of a bent corresponding to column hinging shall be taken as:

- Axial Forces: The maximum and minimum axial loads determined using Extreme Event Load Combination I, with the axial load determined from the final iteration of Step 3 taken as EQ and treated as plus and minus.
- Moments: The column overstrength moment resistances corresponding to the maximum compressive axial load specified above.
- Shear Force: The shear force corresponding to the column overstrength moment resistances specified above, noting the provisions in Step 2 above.

d. Column and Pile Bent Design Forces

Forces Design forces for columns and pile bents shall be taken as a consistent set of the lesser of the forces determined as specified in Article 3.9.9.4.1, applied as follows:

- Axial Forces: The maximum and minimum design forces determined using Extreme Event Load Combination I with either the elastic design values determined in Article 3.9.8 taken as EQ , or the values corresponding to plastic hinging of the column taken as EQ .
- Moments: The modified design moments determined for Extreme Event Limit State Load Combination I.
- Shear Force: The lesser of either the elastic design value determined for Extreme Event Limit State Load Combination I with the seismic loads combined as specified in Article 3.9.8 and using an R -factor of 1 for the column, or the value corresponding to plastic hinging of the column.

- C The design axial forces which control both the flexural design of the column and the shear design requirements are either the maximum or minimum of the unreduced design forces or the values corresponding to plastic hinging of the columns. In most cases, the values of axial load and shear corresponding to plastic hinging of the columns will be lower than the unreduced design forces. The design shear forces are specified so that the possibility of a shear failure in the column is minimized.
- C When an inelastic hinging analysis is performed, these moments and shear forces are the maximum forces that can develop and, therefore, the directional load combinations of Article 3.9.8 do not apply.

e. Pier Design Forces

The design forces shall be those determined for Extreme Event Limit State Load Combination I, except where the pier is designed as a column in its weak direction. If the pier is designed as a column, the design forces in the weak direction shall be as specified in Article 3.9.9.4.3.d and all the design requirements for columns, as specified in Section 5, shall apply. When the forces due to plastic hinging are used in the weak direction, the combination of forces, specified in Article 3.9.8, shall be applied to determine the elastic moment which is then reduced by the appropriate R -factor.

- C The design forces for piers specified in Article 3.9.9.4.3.e are based on the assumption that a pier has low ductility capacity and no redundancy. As a result, a low R -factor of 2 is used in determining the reduced design forces, and it is expected that only a small amount of inelastic deformation will occur in the response of a pier when subjected to the forces of the design earthquake. If a pier is designed as a column in its weak direction, then both the design forces and, more importantly, the design requirements of Article 3.9.9.4.3.d and Section 5 are applicable.

f. Foundation Design Forces

The design forces for foundations including footings, pile caps and piles may be taken as either those forces determined for the Extreme Event Load Combination I, with the seismic loads combined as specified in Article 3.9.8, or the forces at the bottom of the columns corresponding to column plastic hinging as determined in Article 3.9.8.

When the columns of a bent have a common footing, the final force distribution at the base of the columns in Step 4 of Article 3.9.9.4.3.c may be used for the design of the footing in the plane of the bent. This force distribution produces lower shear forces and moments on the footing because one exterior column may be in tension and the other in compression due to the seismic overturning moment. This effectively increases the ultimate moments and shear forces on one column and reduces them on the other.

- C The foundation design forces specified are consistent with the design philosophy of minimizing damage that would not be readily detectable. The recommended design forces are the maximum forces that can be transmitted to the footing by plastic hinging of the column. The alternate design forces are the elastic design forces. It should be noted that these may be considerably greater than the recommended design forces, although where architectural considerations govern the design of a column, the alternate elastic design forces may be less than the forces resulting from column plastic hinging.
- C See also the second paragraph of Article [3.9.9.4.3.d](#).

3.9.9.5. Longitudinal Restrainers

Friction shall not be considered to be an effective restrainer.

Restrainers shall be designed for a force calculated as the acceleration coefficient A_s , as specified in Eq. [\(3.12\)](#), times the permanent load of the lighter of the two adjoining spans or parts of the structure.

If the restrainer is at a point where relative displacement of the sections of superstructure is designed to occur during seismic motions, sufficient slack shall be allowed in the restrainer so that the restrainer does not start to act until the design displacement is exceeded.

Where a restrainer is to be provided at columns or piers, the restrainer of each span may be attached to the column or pier rather than to interconnecting adjacent spans.

In lieu of restrainers, STUs may be used and designed for either the elastic force calculated in Article [4.7](#) or the maximum force effects generated by inelastic hinging of the substructure as specified in Article [3.9.7.1](#).

3.9.9.6. Hold-Down Devices

For Seismic Design Categories B, C, and D, hold-down devices shall be provided at supports and at hinges in continuous structures where the vertical seismic force due to the longitudinal seismic load opposes and exceeds 50 percent, but is less than 100 percent, of the reaction due to permanent loads. In this case, the net uplift force for the design of the hold-down device shall be taken as 10 percent of the reaction due to permanent loads that would be exerted if the span were simply supported.

If the vertical seismic forces result in net uplift, the hold-down device shall be designed to resist the larger of either:

- 120 percent of the difference between the vertical seismic force and the reaction due to permanent loads, or
- 10 percent of the reaction due to permanent loads.

3.9.10. Requirements for Temporary Bridges and Stage Construction

Any bridge or partially constructed bridge that is expected to be temporary for more than five years shall be designed using the requirements for permanent structures and shall not use the provisions of this Article.

The requirement that an earthquake shall not cause collapse of all or part of a bridge, as stated in Article [3.9.1](#), shall apply to temporary bridges expected to carry traffic. It shall also apply to those bridges that are constructed in stages and expected to carry traffic and/or pass over routes that carry traffic. The elastic seismic response coefficient and the ground acceleration coefficient given in Article [3.9.4.2](#) may be reduced by a factor of not more than 2 in order to calculate the component elastic forces and displacements. Response and acceleration coefficients for construction sites that are close to active faults shall be the subject of special study. The response

modification factors given in Article 3.9.3 may be increased by a factor of not more than 1.5 in order to calculate the design forces. This factor shall not be applied to connections as defined in Table 3.21.

- C The option to use a reduced response coefficient and a reduced ground acceleration coefficient reflects the limited exposure period for a temporary bridge.

The minimum support length provisions of Article 4.7.4.4 shall apply to all temporary bridges and staged construction.

3.10. EARTH PRESSURE

3.10.1. General

Earth pressure shall be considered as a function of the:

- Type and density of earth,
- Water content,
- Soil creep characteristics,
- Degree of compaction,
- Location of groundwater table,
- Earth-structure interaction,
- Amount of surcharge,
- Earthquake effects,
- Back slope angle, and
- Wall inclination.

- C Walls that can tolerate little or no movement should be designed for at-rest earth pressure. Walls which can move away from the soil mass should be designed for pressures between active and at-rest conditions, depending on the magnitude of the tolerable movements. Movement required to reach the minimum active pressure or the maximum passive pressure is a function of the wall height and the soil type. Some typical values of these mobilizing movements, relative to wall height, are given in Table 3.22.

- C where:

Δ = movement of top of wall required to reach minimum active or maximum passive pressure by tilting or lateral translation (mm)

H = height of wall (mm)

Table 3.22: Approximate Values of Relative Movements Required to Reach Active or Passive Earth Pressure Conditions (Clough and Duncan 1991).

Type of Backfill	Values of Δ/H	
	Active	Passive
Dense sand	0.001	0.01
Medium dense sand	0.002	0.02
Loose sand	0.004	0.04
Compacted silt	0.002	0.02
Compacted lean clay	0.010	0.05
Compacted fat clay	0.010	0.05

- C The evaluation of the stress induced by cohesive soils is highly uncertain due to their sensitivity to shrink-swell, wet-dry and degree of saturation. Tension cracks can form, which considerably alter the assumptions for the estimation of stress. Extreme caution is advised in the determination of lateral earth pressures assuming the most unfavorable conditions. If possible, cohesive or other fine-grained soils should be avoided as backfill.
- C For walls retaining cohesive materials, the effects of soil creep should be taken into consideration in estimating the design earth pressures. Evaluation of soil creep is complex and requires duplication in the laboratory of the stress conditions in the field as discussed by [Mitchell \(1976\)](#).
- C Under stress conditions close to the minimum active or maximum passive earth pressures, cohesive soils indicated in [Table 3.22](#) creep continually and the movements shown produce active or passive pressures only temporarily. If there is no further movement, active pressures will increase with time, approaching the at-rest pressure, and passive pressures will decrease with time, approaching values on the order of 40 percent of the maximum short-term value. A conservative assumption to account for unknowns would be to use the at-rest pressure based on the residual strength of the soil.

Silt and lean clay shall not be used for backfill unless suitable design procedures are followed and construction control measures are incorporated in the construction documents to account for their presence. Consideration shall be given for the development of pore water pressure within the soil mass in accordance with Article [3.10.3](#). Appropriate drainage provisions shall be provided to prevent hydrostatic and seepage forces from developing behind the wall in accordance with the provisions in [Section 9](#). In no case shall highly plastic clay be used for backfill.

3.10.2. Compaction

Where activity by mechanical compaction equipment is anticipated within a distance of one-half the height of the wall, taken as the difference in elevation between the point where finished grade intersects the back of the wall and the base of the wall, the effect of additional earth pressure that may be induced by compaction shall be taken into account.

- C Compaction-induced earth pressures may be estimated using the procedures described by [Clough and Duncan \(1991\)](#). The heavier the equipment used to compact the backfill, and the closer it operates to the wall, the larger are the compaction-induced pressures. The magnitude of the earth pressures exerted on a wall by compacted backfill can be minimized by using only small rollers or hand compactors within a distance of one-half wall height from the back of the wall. For MSE structures, compaction stresses are already included in the design model and specified compaction procedures.

3.10.3. Presence of Water

If the retained earth is not allowed to drain, the effect of hydrostatic water pressure shall be added to that of earth pressure.

In cases where water is expected to pond behind a wall, the wall shall be designed to withstand the hydrostatic water pressure plus the earth pressure.

Submerged densities of the soil shall be used to determine the lateral earth pressure below the groundwater table.

If the groundwater levels differ on opposite sides of the wall, the effects of seepage on wall stability and the potential for piping shall be considered. Pore water pressures shall be added to the effective horizontal stresses in determining total lateral earth pressures on the wall.

- C The effect of additional pressure caused by groundwater is shown in [Figure 3.23](#).
- C The development of hydrostatic water pressure on walls should be eliminated through use of crushed rock, pipe drains, gravel drains, perforated drains or geosynthetic drains.

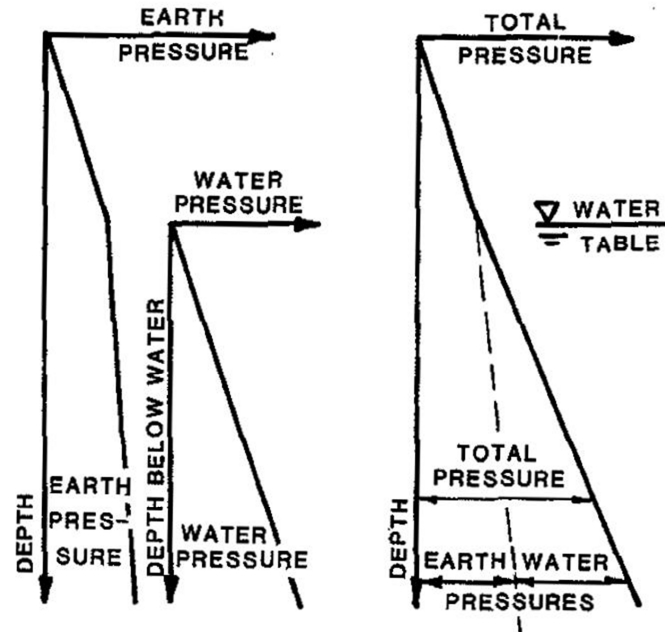


Figure 3.23: Effect of Groundwater Table.

- C Pore water pressures behind the wall may be approximated by flow net procedures or various analytical methods.

3.10.4. Effect of Earthquake

The effects of wall inertia and probable amplification of active earth pressure and/or mobilization of passive earth masses by earthquake shall be considered.

- C The Mononobe-Okabe method for determining equivalent static fluid pressures for seismic loads on gravity and semi-gravity retaining walls is presented in the appendix to Section II.
- C The Mononobe-Okabe analysis is based, in part, on the assumption that the backfill soils are unsaturated and thus, not susceptible to liquefaction.
- C Where soils are subject to both saturation and seismic or other cyclic/instantaneous loads, special consideration should be given to address the possibility of soil liquefaction.

3.10.5. Earth Pressure: EH

3.10.5.1. Lateral Earth Pressure

Lateral earth pressure shall be assumed to be linearly proportional to the depth of earth and taken as:

$$p = k \gamma_s g z \left(\times 10^{-9} \right) \quad (3.17)$$

where:

p = lateral earth pressure (MPa)

k = coefficient of lateral earth pressure taken as k_o , specified in Article 3.10.5.2, for walls that do not deflect or move, k_a , specified in Articles 3.10.5.3, 3.10.5.6 and 3.10.5.7, for walls that deflect or move sufficiently to reach minimum active conditions, or k_p , specified in Article 3.10.5.4, for walls that deflect or move sufficiently to reach a passive condition

γ_s = density of soil (kg/m^3)

z = depth below the surface of earth (mm)

g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec²)

The resultant lateral earth load due to the weight of the backfill shall be assumed to act at a height of $H/3$ above the base of the wall, where H is the total wall height, measured from the surface of the ground at the back of the wall to the bottom of the footing or the top of the leveling pad (for MSE walls).

- C Although previous versions of these Specifications have required design of conventional gravity walls for a resultant earth pressure located $0.4H$ above the wall base, the current specifications require design for a resultant located $H/3$ above the base. This requirement is consistent with historical practice and with calibrated resistance factors in Section 9. The resultant lateral load due to the earth pressure may act as high as $0.4H$ above the base of the wall for a mass concrete gravity retaining wall, where H is the total wall height measured from the top of the backfill to the base of the footing, where the wall deflects laterally, i.e., translates, in response to lateral earth loading. For such structures, the backfill behind the wall must slide down along the back of the wall for the retained soil mass to achieve the active state of stress. Experimental results indicate that the backfill arches against the upper portion of the wall as the wall translates, causing an upward shift in the location at which the resultant of the lateral earth load is transferred to the wall (Terzaghi 1934; Clausen and Johansen et al. 1972; Sherif et al. 1982). Such walls are not representative of typical gravity walls used in highway applications.
- C For most gravity walls which are representative of those used in highway construction, nongravity cantilever retaining walls or other flexible walls which tilt or deform laterally in response to lateral loading, e.g., MSE walls, as well as walls which cannot translate or tilt, e.g., integral abutment walls, significant arching of the backfill against the wall does not occur, and the resultant lateral load due to earth pressure acts at a height of $H/3$ above the base of the wall. Furthermore, where wall friction is not considered in the analysis, it is sufficiently conservative to use a resultant location of $H/3$ even if the wall can translate.

3.10.5.2. At-Rest Lateral Earth Pressure Coefficient, k_o

For normally consolidated soils, vertical wall, and level ground, the coefficient of at-rest lateral earth pressure may be taken as:

$$k_o = 1 - \sin \phi'_f \quad (3.18)$$

where:

ϕ'_f = effective friction angle of soil

k_o = coefficient of at-rest lateral earth pressure

For overconsolidated soils, the coefficient of at-rest lateral earth pressure may be assumed to vary as a function of the overconsolidation ratio or stress history, and may be taken as:

$$k_o = (1 - \sin \phi'_f)(OCR)^{\sin \phi'_f} \quad (3.19)$$

where OCR = overconsolidation ratio

- C For typical cantilevered walls over 1500 mm high with structural grade backfill, calculations indicate that the horizontal movement of the top of the wall due to a combination of structural deformation of the stem and rotation of the foundation is sufficient to develop active conditions.
- C In many instances, the OCR may not be known with enough accuracy to calculate k_o using Eq. (3.19). Based on information on this issue provided by Holtz and Kovacs (1981), in general, for lightly overconsolidated sands ($OCR = 1$ to 2), k_o is in the range of 0.4 to 0.6 . For highly overconsolidated sand, k_o can be on the order of 1.0 .

Silt and lean clay shall not be used for backfill unless suitable design procedures are followed and construction control measures are incorporated in the construction documents to account for their presence. Consideration must be given for the development of pore water pressure within the soil mass in accordance with Article 3.10.3.

Appropriate drainage provisions shall be provided to prevent hydrostatic and seepage forces from developing behind the wall in accordance with the provisions of Section 9. In no case shall highly plastic clay be used for backfill.

- C The evaluation of the stress induced by cohesive soils is highly uncertain due to their sensitivity to shrink-swell, wet-dry and degree of saturation. Tension cracks can form, which considerably alter the assumptions for the estimation of stress. Extreme caution is advised in the determination of lateral earth pressures assuming the most unfavorable conditions. See Article 3.10.1 for additional guidance on estimating earth pressures in fine-grained soils. If possible, cohesive or other fine-grained soils should be avoided as backfill.

3.10.5.3. Active Lateral Earth Pressure Coefficient, k_a

Values for the coefficient of active lateral earth pressure may be taken as:

$$k_a = \frac{\sin^2(\theta + \phi'_f)}{\Gamma [\sin^2 \theta \sin(\theta - \delta)]} \quad (3.20)$$

in which:

$$\Gamma = \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi'_f + \delta) \sin(\phi'_f - \beta)}{\sin(\theta - \delta) \sin(\theta + \beta)}} \right]^2 \quad (3.21)$$

where:

- δ = friction angle between fill and wall taken as specified in Table 3.23 (°)
- β = angle of fill to the horizontal as shown in Figure 3.24 (°)
- θ = angle of back face of wall to the horizontal as shown in Figure 3.24 (°)
- ϕ'_f = effective angle of internal friction (°)

For conditions that deviate from those described in Figure 3.24, the active pressure may be calculated by using a trial procedure based on wedge theory using the **Culmann method** (e.g., see Terzaghi et al. 1996).

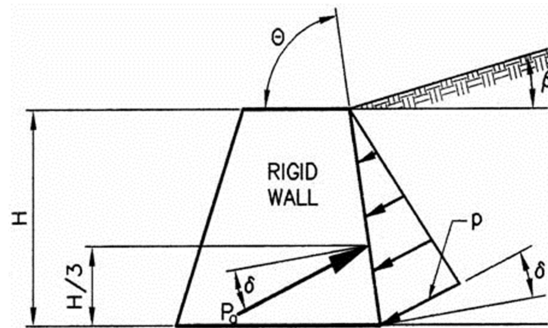


Figure 3.24: Notation for Coulomb Active Earth Pressure.

Table 3.23: Friction Angle for Dissimilar Materials (U.S. Department of the Navy 1982a).

Interface Materials	Friction Angle, δ (°)	Coefficient of Friction, $\tan \delta$ (dim.)
Mass concrete on the following foundation materials:		
• Clean sound rock	35	0.70
• Clean gravel, gravel-sand mixtures, coarse sand	29 to 31	0.55 to 0.60
• Clean fine to medium sand, silty medium to coarse sand, silty or clayey gravel	24 to 29	0.45 to 0.55
• Clean fine sand, silty or clayey fine to medium sand ...	19 to 24	0.34 to 0.45
• Fine sandy silt, non-plastic silt	17 to 19	0.31 to 0.34
• Very stiff and hard residual or preconsolidated clay ...	22 to 26	0.40 to 0.49
• Medium stiff and stiff clay and silty clay	17 to 19	0.31 to 0.34
Masonry on foundation materials has same friction factors.		
Steel sheet piles against the following soils:		
• Clean gravel, gravel-sand mixtures, well-graded rock fill with spalls	22	0.40
• Clean sand, silty sand-gravel mixture, single-size hard rock fill	17	0.31
• Silty sand, gravel or sand mixed with silt or clay	14	0.25
• Fine sandy silt, nonplastic silt	11	0.19
Formed or precast concrete or concrete sheet piling against the following soils:		
• Clean gravel, gravel-sand mixture, well-graded rock fill with spalls	22 to 26	0.40 to 0.49
• Clean sand, silty sand-gravel mixture, single-size hard rock fill	17 to 22	0.31 to 0.40
• Silty sand, gravel or sand mixed with silt or clay	17	0.31
• Fine sandy silt, non-plastic silt	14	0.25
Various structural materials:		
Masonry on masonry, igneous and metamorphic rocks:		
• dressed soft rock on dressed soft rock	35	0.70
• dressed hard rock on dressed soft rock	33	0.65
• dressed hard rock on dressed hard rock	29	0.55
Masonry on wood in direction of cross grain	26	0.49
Steel on steel at sheet pile interlocks	17	0.31

C For more information see Article [3.17.7](#). Appendix B3.

3.10.5.4. Passive Lateral Earth Pressure Coefficient, k_p

For non-cohesive soils, values of the coefficient of passive lateral earth pressure may be taken from [Figure 3.25](#) for the case of a sloping or vertical wall with a horizontal backfill or from [Figure 3.26](#) for the case of a vertical wall and sloping backfill. For conditions that deviate from those described in [Figure 3.25](#) and [Figure 3.26](#), the passive pressure may be calculated by using a trial procedure based on wedge theory, e.g., see

Terzaghi et al. (1996). When wedge theory is used, the limiting value of the wall friction angle should not be taken larger than one-half the angle of internal friction, ϕ_f .

For cohesive soils, passive pressures may be estimated by:

$$p_p = k_p \gamma_s g z \times 10^{-9} + 2c \sqrt{k_p} \quad (3.22)$$

where:

- p_p = passive lateral earth pressure (MPa)
- γ_s = density of soil (kg/m^3)
- z = depth below surface of soil (mm)
- c = soil cohesion (MPa)
- k_p = coefficient of passive lateral earth pressure specified in [Figure 3.25](#) and [Figure 3.26](#), as appropriate
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec^2)

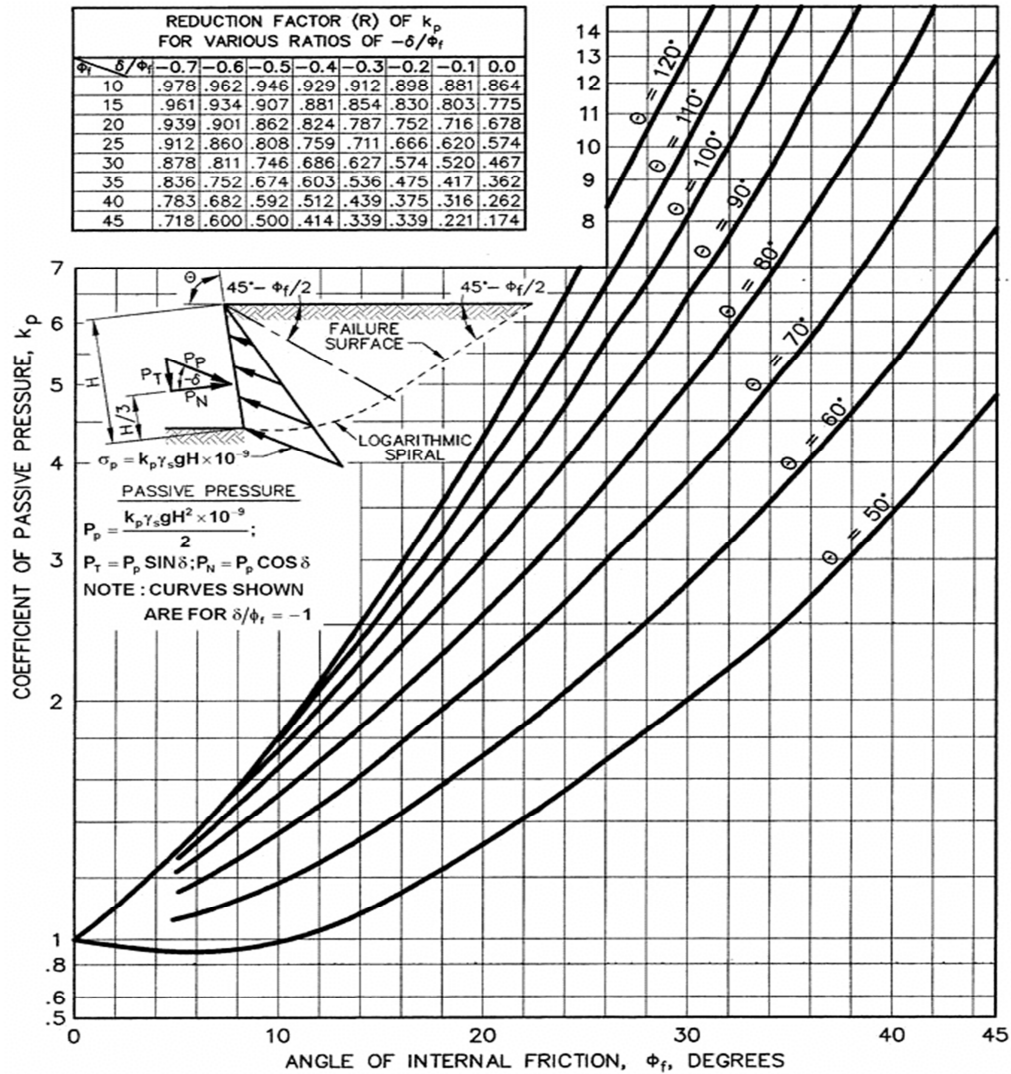


Figure 3.25: Computational Procedures for Passive Earth Pressures for Vertical and Sloping Walls with Horizontal Backfill

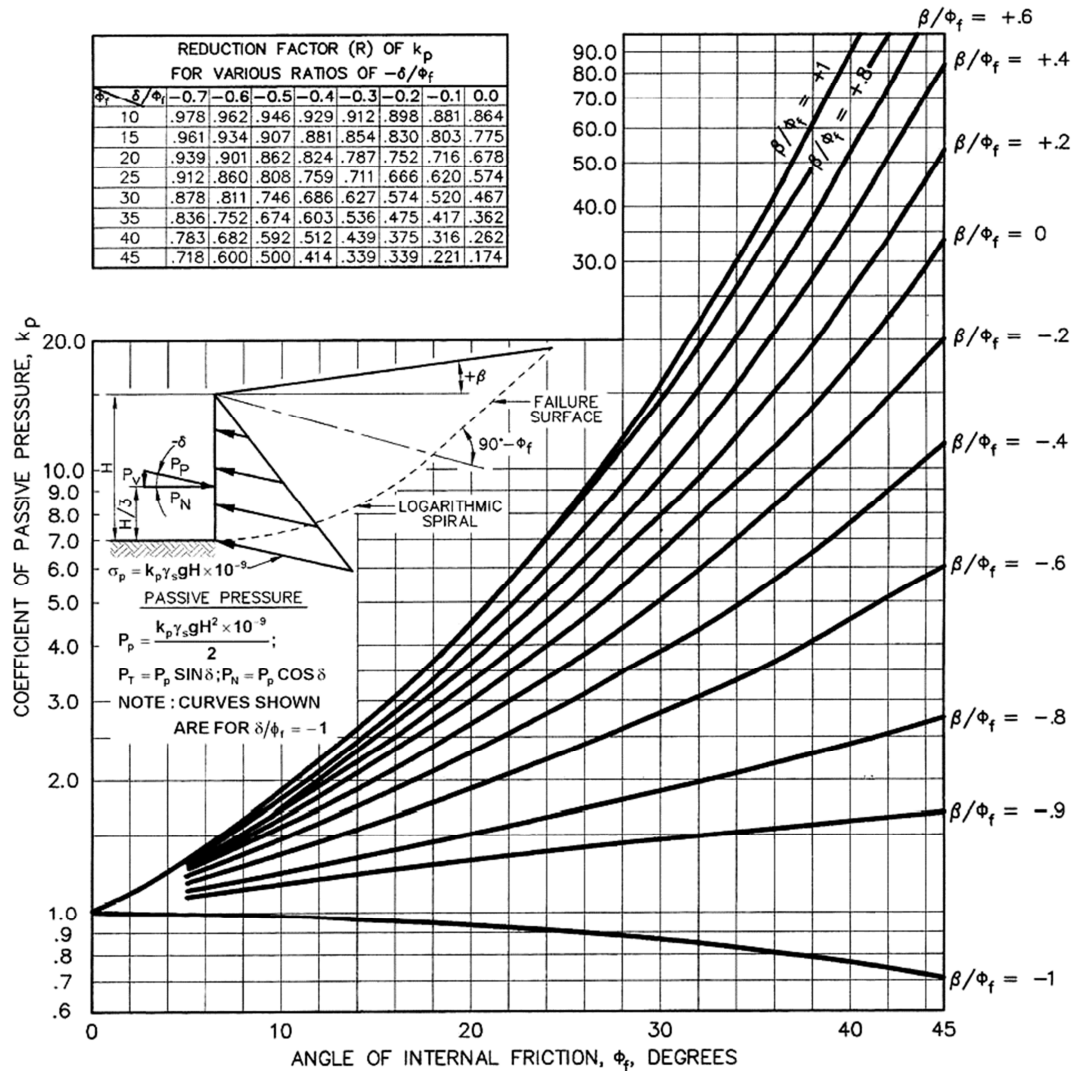


Figure 3.26: Computational Procedures for Passive Earth Pressures for Vertical Wall with Sloping Backfill

- C The movement required to mobilize passive pressure is approximately 10.0 times as large as the movement needed to induce earth pressure to the active values. The movement required to mobilize full passive pressure in loose sand is approximately 5 percent of the height of the face on which the passive pressure acts. For dense sand, the movement required to mobilize full passive pressure is smaller than 5 percent of the height of the face on which the passive pressure acts, and 5 percent represents a conservative estimate of the movement required to mobilize the full passive pressure. For poorly compacted cohesive soils, the movement required to mobilize full passive pressure is larger than 5 percent of the height of the face on which the pressure acts.
- C Wedge solutions are inaccurate and Unconservative for larger values of wall friction angle.

3.10.5.5. Equivalent-Fluid Method of Estimating Rankine Lateral Earth Pressures

The equivalent-fluid method may be used where Rankine earth pressure theory is applicable.

The equivalent-fluid method shall only be used where the backfill is free-draining. If this criterion cannot be satisfied, the provisions of Articles 3.10.3, 3.10.5.1 and 3.10.5.3 shall be used to determine horizontal earth pressure.

Where the equivalent-fluid method is used, the basic earth pressure, p (MPa), may be taken as:

$$p = \gamma_{eq} g z (\times 10^{-9}) \quad (3.23)$$

where:

- γ_{eq} = equivalent fluid density of soil, not less than 480 (kg/m³)
- z = depth below surface of soil (mm)
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec²)

- C Applicability of Rankine theory is discussed in Article 3.10.5.3.
- C Values of the densities of equivalent fluids are given for walls that can tolerate very little or no movement as well as for walls that can move as much as 25 mm in 6m. The concepts of equivalent fluid densities have taken into account the effect of soil creep on walls.

The resultant lateral earth load due to the weight of the backfill shall be assumed to act at a height of $H/3$ above the base of the wall, where H is the total wall height, measured from the surface of the ground to the bottom of the footing.

Typical values for equivalent fluid densities (γ_{eq}) for design of a wall of height not exceeding 6 m may be taken from Table 3.24, where:

- Δ = movement of top of wall required to reach minimum active or maximum passive pressure by tilting or lateral translation (mm)
- H = height of wall (mm)
- β = angle of fill to the horizontal (°)

The magnitude of the vertical component of the earth pressure resultant for the case of sloping backfill surface may be determined as:

$$P_v = P_h \tan \beta \quad (3.24)$$

where:

$$P_h = 0.5 \gamma_{eq} g H^2 (\times 10^{-9}) \quad (3.25)$$

Table 3.24: Typical Values for Equivalent Fluid Densities of Soils.

Type of Soil	Level Backfill		Backfill with $\beta = 25^\circ$	
	At-Rest γ_{eq} (kg/m ³)	Active $\Delta/H = 1/240$ γ_{eq} (kg/m ³)	At-Rest γ_{eq} (kg/m ³)	Active $\Delta/H = 1/240$ γ_{eq} (kg/m ³)
Loose sand or gravel	880	640	1040	800
Medium dense sand or gravel	800	560	960	720
Dense sand or gravel	720	480	880	640

- C The values of equivalent fluid density presented in [Table 3.24](#) for $\Delta/H = 1/240$ represent the horizontal component of active earth pressure based on Rankine earth pressure theory. This horizontal earth pressure is applicable for cantilever retaining walls for which the wall stem does not interfere with the sliding surface defining the Rankine failure wedge within the wall backfill [Figure 3.58](#).
- C The horizontal pressure is applied to a vertical plane extending up from the heel of the wall base, and the weight of soil to the left of the vertical plane is included as part of the wall weight.
- C For the case of a sloping backfill surface in [Table 3.24](#), a vertical component of earth pressure also acts on the vertical plane extending up from the heel of the wall.

3.10.5.6. Lateral Earth Pressures for Nongravity Cantilevered Walls

For permanent walls, the simplified lateral earth pressure distributions shown in [Figure 3.27](#) through [Figure 3.29](#) may be used. If walls will support or are supported by cohesive soils for temporary applications, walls may be designed based on total stress methods of analysis and undrained shear strength parameters. For this latter case, the simplified earth pressure distributions shown in [Figure 3.30](#) through [Figure 3.33](#) may be used with the following restrictions:

- The ratio of total overburden pressure to undrained shear strength, N_s (see Article [3.10.5.7.2](#)), should be less than 3 at the wall base.
- The active earth pressure shall not be less than 0.25 times the effective overburden pressure at any depth of wall height, or 5.5×10^{-6} MPa, whichever is greater.

For temporary walls with discrete vertical elements embedded in granular soil or rock, [Figure 3.27](#) and [Figure 3.28](#) may be used to determine passive resistance and [Figure 3.30](#) and [Figure 3.31](#) may be used to determine the active earth pressure due to the retained soil.

- C Nongravity cantilevered walls temporarily supporting or supported by cohesive soils are subject to excessive lateral deformation if the undrained soil shear strength is low compared to the shear stresses. Therefore, use of these walls should be limited to soils of adequate strength as represented by the stability number N_s (see Article [3.10.5.7.2](#)).
- C Base movements in the soil in front of a wall become significant for values of N_s of about 3 to 4, and a base failure can occur when N_s exceeds about 5 to 6 ([Terzaghi and Peck 1967](#)).

Where discrete vertical wall elements are used for support, the width, b , of each vertical element shall be assumed to equal the width of the flange or diameter of the element for driven sections and the diameter of the concrete-filled hole for sections encased in concrete.

The magnitude of the sloping surcharge above the wall for the determination of P_{a2} in [Figure 3.30](#) should be based on the wedge of soil above the wall within the active wedge.

In [Figure 3.31](#), a portion of negative loading at top of wall due to cohesion is ignored and hydrostatic pressure in a tension crack should be considered, but is not shown on the figure.

- C In [Figure 3.27](#), [Figure 3.28](#), [Figure 3.29](#) and [Figure 3.30](#), the width b of discrete vertical wall elements effective in mobilizing the passive resistance of the soil is based on a method of analysis by [Broms \(1964a, 1964b\)](#) for single vertical piles embedded in cohesive or cohesionless soil and assumes a vertical element. The effective width for passive resistance of three times the element width, $3b$, is due to the arching action in soil and side shear on resisting rock wedges. The maximum width of $3b$ can be used when material in which the vertical element is embedded does not contain discontinuities that would affect the failure geometry. This width should be reduced if planes or zones of weakness would prevent mobilization of resistance through this entire width, or if the passive resistance zones of adjacent elements overlap. If the element is embedded in soft clay having a stability number less than 3, soil arching will not occur and the actual width shall be used as the

effective width for passive resistance. Where a vertical element is embedded in rock, i.e., [Figure 3.28](#), the passive resistance of the rock is assumed to develop through the shear failure of a rock wedge equal in width to the vertical element, b , and defined by a plane extending upward from the base of the element at an angle of 45° . For the active zone behind the mudline or groundline in front of the wall, the active pressure is assumed to act over one vertical element width, b , in all cases.

- C The design grade is generally taken below finished grade to account for excavation during or after wall construction or other disturbance to the supporting soil during the service life of the wall.

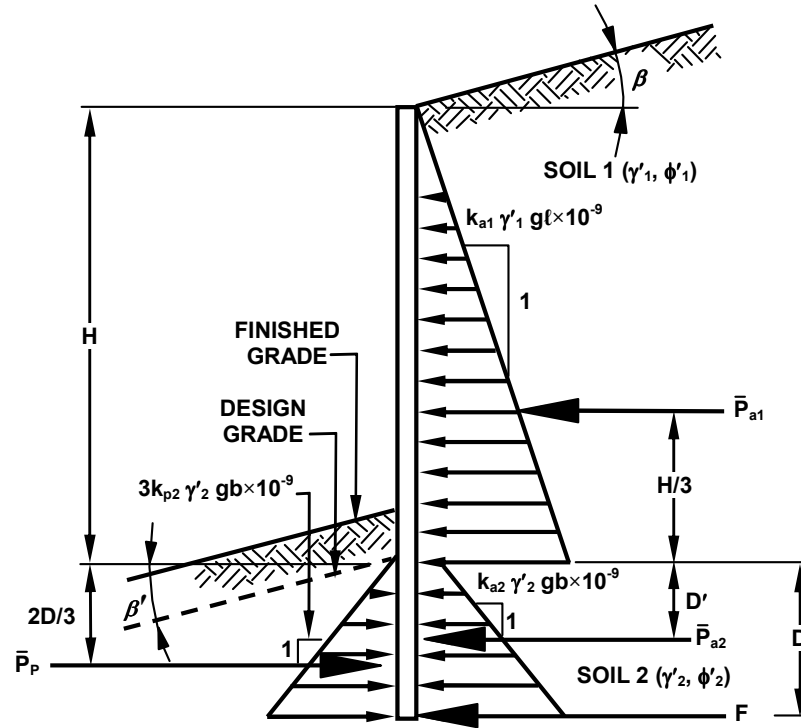


Figure 3.27: Unfactored Simplified Earth Pressure Distributions for Permanent Nongravity Cantilevered Walls with Discrete Vertical Wall Elements Embedded in Granular Soil.

where:

b = actual width of imbedded discrete vertical wall element below design grade in plane of wall (mm)

$$\bar{P}_{a_1} = \frac{k_{a_1} \gamma'_1 g \ell H^2 \times 10^{-9}}{2}$$

$$D' = \frac{D [\gamma'_1 H + (2/3) \gamma'_2 D]}{(2\gamma'_1 H + \gamma'_2 D)}$$

$$\bar{P}_{a_2} = 0.5 k_{a_2} D b g (2\gamma'_1 H + \gamma'_2 D) \times 10^{-9}$$

$$\bar{P}_p = 1.5 k_{a_2} D b g (2\gamma'_1 H + \gamma'_2 D) \times 10^{-9}$$

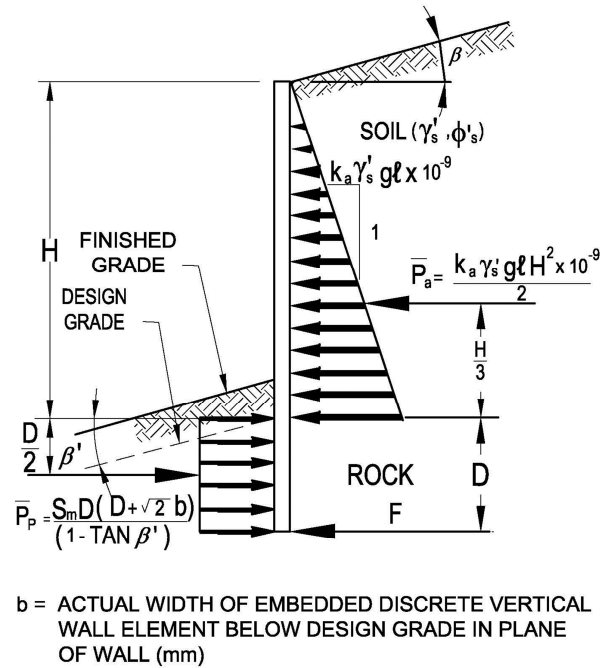


Figure 3.28: Unfactored Simplified Earth Pressure Distributions for Permanent Nongravity Cantilevered Walls with Discrete Vertical Wall Elements Embedded in Rock.

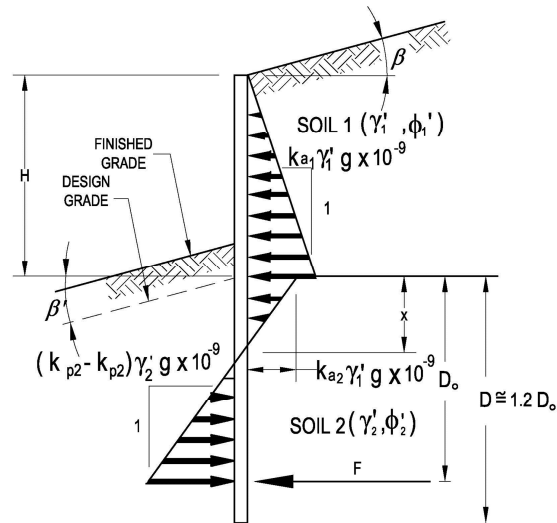


Figure 3.29: Unfactored Simplified Earth Pressure Distributions for Permanent Nongravity Cantilevered Walls with Continuous Vertical Wall Elements Embedded in Granular Soil Modified After **Teng (1962)**.

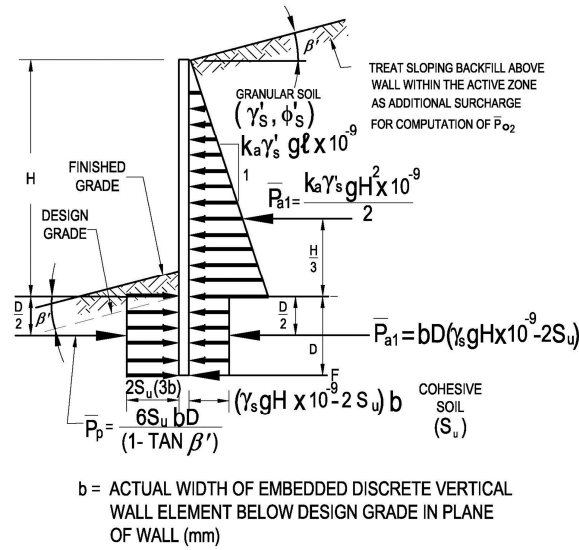


Figure 3.30: Unfactored Simplified Earth Pressure Distributions for Temporary Nongravity Cantilevered Walls with Discrete Vertical Wall Elements Embedded in Cohesive Soil and Retaining Granular Soil.

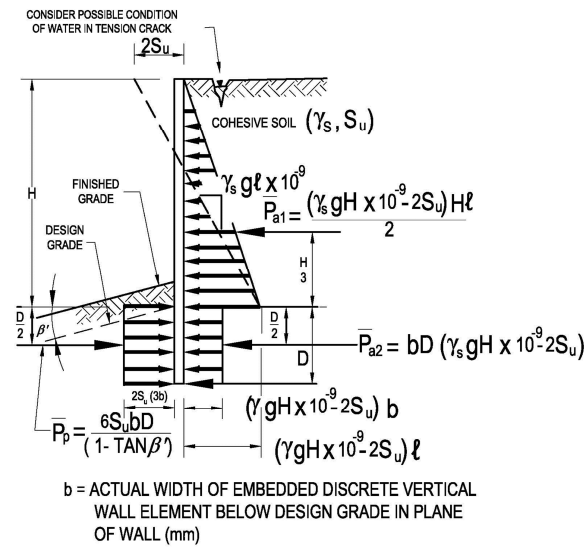
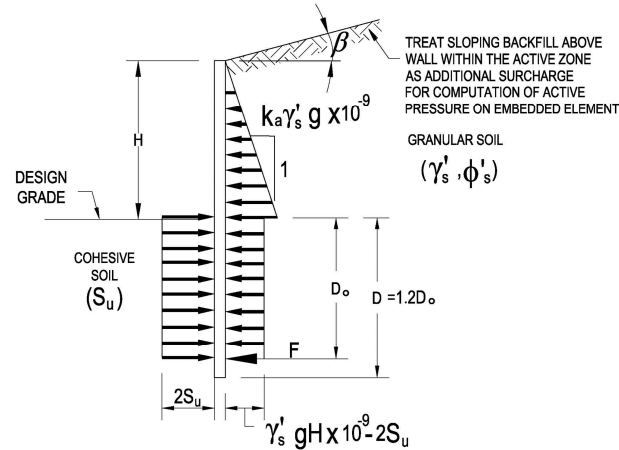


Figure 3.31: Unfactored Simplified Earth Pressure Distributions for Temporary Nongravity Cantilevered Walls with Discrete Vertical Wall Elements Embedded in Cohesive Soil and Retaining Cohesive Soil.



NOTE: For walls embedded in granular soil, refer to [Figure 3.29](#) and use [Figure 3.33](#) for retained cohesive soil when appropriate.

Figure 3.32: Unfactored Simplified Earth Pressure Distributions for Temporary Nongravity Cantilevered Walls with Continuous Vertical Wall Elements Embedded in Cohesive Soil and Retaining Granular Soil Modified After [Teng \(1962\)](#).

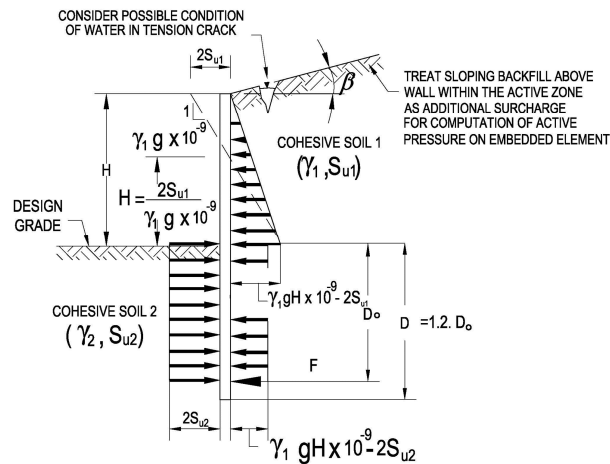


Figure 3.33: Unfactored Simplified Earth Pressure Distributions for Temporary Nongravity Cantilevered Walls with Continuous Vertical Wall Elements Embedded in Cohesive Soil and Retaining Cohesive Soil Modified After [Teng \(1962\)](#).

3.10.5.7. Apparent Earth Pressures (AEP) for Anchored Walls

For anchored walls constructed from the top down, the earth pressure may be estimated in accordance with Articles [3.10.5.7.1](#) or [3.10.5.7.2](#).

In developing the design pressure for an anchored wall, consideration shall be given to wall displacements that may affect adjacent structures and/or underground utilities.

- C In the development of lateral earth pressures, the method and sequence of construction, the rigidity of the wall/anchor system, the physical characteristics and stability of the ground mass to be supported, allowable wall deflections, anchor spacing and prestress and the potential for anchor yield should be considered.
- C Several suitable apparent earth pressure distribution diagrams are available and in common use for the design of anchored walls, Sabatini et al. (1999); Cheney (1988); and U.S. Department of the Navy (1982a). Some of the apparent earth pressure diagrams, such as those described in Articles 3.10.5.7.1 and 3.10.5.7.2, are based on the results of measurements on anchored walls, Sabatini et al. (1999). Others are based on the results of measurements on strutted excavations, Terzaghi and Peck (1967), the results of analytical and scale model studies, Clough and Tsni (1974); Hanna and Matalana (1970), and observations of anchored wall installations (Nicholson et al. 1981); Schnabel (1982). While the results of these efforts provide somewhat different and occasionally conflicting results, they all tend to confirm the presence of higher lateral pressures near the top of the wall than would be predicted by classical earth pressure theories, due to the constraint provided by the upper level of anchors, and a generally uniform pressure distribution with depth.

1. Cohesionless Soils

The earth pressure on temporary or permanent anchored walls constructed in cohesionless soils may be determined using Figure 3.34, for which the maximum ordinate, p_a , of the pressure diagram is computed as follows:

For walls with one anchor level:

$$P_a = k_a \gamma'_s g H \times 10^{-9} \quad (3.26)$$

For walls with multiple anchor levels:

$$P_a = \frac{k_a \gamma'_s g H^2 \times 10^{-9}}{1.5H - 0.5H_1 - 0.5H_{n+1}} \quad (3.27)$$

where:

- p_a = maximum ordinate of pressure diagram (MPa)
- k_a = active earth pressure coefficient
 - = $\tan^2 (45^\circ - \phi_f/2)$ (dim.) for $\beta = 0$ use Eq. (3.20) for $\beta \neq 0$
- γ'_s = effective density of soil (kg/m^3)
- H = total excavation depth (mm)
- H_1 = distance from ground surface to uppermost ground anchor (mm)
- H_{n+1} = distance from base of excavation to lowermost ground anchor (mm)
- T_{hi} = horizontal load in ground anchor i (N/mm)
- R = reaction force to be resisted by subgrade (i.e., below base of excavation) (N/mm)
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec^2)

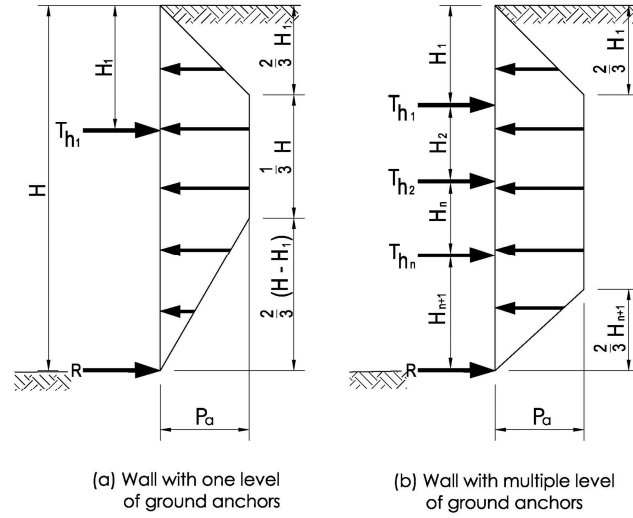


Figure 3.34: Apparent Earth Pressure Distributions for Anchored Walls Constructed from the Top Down in Cohesionless Soils.

2. Cohesive Soils

The apparent earth pressure distribution for cohesive soils is related to the stability number, N_s , defined as:

$$N_s = \frac{\gamma_s g H \times 10^{-9}}{S_u} \quad (3.28)$$

where:

- γ_s = total density of soil (kg/m^3)
- H = total excavation depth (mm)
- S_u = average undrained shear strength of soil (MPa)
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec^2)

a. Stiff to Hard

For temporary anchored walls in stiff to hard cohesive soils ($N_s \leq 4$), the earth pressure may be determined using [Figure 3.34](#), with the maximum ordinate, P_a , of the pressure diagram computed as:

$$P_a = 0.2 \times 10^{-9} \gamma_s g H \quad \text{to} \quad P_a = 0.4 \times 10^{-9} \gamma_s g H \quad (3.29)$$

where:

- p_a = maximum ordinate of pressure diagram (MPa)
- γ_s = total density of soil (kg/m^3)
- H = total excavation depth (mm)
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec^2)

- C The determination of earth pressures in cohesive soils described in this Article and Article 3.10.5.7.2.b are based on the results of measurements on anchored walls, Sabatini et al. (1999). In the absence of specific experience in a particular deposit, $P_a = 0.3 \times 10^{-9} \gamma_s g H$ should be used for the maximum pressure ordinate when ground anchors are locked off at 75 percent of the unfactored design load or less. Where anchors are to be locked off at 100 percent of the unfactored design load or greater, a maximum pressure ordinate of $P_a = 0.4 \times 10^{-9} \gamma_s g H$ should be used.

For permanent anchored walls in stiff to hard cohesive soils, the apparent earth pressure distributions described in Article 3.10.5.7.1 may be used with k_a based on the drained friction angle of the cohesive soil. For permanent walls, the distribution, permanent or temporary, resulting in the maximum total force shall be used for design.

- C For temporary walls, the apparent earth pressure distribution in Figure 3.34 should only be used for excavations of controlled short duration, where the soil is not fissured and where there is no available free water.
- C Temporary loading may control design of permanent walls and should be evaluated in addition to permanent loading.

b. Soft to Medium Stiff

The earth pressure on temporary or permanent walls in soft to medium stiff cohesive soils ($N_s \geq 6$) may be determined using Figure 3.35, for which the maximum ordinate, p_a , of the pressure diagram is computed as:

$$P_a = k_a \gamma_s g H \quad (3.30)$$

where:

- P_a = maximum ordinate of pressure diagram (MPa)
- k_a = active earth pressure coefficient.
- γ_s = total density of soil (kg/m^3)
- H = total excavation depth (mm)
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec^2)
- R = reaction force to be resisted by subgrade (i.e., below base of excavation) (N/mm)

The active earth pressure coefficient, k_a , may be determined by:

$$k_a = 1 - \frac{4S_u}{\gamma_s g H \times 10^{-9}} + 2\sqrt{2} \frac{d}{H} \left(\frac{0.048 - 5.14S_{ub}}{\gamma_s g H \times 10^{-9}} \right) \geq 0.22 \quad (3.31)$$

where:

- S_u = undrained strength of retained soil (MPa)
- S_{ub} = undrained strength of soil below excavation base (MPa)
- γ_s = total density of retained soil (kg/m^3)
- H = total excavation depth (mm)
- D = depth of potential base failure surface below base of excavation (mm)

The value of d is taken as the thickness of soft to medium stiff cohesive soil below the excavation base up to a maximum value of $B_e/\sqrt{2}$, where B_e is the excavation width.

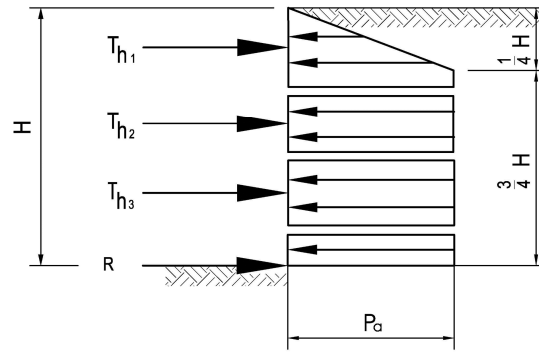


Figure 3.35: Apparent Earth Pressure Distribution for Anchored Walls Constructed from the Top Down in Soft to Medium Stiff Cohesive Soils.

C For soils with $4 < N_s < 6$, use the larger P_a from Eq. (3.29) and Eq. (3.30).

3.10.5.8. Lateral Earth Pressures for Mechanically Stabilized Earth Walls (MSE walls)

1. General

The resultant force per unit width behind an MSE wall, shown in Figure 3.36, Figure 3.37 and Figure 3.38 as acting at a height of $h/3$ above the base of the wall, shall be taken as:

$$P_a = 0.5k_a \gamma_s g h^2 \times 10^{-9} \quad (3.32)$$

where:

P_a = force resultant per unit width (N/mm)

γ_s = total unit weight of backfill (kg/m^3)

h = height of horizontal earth pressure diagram taken as shown in Figure 3.36, Figure 3.37 and Figure 3.38 (mm)

k_a = active earth pressure coefficient specified in Article 3.10.5.3, with the angle of backfill slope taken as β , as specified in Figure 3.37, B , as specified in Figure 3.38, and $\delta = \beta$ and B in Figure 3.37 and Figure 3.38, respectively.

g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec^2)

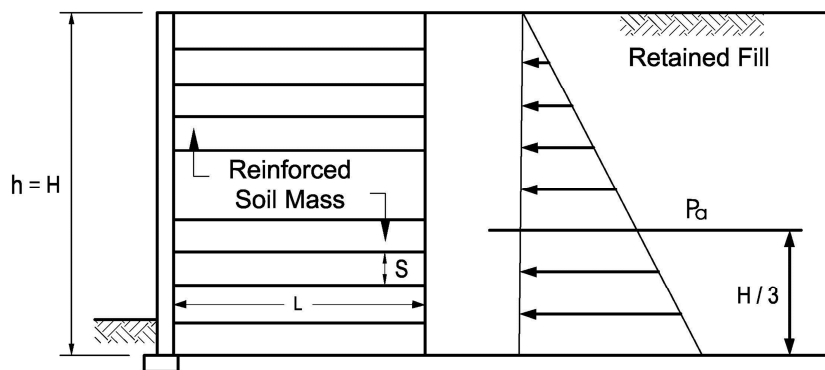


Figure 3.36: Earth Pressure Distribution for MSE Wall with Level Backfill Surface.

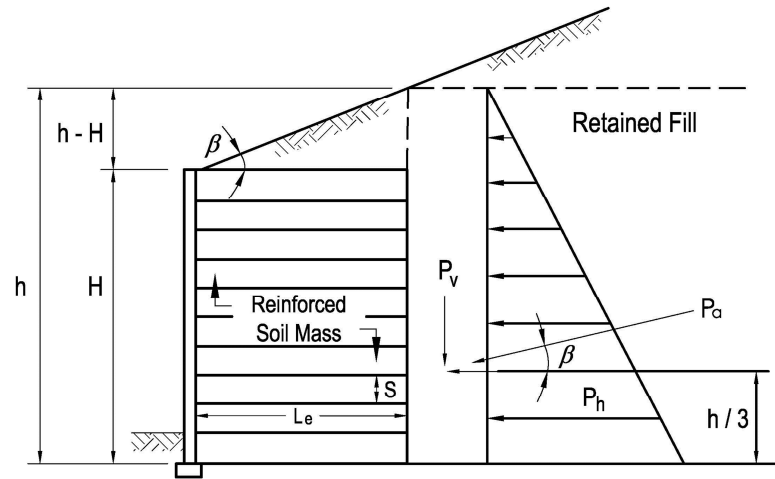


Figure 3.37: Earth Pressure for MSE Wall with Sloping Backfill Surface.

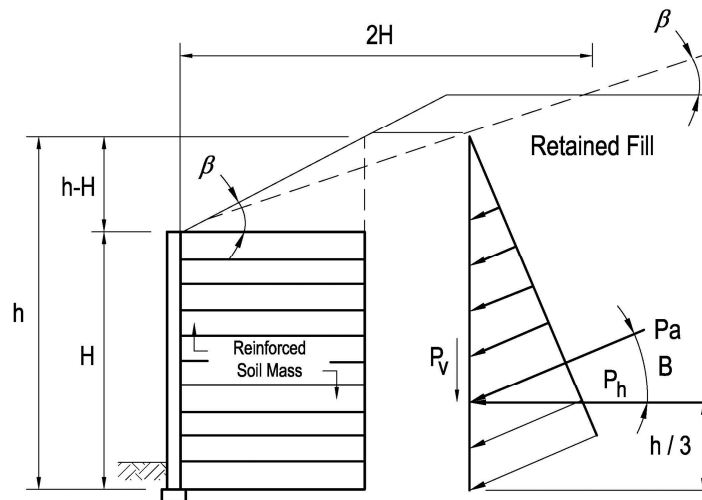


Figure 3.38: Earth Pressure Distribution for MSE Wall with Broken Back Backfill Surface.

2. Internal Stability

The load factor γ_p to be applied to the maximum load carried by the reinforcement T_{max} for reinforcement strength, connection strength, and pullout calculations (see Article [9.10.6.2](#)) shall be E_v , for vertical earth pressure.

For MSE walls η shall be taken as 1.

- C Loads carried by the soil reinforcement in mechanically stabilized earth walls are the result of vertical and lateral earth pressures which exist within the reinforced soil mass, reinforcement extensibility, facing stiffness, wall toe restraint, and the stiffness and strength of the soil backfill within the reinforced soil mass. The calculation method for T_{max} is empirically derived, based on reinforcement strain measurements, converted to load based on the reinforcement modulus, from full scale walls at working stress conditions. The load factor E_v , on the other hand, was determined in consideration of vertical earth pressure exerted by a soil mass without inclusions, and was calibrated to address

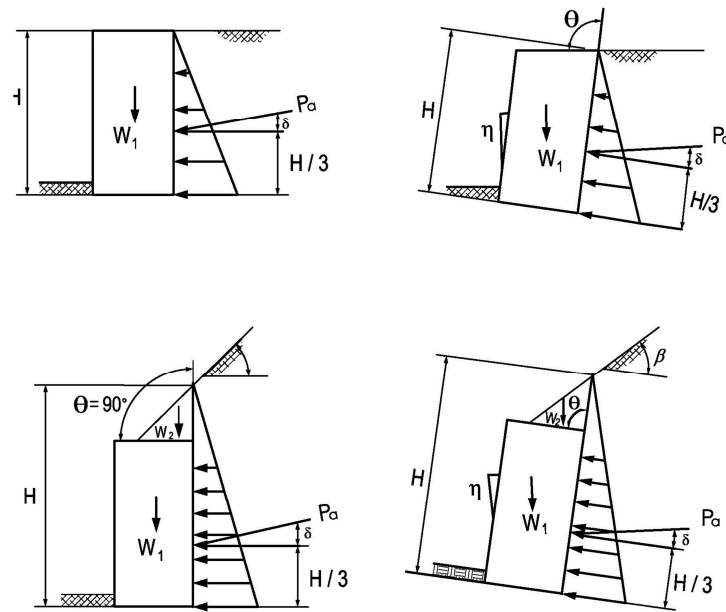
uncertainties implied by allowable stress design for external stability for walls. *EV* is not directly applicable to internal reinforcement loads in MSE walls, since the calibration of *EV* was not performed with internal stability of a reinforced system in mind.

- C The use of *EV* for the load factor in this case should be considered an interim measure until research is completed to quantify load prediction bias and uncertainty.

3.10.5.9. Lateral Earth Pressures for Prefabricated Modular Walls

- C Prefabricated modular walls are gravity walls constructed of prefabricated concrete elements that are in-filled with soil. They differ from modular block MSE structures in that they contain no soil reinforcing elements.

The magnitude and location of resultant loads and resisting forces for prefabricated modular walls may be determined using the earth pressure distributions presented in [Figure 3.39](#) and [Figure 3.40](#). Where the back of the prefabricated modules forms an irregular, stepped surface, the earth pressure shall be computed on a plane surface drawn from the upper back corner of the top module to the lower back heel of the bottom module using Coulomb earth pressure theory.



P_a at $H/3$

$$P_a = \frac{1}{2} \gamma'_s g H^2 k_a \times 10^{-9}$$

Figure 3.39: Earth Pressure Distributions for Prefabricated Modular Walls with Continuous Pressure Surfaces.

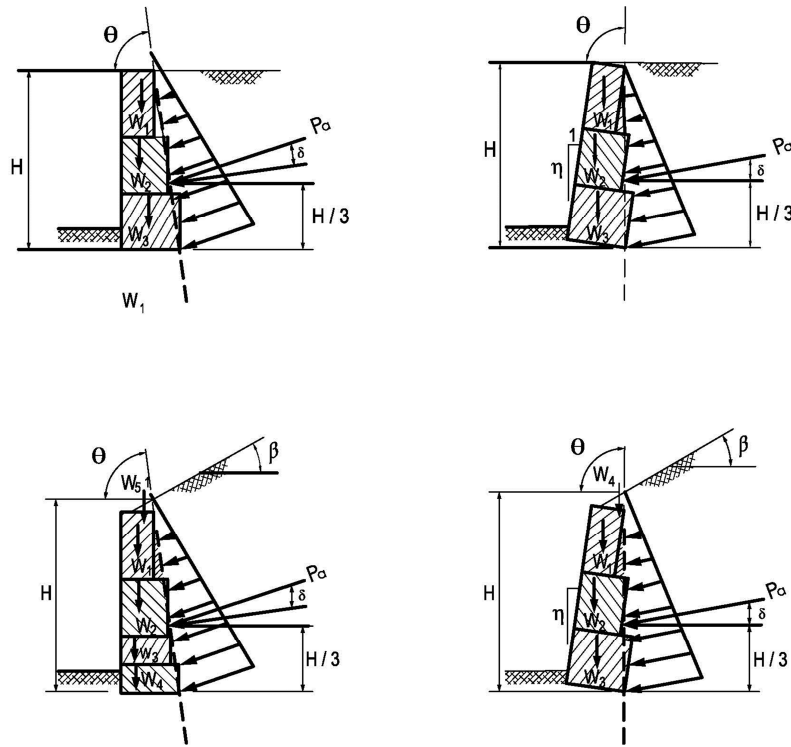


Figure 3.40: Earth Pressure Distributions for Prefabricated Modular Walls with Irregular Pressure Surfaces.

The value of k_a used to compute lateral thrust resulting from retained backfill and other loads behind the wall shall be computed based on the friction angle of the backfill behind the modules. In the absence of specific data, if granular backfill is used behind the prefabricated modules within a zone of at least 1V:1H from the heel of the wall, a value of 34° may be used for ϕ_f . Otherwise, without specific data, a maximum friction angle of 30° shall be used.

- C The wall friction angle, δ , is a function of the direction and magnitude of possible movements, and the properties of the backfill. When the structure settles more than the backfill, the wall friction angle is negative.
- C As a maximum, the wall friction angles, given in [Table 3.25](#), should be used to compute k_a , unless more exact coefficients are demonstrated:

Table 3.25: Maximum Wall Friction Angles, δ .

Case	Wall Friction Angle (δ)
Modules settle more than backfill	0
Continuous pressure surface of precast concrete (uniform width modules)	$0.5\phi_f$
Average pressure surface (stepped modules)	$0.75\phi_f$

3.10.6. Surcharge Loads: *ES* and *LS*

3.10.6.1. Uniform Surcharge Loads (*ES*)

Where a uniform surcharge is present, a constant horizontal earth pressure shall be added to the basic earth pressure. This constant earth pressure may be taken as:

$$\Delta_p = k_s q_s \quad (3.33)$$

where:

- Δ_p = constant horizontal earth pressure due to uniform surcharge (MPa)
- k_s = coefficient of earth pressure due to surcharge
- q_s = uniform surcharge applied to the upper surface of the active earth wedge (MPa)

- C When the uniform surcharge is produced by an earth loading on the upper surface, the load factor for both vertical and horizontal components shall be taken as specified in [Table 3.2](#) for earth surcharge.

For active earth pressure conditions, k_s shall be taken as k_a , and for at-rest conditions, k_s shall be taken as k_o .

Otherwise, intermediate values appropriate for the type of backfill and amount of wall movement may be used.

- C Wall movement needed to mobilize extreme active and passive pressures for various types of backfill can be found in [Table 3.22](#).

3.10.6.2. Point, Line and Strip Loads (*ES*)— Walls Restrained from Movement

The horizontal pressure, Δ_{ph} in MPa, on a wall resulting from a uniformly loaded strip parallel to the wall may be taken as:

$$\Delta_{ph} = \frac{2p}{\pi} [\delta - \sin \delta \cos(\delta + 2\alpha)] \quad (3.34)$$

where:

- p = uniform load intensity on strip parallel to wall (MPa)
- α = angle specified in [Figure 3.41](#)
- δ = angle specified in [Figure 3.41](#) (rad.)

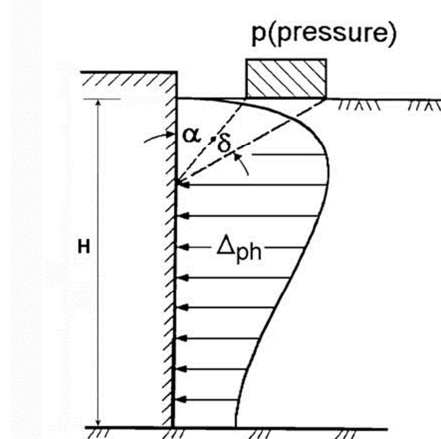


Figure 3.41: Horizontal Pressure on Wall Caused by a Uniformly Loaded Strip.

The horizontal pressure, Δ_{ph} in MPa, on a wall resulting from a point load may be taken as:

$$\Delta_{ph} = \frac{p}{\pi R^2} \left[\frac{3ZX^2}{R^3} - \frac{R(1-2\nu)}{R+Z} \right] \quad (3.35)$$

where:

P = point load (N)

R = radial distance from point of load application to a point on the wall as specified in [Figure 3.42](#) where $R = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{0.5}$ (mm)

X = horizontal distance from back of wall to point of load application (mm)

Y = horizontal distance from point on the wall under consideration to a plane, which is perpendicular to the wall and passes through the point of load application measured along the wall (mm)

Z = vertical distance from point of load application to the elevation of a point on the wall under consideration (mm)

ν = Poisson's ratio (dim.)

- C The point on the wall does not have to lie in a plane which is perpendicular to the wall and passes through the point of load application.
- C Poisson's ratio for soils varies from about 0.25 to 0.49, with lower values more typical for granular and stiff cohesive soils and higher values more typical for soft cohesive soils.

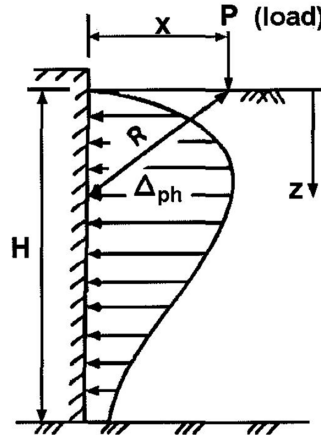


Figure 3.42: Horizontal Pressure on a Wall Caused by a Point Load.

The horizontal pressure, Δ_{ph} in MPa, resulting from an infinitely long line load parallel to a wall may be taken as:

$$\Delta_{ph} = \frac{4Q}{\pi} \frac{X^2 Z}{R^4} \quad (3.36)$$

where:

Q = load intensity in N/mm

and all other notation is as defined above and shown in [Figure 3.43](#).

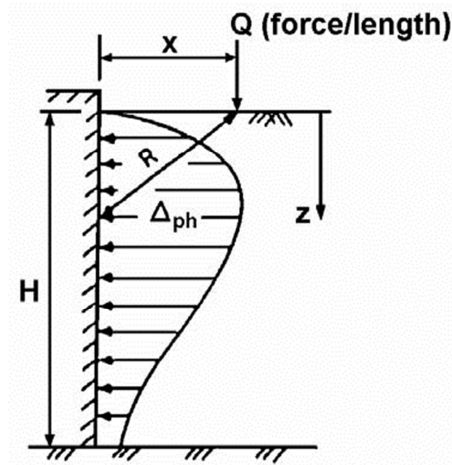


Figure 3.43: Horizontal Pressure on a Wall Caused by an Infinitely Long Line Load Parallel to the Wall.

The horizontal pressure distribution, Δ_{ph} in MPa, on a wall resulting from a finite line load perpendicular to a wall may be taken as:

$$\Delta_{ph} = \frac{Q}{\pi Z} \left(\frac{1}{A^3} - \frac{1-2\nu}{A + \frac{Z}{X_2}} - \frac{1}{B^3} + \frac{1-2\nu}{B + \frac{Z}{X_1}} \right) \quad (3.37)$$

in which:

$$A = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{Z}{X_2} \right)^2} \quad (3.38)$$

$$B = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{Z}{X_1} \right)^2} \quad (3.39)$$

where:

X_1 = distance from the back of the wall to the start of the line load as specified in [Figure 3.44](#) (mm)

X_2 = length of the line load (mm)

Z = depth from the ground surface to a point on the wall under consideration (mm)

ν = Poisson's Ratio (dim.)

Q = load intensity (N/mm)

- C Eqs. (3.35), (3.36), (3.37), and (3.38) are based on the assumption that the wall does not move, i.e., walls which have a high degree of structural rigidity or restrained at the top combined with an inability to slide in response to applied loads. For flexible walls, this assumption can be very conservative. Additional guidance regarding the ability of walls to move is provided in Articles [3.10.1](#) and [9.13.1.1.3](#).

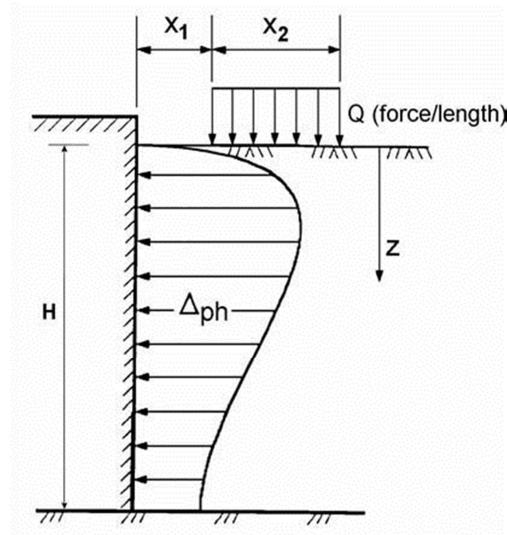


Figure 3.44: Horizontal Pressure on a Wall Caused by a Finite Line Load Perpendicular to the Wall.

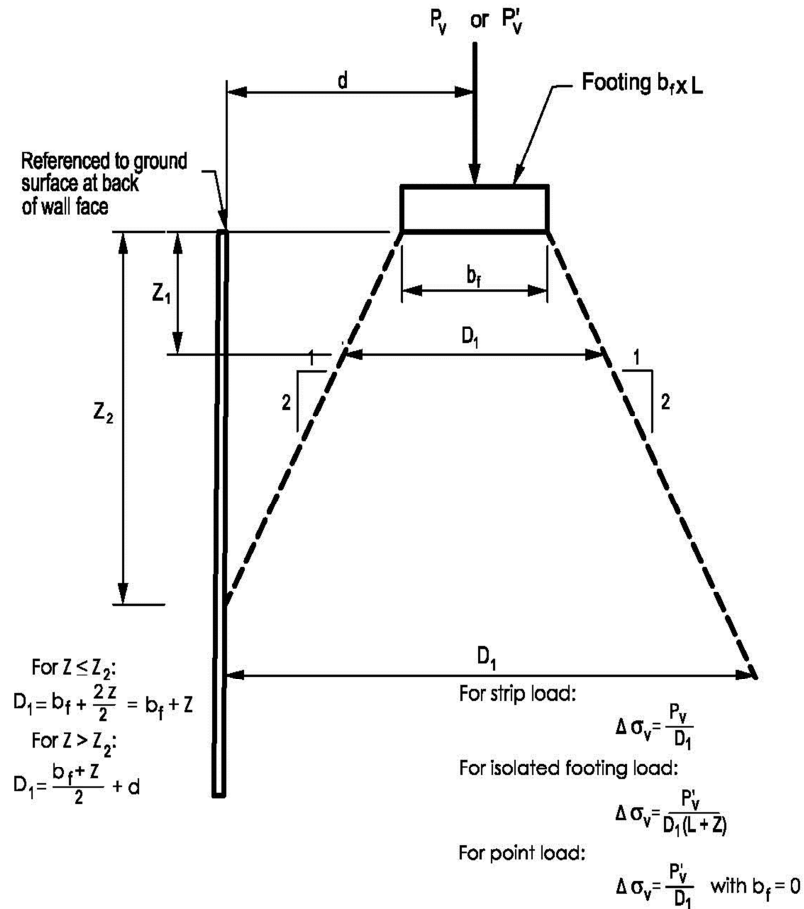
3.10.6.3. Strip Loads (ES)—Flexible Walls

Concentrated dead loads shall be incorporated into the internal and external stability design by using a simplified uniform vertical distribution of 2 vertical to 1 horizontal to determine the vertical component of stress with depth within the reinforced soil mass as specified in [Figure 3.45](#)

Concentrated horizontal loads at the top of the wall shall be distributed within the reinforced soil mass as specified in [Figure 3.46](#). If concentrated dead loads are located behind the reinforced soil mass, they shall be distributed in the same way as would be done within the reinforced soil mass.

The vertical stress distributed behind the reinforced zone shall be multiplied by k_a when determining the effect of this surcharge load on external stability. The concentrated horizontal stress distributed behind the wall as specified in [Figure 3.46](#) shall not be multiplied by k_a .

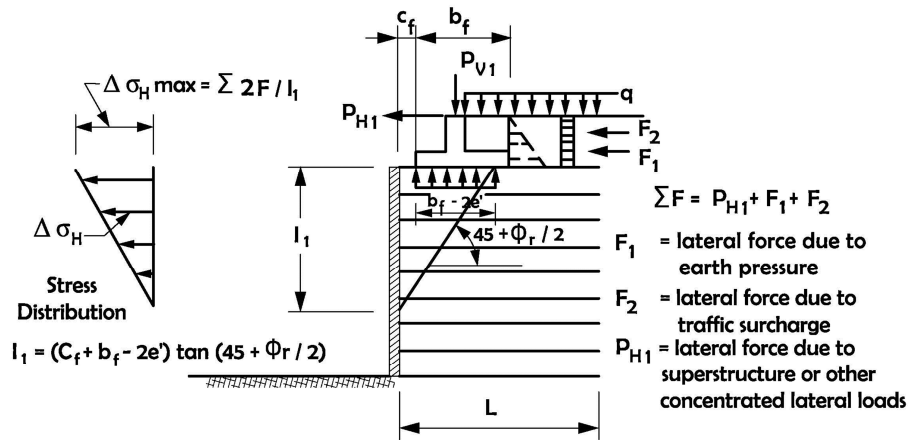
- C [Figure 3.45](#) and [Figure 3.46](#) are based on the assumption that the wall is relatively free to move laterally (e.g., MSE walls).



Where D_1 = Effective width of applied load at any depth, calculated as shown above
 b_f = Width of applied load. For footings which are eccentrically loaded (e.g. bridge abutment footings), set b_f equal to the equivalent footing width 'B' by reducing it by '2e', where 'e' is the eccentricity of the footing load (i.e. $b_f - 2e$).
 L = Length of the footing
 P_v = Load per linear foot strip footing
 P'_v = Load on isolated rectangular footing of point load
 Z_2 = depth where effective width intersects back of wall face = $2d - b_f$
 d = distance between the centroid of the concentrated vertical load and the back of the wall face.

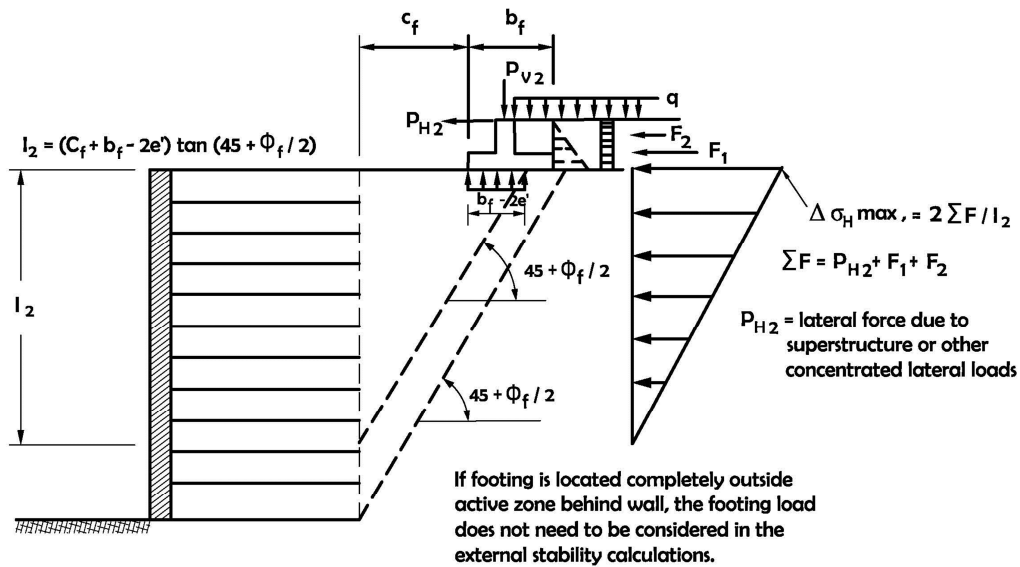
Assume the increased vertical stress due to the surcharge load has no influence on stresses used to evaluate internal stability if the stability, assume the surcharge has no influence if it is located outside the active zone behind the wall.

Figure 3.45: Distribution of Stress from Concentrated Vertical Load P_v for Internal and External Stability Calculations.



e' = eccentricity of load on footing (see [Figure 9.29](#) for example of how to calculate this).

a. Distribution of Stress for Internal Stability Calculations.



b. Distribution of Stress for External Stability Calculations.

Figure 3.46: Distribution of Stress from Concentrated Horizontal Loads.

3.10.6.4. Live Load Surcharge (LS)

A live load surcharge shall be applied where vehicular load is expected to act on the surface of the backfill within a distance equal to one-half the wall height behind the back face of the wall. If the surcharge is for a highway, the intensity of the load shall be consistent with the provisions of Article 3.6.1.2. If the surcharge is for other than a highway, the Owner shall specify and/or approve appropriate surcharge loads. The increase in horizontal pressure due to live load surcharge may be estimated as:

$$\Delta_p = k \gamma_s g h_{eq} \times 10^{-9} \quad (3.40)$$

where:

- Δ_p = constant horizontal earth pressure due to live load surcharge (MPa)
- γ_s = total density of soil (kg/m³)
- k = coefficient of lateral earth pressure h_{eq} = equivalent height of soil for vehicular load (mm)
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec²)

- C The tabulated values for h_{eq} were determined by evaluating the horizontal force against an abutment or wall from the pressure distribution produced by the vehicular live load of Article 3.6.1.2. The pressure distributions were developed from elastic half-space solutions using the following assumptions:
- Vehicle loads are distributed through a two-layer system consisting of pavement and soil subgrade
 - Poisson's ratio for the pavement and subgrade materials are 0.2 and 0.4, respectively
 - Wheel loads were modeled as a finite number of point loads distributed across the tire area to produce an equivalent tire contact stress
 - The process for equating wall moments resulting from the elastic solution with the equivalent surcharge method used a wall height increment of 76mm.
- C The value of the coefficient of lateral earth pressure k is taken as k_a specified in Article 3.10.5.2, for walls that do not deflect or move, or k_a , specified in Articles 3.10.5.3, 3.10.5.6 and 3.10.5.7, for walls that deflect or move sufficiently to reach minimum active conditions.

Equivalent heights of soil, h_{eq} , for highway loadings on abutments and retaining walls may be taken from Table 3.26 and Table 3.27. Linear interpolation shall be used for intermediate wall heights.

The wall height shall be taken as the distance between the surface of the backfill and the bottom of the footing along the pressure surface being considered.

- C The analyses used to develop Table 3.26 and Table 3.27 are presented in Kim and Barker (1998).

Table 3.26: Equivalent Height of Soil for Vehicular Loading on Abutments Perpendicular to Traffic.

Abutment Height (mm)	h_{eq} (mm)
1500	1200
3000	900
≥6000	600

Table 3.27: Equivalent Height of Soil for Vehicular Loading on Retaining Walls Parallel to Traffic.

Retaining Wall Height(mm)	h_{eq} (mm) Distance from wall backface to edge of traffic	
	0.0 mm	300 mm or Further
1500	1500	600
3000	1050	600
≥ 6000	600	600

- C The values for h_{eq} given in [Table 3.26](#) and [Table 3.27](#) are generally greater than the traditional 610 mm of earth load historically used in the AASHTO specifications, but less than those prescribed in previous editions (i.e., before 1998) of this specification. The traditional value corresponds to a 90 KN single unit truck formerly known as an H10 truck, [Peck et al. \(1974\)](#). This partially explains the increase in h_{eq} in previous editions of this specification.
- C Subsequent analyses, i.e., [Kim and Barker \(1998\)](#) show the importance of the direction of traffic, i.e., parallel for a wall and perpendicular for an abutment on the magnitude of h_{eq} . The magnitude of h_{eq} is greater for an abutment than for a wall due to the proximity and closer spacing of wheel loads to the back of an abutment compared to a wall.
- C The backface of the wall should be taken as the pressure surface being considered. Refer to commentary in Article [9.5.5](#) for application of surcharge pressures on retaining walls.

The load factor for both vertical and horizontal components of live load surcharge shall be taken as specified in [Table 3.1](#) for live load surcharge.

3.10.6.5. Reduction of Surcharge

If the vehicular loading is transmitted through a structural slab, which is also supported by means other than earth, a corresponding reduction in the surcharge loads may be permitted.

- C This Article relates primarily to approach slabs which are supported at one edge by the backwall of an abutment, thus transmitting load directly thereto.

3.10.7. Reduction Due to Earth Pressure

- C This provision is intended to refine the traditional approach in which the earth pressure is reduced by 50 percent in order to obtain maximum positive moment in top slab of culverts and frames. It permits obtaining more precise estimates of force effects where earth pressures are present.

For culverts and bridges and their components where earth pressure may reduce effects caused by other loads and forces, such reduction shall be limited to the extent earth pressure can be expected to be permanently present. In lieu of more precise information, a 50 percent reduction may be used, but need not be combined with the minimum load factor specified in [Table 3.2](#).

3.10.8. Downdrag

Possible development of downdrag on piles or shafts shall be evaluated where:

- Sites are underlain by compressible material such as clays, silts or organic soils,
- Fill will be or has recently been placed adjacent to the piles or shafts, such as is frequently the case for bridge approach fills,
- The groundwater is substantially lowered, or
- Liquefaction of loose sandy soil can occur.

When the potential exists for downdrag to act on a pile or shaft due to downward movement of the soil relative to the pile or shaft, and the potential for downdrag is not eliminated by preloading the soil to reduce downward movements or other mitigating measure, the pile or shaft shall be designed to resist the induced downdrag.

Consideration shall be given to eliminating the potential for downdrag loads through the use of embankment surcharge loads, ground improvement techniques, and/or vertical drainage and settlement monitoring measurements.

For Extreme Event I limit state, downdrag induced by liquefaction settlement shall be applied to the pile or shaft in combination with the other loads included within that load group. Liquefaction-induced downdrag shall not be combined with downdrag induced by consolidation settlements.

For downdrag load applied to pile or shaft groups, group effects shall be evaluated. If transient loads act to reduce the magnitude of downdrag loads and this reduction is considered in the design of the pile or shaft, the reduction shall not exceed that portion of transient load equal to the downdrag force effect.

Force effects due to downdrag on piles or drilled shafts should be determined as follows:

Step 1—Establish soil profile and soil properties for computing settlement using the procedures in Article [8.4](#).

Step 2—Perform settlement computations for the soil layers along the length of the pile or shaft using the procedures in Article [8.6.2.4.3](#).

Step 3—Determine the length of pile or shaft that will be subject to downdrag. If the settlement in the soil layer is 10 mm in. or greater relative to the pile or shaft, downdrag can be assumed to fully develop.

Step 4—Determine the magnitude of the downdrag, DD , by computing the negative skin resistance using any of the static analysis procedures in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#) for piles in all soils and Article [8.8.3.4](#) for shafts if the zone subject to downdrag is characterized as a cohesive soil. If the downdrag zone is characterized as a cohesionless soil, the procedures provided in Article [8.8.3.4](#) should be used to estimate the downdrag for shafts. Sum the negative skin resistance for all layers contributing to downdrag from the lowest layer to the bottom of the pile cap or ground surface. The neutral plane method may also be used to determine downdrag.

C For more information see Article [3.17.8](#), Appendix B3.

3.11. FORCE EFFECTS DUE TO SUPERIMPOSED DEFORMATIONS

3.11.1. General

Internal force effects in a component due to creep and shrinkage shall be considered. The effect of a temperature gradient should be included where appropriate. Force effects resulting from resisting component deformation, displacement of points of load application, and support movements shall be included in the analysis.

3.11.2. Uniform Temperature

The design thermal movement associated with a uniform temperature change may be calculated using Procedure A or Procedure B below. Either Procedure A or Procedure B may be employed for concrete deck bridges having concrete or steel girders. Procedure A shall be employed for all other bridge types.

3.11.2.1. Design Thermal Movements

The design thermal movement range, Δ_T , shall depend upon the extreme bridge design temperatures determined as:

$$\Delta_T = \alpha L (T_{MaxDesign} - T_{MinDesign}) \quad (3.41)$$

where:

- L = expansion length (mm)
- α = coefficient of thermal expansion (mm/mm/°C) as specified in [Table 3.28](#).
- $T_{MaxDesign}$ = The maximum temperature of the structure zone
- $T_{MinDesign}$ = The minimum temperature of the structure zone

- C The maximum and minimum temperature in definition above is particular for concrete structures. For steel structures, the maximum temperature shall be increased by adding 3°C and the minimum temperature shall be decreased by deducting 5°C.

$$T_{MaxDesign(steel\ girder)} = T_{MaxDesign(concrete\ girder)} + 3^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$T_{MinDesign(steel\ girder)} = T_{MinDesign(concrete\ girder)} - 5^{\circ}\text{C}$$

Table 3.28: Coefficient of thermal expansion for different types of aggregates and concrete constituted from it.

Rock Type	Silice content (%)	Coefficient of thermal expansion ($10^{-6} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$)			
		Rock		Concrete	
		Value	Average	Value	Average
Chert	94	7.4 – 13.0	11.8	11.4 – 12.2	13.2
Quartzite	94	7.0 – 13.2	10.3	11.7 – 14.6	12.1
Sandstone	84	4.3 – 12.1	9.3	9.2 – 13.3	11.4
Marble	Negligible	2.2 – 16.0	8.3	4.1 – 17.4	10.7
Silice Limestone	45	3.6 – 9.7	8.3	8.1 – 11.0	10.7
Granite	66	1.8 – 11.9	6.8	8.1 – 10.3	9.6
Dolerite	50	4.5 – 8.5	6.8	-	9.6
Basalt	51	4.0 – 9.7	6.4	7.9 – 10.4	9.3
Limestone	Negligible	1.8 – 11.7	5.5	4.3 – 10.3	8.6

- C Coefficient of thermal expansion for steel is $11.7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$

3.11.3. Differential Shrinkage

Where appropriate, differential shrinkage strains between concretes of different age and composition, and between concrete and steel or wood, shall be determined in accordance with the provisions of [Section 5](#).

- C The Designer may specify timing and sequence of construction in order to minimize stresses due to differential shrinkage between components.

3.11.4. Creep

Creep strains for concrete shall be in accordance with the provisions of [Section 5](#). In determining force effects and deformations due to creep, dependence on time and changes in compressive stresses shall be taken into account.

- C Traditionally, only creep of concrete is considered.

3.11.5. Settlement

Force effects due to extreme values of differential settlements among substructures and within individual substructure units shall be considered. Estimates of settlement for individual substructure units may be made in accordance with the provisions in Article [8.7.2.3](#).

- C Force effects due to settlement may be reduced by considering creep. Analysis for the load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) and [Table 3.2](#) which include settlement should be repeated for settlement of each possible substructure unit settling individually, as well as combinations of substructure units settling, that could create critical force effects in the structure.

3.11.6. Secondary Forces from Post-Tensioning, *PS*

The application of post-tensioning forces on continuous structure produces reactions at the supports and internal forces that are collectively called secondary forces, which shall be considered where applicable.

- C In frame analysis software, secondary forces are generally obtained by subtracting the primary pre-stress forces from the total pre-stressing.

3.12. FRICTION FORCES

Forces due to friction (*FR*) shall be established on the basis of extreme values of the friction coefficient between the sliding surfaces. Where appropriate, the effect of moisture and possible degradation or contamination of sliding or rotating surfaces upon the friction coefficient shall be considered.

- C Low and high friction coefficients may be obtained from standard textbooks. If so warranted, the values may be determined by physical tests, especially if the surfaces are expected to be roughened in service.

3.13. VESSEL COLLISION

3.13.1. General

All bridge components in a navigable waterway crossing, located in design water depths not less than 600 mm, shall be designed for vessel impact.

- C Intentional collision between a vessel and a bridge may be considered when conducting security studies.

The minimum design impact load for substructure design shall be determined using an empty hopper barge drifting at a velocity equal to the yearly mean current for the waterway location. The design barge shall be a single 10.7 m × 60 m barge, with an empty mass of 180 Mg, unless approved otherwise by the Owner.

- C The deadweight tonnage (DWT) of a ship is the mass of the cargo, fuel, water, and stores. The DWT is only a portion of the total vessel mass, but it gives a general estimation of the ship size.

Where bridges span deep draft waterways and are not sufficiently high to preclude contact with the vessel, the minimum superstructure design impact may be taken to be the mast collision impact load specified in Article [3.13.10.3](#).

- C A minimum impact requirement from an empty barge drifting in all waterways and the mast impact of a drifting ship in deep draft waterways is specified because of the high frequency of occurrences of such collision accidents.

In navigable waterways where vessel collision is anticipated, structures shall be:

- Designed to resist vessel collision forces, and/or

- Adequately protected by fenders, dolphins, berms, islands, or other sacrifice-able devices.
- C The intent of the vessel collision provisions is to minimize the risk of catastrophic failure of bridges crossing navigable waterways due to collisions by aberrant vessels. The collision impact forces represent a probabilistically based, worst-case, head-on collision, with the vessel moving in a forward direction at a relatively high velocity. The requirements are applicable to steel-hulled merchant ships larger than 1000 DWT and to inland waterway barges.

In determining vessel collision loads, consideration shall be given to the relationship of the bridge to:

- Waterway geometry,
 - Size, type, loading condition, and frequency of vessels using the waterway,
 - Available water depth,
 - Vessel speed and direction, and
 - Structural response of the bridge to collision.
- C The channel layout and geometry can affect the navigation conditions, the largest vessel size that can use the waterway and the loading condition and the speed of vessels approaching a bridge. The presence of bends, intersections with other waterways, and the presence of other bridge crossings near the bridge increase the probability of accidents. The vessel transit paths in the waterway in relation to the navigation channel and the bridge piers can affect the risk of aberrant vessels hitting the piers and the exposed portions of the superstructure.
- C The water level and the loading conditions of vessels influence the location on the pier where vessel impact loads are applied, and the susceptibility of the superstructure to vessel hits. In addition, the water depth plays a critical role in the accessibility of vessels to piers and spans outside the navigation channel. In waterways with large water stage fluctuations, the water level used can have a significant effect on the structural requirements for the pier and/or pier protection design.
- C The maneuverability of ships is reduced by the low underkeel clearance typical in inland waterways. Shallow underkeel clearance can also affect the hydrodynamic forces during a collision increasing the collision energy, especially in the transverse direction. In addition, ships riding in ballast can be greatly affected by winds and currents. When under ballast, vessels are susceptible to wind gusts that could push them into the bridge.
- C It is very difficult to control and steer barge tows, especially near bends and in waterways with high stream velocities and cross currents. In maneuvering a bend, tows experience a sliding effect in a direction opposite to the direction of the turn, due to inertia forces which are often coupled with the current flow. Bridges located in a high velocity waterway and near a bend in the channel will probably be hit by barges at frequent intervals.

3.13.2. Owner's Responsibility

The Owner shall establish and/or approve the bridge importance classification, the vessel traffic density in the waterway, and the design velocity of vessels for the bridge.

The Owner shall specify or approve the degree of damage that the bridge components, including protective systems, are allowed to sustain.

- C Pier protection systems may also be warranted for bridges over navigable channels transversed only by pleasure boats or small commercial vessels. For such locations, dolphins and fender systems are commonly used to protect the pier and to minimize the hazards of passage under the bridge for the vessels using the waterway.

3.13.3. Importance Categories

For the purpose of Article [3.13](#), an importance classification, either “critical” or “regular,” shall be determined for all bridges located in navigable waterways.

Critical bridges shall continue to function after an impact, the probability of which is smaller than regular bridges.

- C This Article implies that a critical bridge may be damaged to an extent acceptable to the Owner, as specified in Article 3.13.2, but should not collapse and should remain serviceable, even though repairs are needed.

3.13.4. Design Vessel

A design vessel for each pier or span component shall be selected, such that the estimated annual frequency of collapse computed in accordance with Article 3.13.5, due to vessels not smaller than the design vessel, is less than the acceptance criterion for the component.

- C An analysis of the annual frequency of collapse is performed for each pier or span component exposed to collision. From this analysis, a design vessel and its associated collision loads can be determined for each pier or span component. The design vessel size and impact loads can vary greatly among the components of the same structure, depending upon the waterway geometry, available water depth, bridge geometry, and vessel traffic characteristics.

The design vessels shall be selected on the basis of the bridge importance classification and the vessel, bridge, and waterway characteristics.

- C The design vessel is selected using a probability-based analysis procedure in which the predicted annual frequency of bridge collapse, AF , is compared to an acceptance criterion. The analysis procedure is an iterative process in which a trial design vessel is selected for a bridge component and a resulting AF is computed using the characteristics of waterway, bridge, and vessel fleet. This AF is compared to the acceptance criterion, and revisions to the analysis variables are made as necessary to achieve compliance. The primary variables that the Designer can usually alter include the:
- Location of the bridge in the waterway,
 - Location and clearances of bridge pier and span components,
 - Resistance of piers and superstructures, and
 - Use of protective systems to either reduce or eliminate the collision forces.

3.13.5. Annual Frequency of Collapse

- C Various types of risk assessment models have been developed for vessel collision with bridges by researchers worldwide (IABSE 1983; Modjeski and Masters 1984; Prucz 1987; Larsen 1993). Practically all of these models are based on a form similar to Eq. (3.42), which is used to compute the annual frequency of bridge collapse, AF , associated with a particular bridge component.
- C The inverse of the annual frequency of collapse, $1/AF$, is equal to the return period in years. The summation of AF s computed over all of the vessel classification intervals for a specific component equals the annual frequency of collapse of the component.

The annual frequency of a bridge component collapse shall be taken as:

$$AF = (N)(PA)(PG)(PC) \quad (3.42)$$

where:

- AF = annual frequency of bridge component collapse due to vessel collision
- N = the annual number of vessels, classified by type, size, and loading condition, that utilize the channel
- PA = the probability of vessel aberrancy
- PG = the geometric probability of a collision between an aberrant vessel and a bridge pier or span
- PC = the probability of bridge collapse due to a collision with an aberrant vessel

AF shall be computed for each bridge component and vessel classification. The annual frequency of collapse for the total bridge shall be taken as the sum of all component AF s.

For critical bridges, the maximum annual frequency of collapse, AF , for the whole bridge, shall be taken as 0.0001.

For regular bridges, the maximum annual frequency of collapse, AF , for the total bridge, shall be taken as 0.001.

- C Risk can be defined as the potential realization of unwanted consequences of an event. Both a probability of occurrence of an event and the magnitude of its consequences are involved. Defining an acceptable level of risk is a value-oriented process and is by nature subjective (Rowe 1977).

For waterways with widths less than 6.0 times the length overall of the design vessel, LOA , the acceptance criterion for the annual frequency of collapse for each pier and superstructure component shall be determined by distributing the total bridge acceptance criterion, AF , over the number of pier and span components located in the waterway.

For wide waterways with widths greater than 6.0 times LOA , the acceptance criterion for the annual frequency of collapse for each pier and span component shall be determined by distributing the total bridge acceptance criterion over the number of pier and superstructure components located within the distance 3.0 times LOA on each side of the inbound and outbound vessel transit centerline paths.

- C Based on historical collision data, the primary area of concern for vessel impact is the central portion of the bridge near the navigation channel. The limits of this area extend to a distance of 3.0 times LOA on each side of the inbound and outbound vessel transit path centerlines. For most bridges, these vessel transit path centerlines coincide with the centerline of the navigable channel. Where two way vessel traffic exists under the bridge, the vessel transit path centerline of the inbound and outbound vessels should be taken as the centerline of each half of the channel, respectively.
- C The distribution of the AF acceptance criterion among the exposed pier and span components is based on the Designer's judgment. One method is to equally spread the acceptable risk among all the components. This method is usually not desirable because it fails to take into account the importance and higher cost of most main span components. The preferred method is to apportion the risk to each pier and span component on the basis of its percentage value to the replacement cost of the structure in the central analysis area.

3.13.5.1. Vessel Frequency Distribution

The number of vessels, N , based on size, type, and loading condition and available water depth shall be developed for each pier and span component to be evaluated. Depending on waterway conditions, a differentiation between the number and loading condition of vessels transiting inbound and outbound shall be considered.

- C In developing the design vessel distribution, the Designer should first establish the number and characteristics of the vessels using the navigable waterway or channel under the bridge. Because the water depth limits the size of vessel that could strike a bridge component, the navigable channel vessel frequency data can be modified, as required, on the basis of the water depth at each bridge component to determine the number and characteristics of the vessels that could strike the pier or span component being analyzed. Thus, each component could have a different value of N .
- C Vessel characteristics necessary to conduct the analysis include:
- Type, i.e., ship or barge;
 - Size based on the vessel's deadweight tonnage, DWT ;
 - Inbound and outbound operating characteristics;
 - Loading condition, i.e., loaded, partly loaded, ballasted, or empty;
 - Length overall, LOA ;
 - Width or beam, B_M ;

- Draft associated with each loading condition;
 - Bow depth, D_B ;
 - Bow shape;
 - Displacement;
 - Vertical clearances; and
 - Number of transits under the bridge each year.
- C Sources for the vessel data and typical ship and barge characteristics are included in the **AASHTO Guide Specifications for Vessel Collision Design of Highway Bridges (1991)**.
- C The Designer should use judgment in developing a distribution of the vessel frequency data based on discrete groupings or categories of vessel size by *DWT*. It is recommended that the *DWT* intervals used in developing the vessel distribution not exceed 20 000 *DWT* for vessels smaller than 100 000 *DWT*, and not exceeding 50 000 *DWT* for ships larger than 100 000 *DWT*.

3.13.5.2. Probability of Aberrancy

1. General

The probability of vessel aberrancy, PA , may be determined by the statistical or the approximate method.

- C The probability of aberrancy is mainly related to the navigation conditions at the bridge site. Vessel traffic regulations, vessel traffic management systems and aids to navigation can improve the navigation conditions and reduce the probability of aberrancy.
- C The probability of aberrancy, PA , sometimes referred to as the causation probability, is a measure of the risk that a vessel is in trouble as a result of pilot error, adverse environmental conditions, or mechanical failure.
- C An evaluation of accident statistics indicates that human error and adverse environmental conditions, not mechanical failures, are the primary reasons for accidents.
- C In the United States, an estimated 60 percent to 85 percent of all vessel accidents have been attributed to human error.

2. Statistical Method

The probability of aberrancy may be computed on the basis of a statistical analysis of historical data on vessel collisions, rammings, and groundings in the waterway and on the number of vessels transiting the waterway during the period of accident reporting.

- C The most accurate procedure for determining PA is to compute it using long-term vessel accident statistics in the waterway and data on the frequency of ship/barge traffic in the waterway during the same period of time (**Larsen 1983**). Data from ship simulation studies and radar analysis of vessel movements in the waterway have also been used to estimate PA . Based on historical data, it has been determined that the aberrancy rate for barges is usually two to three times that measured for ships in the same waterway.

3. Approximate Method

The probability of aberrancy may be taken as:

$$PA = (PR)(R_B)(R_C)(R_{XC})(R_D) \quad (3.43)$$

where:

- PA = probability of aberrancy
- BR = aberrancy base rate
- R_B = correction factor for bridge location
- R_C = correction factor for current acting parallel to vessel transit path
- R_{XC} = correction factor for cross-currents acting perpendicular to vessel transit path

R_D = correction factor for vessel traffic density

- C Because the determination of PA based on actual accident data in the waterway is often a difficult and time-consuming process, an alternative method for estimating PA was established during the development of the [AASHTO Guide Specification on Vessel Collision Design of Highway Bridges](#). The equations in this Article are empirical relationships based on historical accident data.
- C The predicted PA value using these equations and the values determined from accident statistics are generally in agreement, although exceptions do occur.
- C It should be noted that the procedure for computing PA using Eq. (3.43) should not be considered to be either rigorous or exhaustive. Several influences, such as wind, visibility conditions, navigation aids, pilotage, etc., were not directly included in the method because their effects were difficult to quantify. These influences have been indirectly included because the empirical equations were developed from accident data in which these factors had a part.

The base rate, BR , of aberrancy shall be taken as:

- For ships $BR = 0.6 \times 10^{-4}$
- For barges $BR = 1.2 \times 10^{-4}$

The correction factor for bridge location, R_B , based on the relative location of the bridge in either of three waterway regions, as shown in [Figure 3.47](#), shall be taken as:

- For straight regions:

$$R_B = 1.0 \quad (3.44)$$

- For transition regions:

$$R_B = \left(1 + \frac{\theta}{90^\circ} \right) \quad (3.45)$$

For turn/bend regions:

$$R_B = \left(1 + \frac{\theta}{45^\circ} \right) \quad (3.46)$$

where:

θ = angle of the turn or bend specified in [Figure 3.47](#) ($^\circ$)

The correction factor, R_C , for currents acting parallel to the vessel transit path in the waterway shall be taken as:

$$R_C = \left(1 + \frac{V_C}{19} \right) \quad (3.47)$$

where:

V_C = current velocity component parallel to the vessel transit path (km/hr.)

The correction factor, R_{XC} , for cross-currents acting perpendicular to the vessel transit path in the waterway shall be taken as:

$$R_{XC} = 1.0 + 0.54V_{XC} \quad (3.48)$$

where:

V_{XC} = current velocity component perpendicular to the vessel transit path (km/hr.)

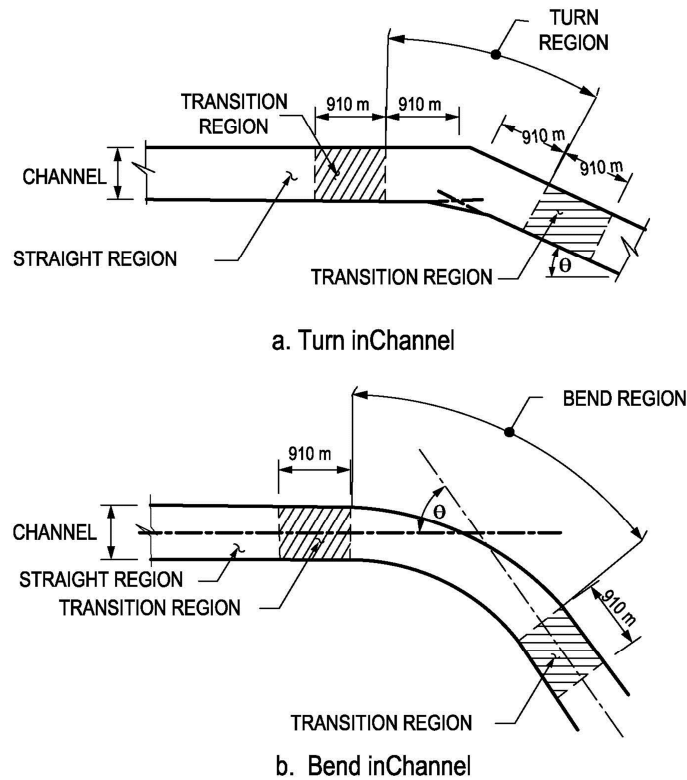


Figure 3.47: Waterway Regions for Bridge Location.

The correction factor for vessel traffic density, R_D , shall be selected on the basis of the ship/barge traffic density level in the waterway in the immediate vicinity of the bridge defined as:

- Low density—vessels rarely meet, pass, or overtake each other in the immediate vicinity of the bridge:

$$R_D = 1.0 \quad (3.49)$$

- Average density—vessels occasionally meet, pass, or overtake each other in the immediate vicinity of the bridge:

$$R_D = 1.3 \quad (3.50)$$

- High density—vessels routinely meet, pass, or overtake each other in the immediate vicinity of the bridge:

$$R_D = 1.6 \quad (3.51)$$

3.13.5.3. Geometric Probability

A normal distribution may be utilized to model the sailing path of an aberrant vessel near the bridge. The geometric probability, PG , shall be taken as the area under the normal distribution bounded by the pier width and the width of the vessel on each side of the pier, as specified in [Figure 3.48](#). The standard deviation, σ , of the normal distribution shall be assumed to be equal to the length overall, LOA , of the design vessel selected in accordance with [Article 3.13.4](#).

The location of the mean of the standard distribution shall be taken at the centerline of the vessel transit path. PG shall be determined based on the width, B_M , of each vessel classification category, or it may be determined for all classification intervals using the B_M of the design vessel selected in accordance with Article 3.13.4.

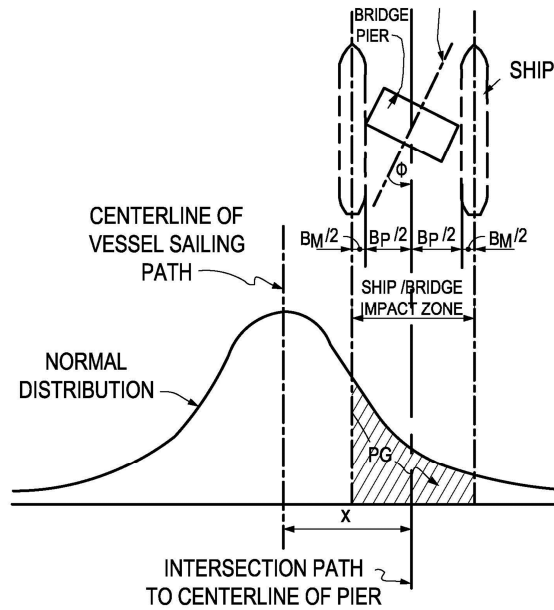


Figure 3.48: Geometric Probability of Pier Collision.

C For more information see Article 3.17.9. Appendix B3.

3.13.5.4. Probability of Collapse

C The probability that the bridge will collapse once it has been struck by an aberrant vessel, PC , is complex and is a function of the vessel size, type, configuration, speed, direction, and mass. It is also dependent on the nature of the collision and stiffness/strength-characteristic of the bridge pier and superstructure to resist the collision impact loads.

The probability of bridge collapse, PC , based on the ratio of the ultimate lateral resistance of the pier, H_P , and span, H_s , to the vessel impact force, P , shall be taken as:

- If $0.0 \leq H/P < 0.1$, then

$$PC = 0.1 + 9 \left(0.1 - \frac{H}{P} \right) \quad (3.52)$$

- If $0.1 \leq H/P < 1.0$, then

$$PC = 0.111 \left(1 - \frac{H}{P} \right) \quad (3.53)$$

- If $H/P \geq 1.0$, then

$$PC = 0.0 \quad (3.54)$$

where:

PC = probability of collapse

H = resistance of bridge component to a horizontal force expressed as pier resistance, H_P , or superstructure resistance, H_s (N)

P = vessel impact force, P_S , P_{BH} , P_{DH} , or P_{MT} , specified in Articles 3.13.8, 3.13.10.1, 3.13.10.2, and 3.13.10.3, respectively (N)

- C The methodology for estimating PC was developed by Cowiconsult (1987) from studies performed by Fujii and Shiobara (1978) using Japanese historical damage data on vessels colliding at sea. The damage to bridge piers is based on ship damage data because accurate damage data for collision with bridges is relatively scarce.

Figure 3.49 is a plot of the probability of collapse relationships. From this figure, the following results are evident:

- Where the pier or superstructure impact resistance exceeds the vessel collision impact force of the design vessel, the bridge collapse probability becomes 0.0.
- Where the pier or superstructure impact resistance is in the range 10 percent to 100 percent of the collision force of the design vessel, the bridge collapse probability varies linearly between 0.0 and 0.10.
- Where the pier or superstructure impact resistance is below 10 percent of the collision force, the bridge collapse probability varies linearly between 0.10 and 1.0.

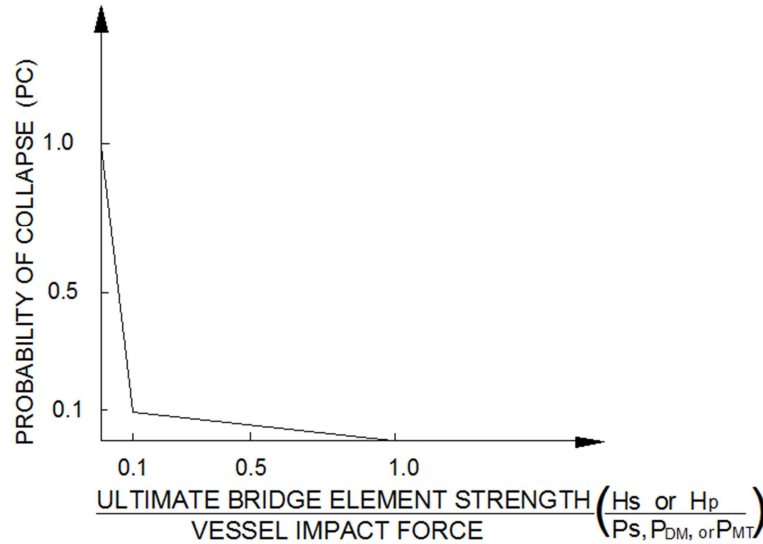


Figure 3.49: Probability of Collapse Distribution.

3.13.6. Design Collision Velocity

The design collision velocity may be determined as specified in Figure 3.50, for which:

- V = design impact velocity (m/sec.)
- V_T = typical vessel transit velocity in the channel under normal environmental conditions but not taken to be less than V_{MIN} (m/sec.)
- V_{MIN} = minimum design impact velocity taken as not less than the yearly mean current velocity for the bridge location (m/sec.)
- X = distance to face of pier from centerline of channel (mm)

X_C = distance to edge of channel (mm)

X_L = distance equal to 3.0 times the length overall of the design vessel (mm)

The length overall, LOA , for barge tows shall be taken as the total length of the tow plus the length of the tug/tow boat.

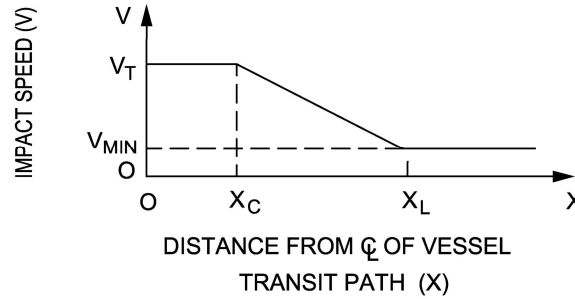


Figure 3.50: Design Collision Velocity Distribution.

C For more information see [3.17.10](#) in Appendix B3.

3.13.7. Vessel Collision Energy

The kinetic energy of a moving vessel to be absorbed during a noneccentric collision with a bridge pier shall be taken as:

$$KE = 500C_H M V^2 \quad (3.55)$$

where:

KE = vessel collision energy (J)

M = vessel displacement tonnage (Mg)

C_H = hydrodynamic mass coefficient

V = vessel impact velocity (m/sec.)

C Eq. [\(3.55\)](#) is the standard $mV^2/2$ relationship for computing kinetic energy with conversion of units and incorporation of a hydrodynamic mass coefficient, C_H , to account for the influence of the surrounding water upon the moving vessel.

C Recommendations for estimating C_H for vessels moving in a forward direction were based on studies by Saul and [Svensson \(1980\)](#) and data published by [PIANC \(1984\)](#). It should be noted that these hydrodynamic mass coefficients are smaller than those normally used for ship berthing computations, in which a relatively large mass of water moves with the vessel as it approaches a dock from a lateral, or broadside, direction.

The vessel mass, M , shall be based upon the loading condition of the vessel and shall include the empty mass of the vessel, plus consideration of the mass of cargo, DWT , for loaded vessels, or the mass of water ballast for vessels transiting in an empty or lightly loaded condition. The mass for barge tows shall be the sum of the mass of the tug/tow vessel and the combined mass of a row of barges in the length of the tow. The hydrodynamic mass coefficient, C_H , shall be taken as:

- If underkeel clearance exceeds $0.5 \times \text{draft}$:

$$C_H = 1.05 \quad (3.56)$$

- If underkeel clearance is less than $0.1 \times \text{draft}$:

$$C_H = 1.25 \quad (3.57)$$

Values of C_H may be interpolated from the range shown above for intermediate values of underkeel clearance. The underkeel clearance shall be taken as the distance between the bottom of the vessel and the bottom of the waterway.

3.13.8. Ship Collision Force on Pier

The head-on ship collision impact force on a pier shall be taken as:

$$P_S = 1.2 \times 10^5 V \sqrt{DWT} \quad (3.58)$$

where:

- P_S = equivalent static vessel impact force (N)
 DWT = deadweight tonnage of vessel (Mg)
 V = vessel impact velocity (m/sec.)

C For more information see Article [3.17.11](#) in Appendix B3.

3.13.9. Ship Bow Damage Length

The horizontal length of the ship's bow, crushed by impact with a rigid object, shall be taken as:

$$a_s = 1.54 \times 10^3 \left(\frac{KE}{P_S} \right) \quad (3.59)$$

where:

- a_s = bow damage length of ship (mm)
 KE = vessel collision energy (J)
 P_S = ship impact force as specified in Eq. [\(3.58\)](#) (N)

C The average bow damage length, a , is computed based on the impact force averaged against the work path, $P(a)$, such that:

$$a = \frac{KE}{P(a)} \quad (3.60)$$

C The 1.54 coefficient used to compute the design ship damage depth in Eq. [\(3.59\)](#) results from the multiplication of the following factors:

- 1.25 to account for the increase in average impact force over time versus damage length,
- 1.11 to account for the increase in average impact force to the 70 percent design fractile, and
- 1.11 to provide an increase in the damage length to provide a similar level of design safety as that used to compute P_S .

3.13.10. Ship Collision Force on Superstructure

3.13.10.1. Collision with Bow

C Limited data exists on the collision forces between ship bows and bridge superstructure components.

The bow collision impact force on a superstructure shall be taken as:

$$P_{BH} = (R_{BH})(P_S) \quad (3.61)$$

where:

- P_{BH} = ship bow impact force on an exposed superstructure (N)
- R_{BH} = ratio of exposed superstructure depth to the total bow depth
- P_S = ship impact force specified in Eq.(3.58) (N) For the purpose of this Article, exposure is the vertical overlap between the vessel and the bridge superstructure with the depth of the impact zone.

3.13.10.2. Collision with Deck House

The deck house collision impact force on a superstructure shall be taken as:

$$P_{DH} = (R_{DH})(P_S) \quad (3.62)$$

where:

- P_{DH} = ship deck house impact force (N)
- R_{DH} = reduction factor specified herein
- P_S = ship impact force as specified in Eq.(3.58) (N)

For ships exceeding 100 000 *DWT*, R_{DH} shall be taken as 0.10. For ships smaller than 100 000 *DWT*:

$$R_{DH} = 0.2 - 0.01 \left(\frac{DWT}{100\,000} \right) \quad (3.63)$$

- C According to the Great Belt Bridge investigation in Denmark (Cowiconsult. Inc. 1981) forces for deck house collision with a bridge superstructure:

- $P_{DH} = 5.3 \times 10^6$ N for the deck house collision of a 1000 *DWT* freighter ship, and
- $P_{DH} = 2.7 \times 10^7$ N for the deck house collision of a 100 000 *DWT* tanker ship.

- C Based on these values, the approximate empirical relationship of Eq.(3.62) was developed for selecting superstructure design impact values for deck house collision.

3.13.10.3. Collision with Mast

The mast collision impact force on a superstructure shall be taken as:

$$P_{MT} = 0.10P_{DH} \quad (3.64)$$

where:

- P_{MT} = ship mast impact force (N)
- P_{DH} = ship deck house impact force specified in Eq.(3.63) (N)

- C Eq.(3.62) was developed by estimating the impact forces based on bridge girder and superstructure damage from a limited number of mast impact accidents.

3.13.11. Barge Collision Force on Pier

For the purpose of Article 3.13, the standard hopper barge shall be taken as an inland river barge with:

width	=	10.7 m
length	=	60 m
depth	=	3.7 m
empty draft	=	0.52 m
loaded draft	=	2.7 m
mass	=	1540 Mg

The collision impact force on a pier for a standard hopper barge shall be taken as:

- If $a_B < 100$ mm then:

$$P_B = 6.0 \times 10^4 a_B \quad (3.65)$$

- If $a_B \geq 100$ mm then:

$$P_B = 6.0 \times 10^6 + 1600 a_B \quad (3.66)$$

where:

P_B = equivalent static barge impact force (N)

a_B = barge bow damage length specified in Eq. 3.67 (mm)

The impact force for design barges larger than the standard hopper barge shall be determined by increasing the standard hopper barge impact force by the ratio of the larger barge's width to the width of the standard hopper barge.

C For more information see 3.17.12, Appendix B3.

3.13.12. Barge Bow Damage Length

The barge bow horizontal damage length for a standard hopper barge shall be taken as:

$$a_B = 3100 \left(\sqrt{1 + 1.13 \times 10^{-7} KE} - 1 \right) \quad (3.67)$$

where:

a_B = barge bow damage length (mm)

KE = vessel collision energy (J)

C The relationship for barge horizontal damage length, a_B , was developed from the same research conducted on barge collisions by Meir-Domberg, as discussed in Article 3.13.11.

3.13.13. Damage at the Extreme Limit State

Inelastic behavior and redistribution of force effects is permitted in substructure and superstructure components, provided that sufficient ductility and redundancy of the remaining structure exists in the extreme event limit state to prevent catastrophic superstructure collapse.

As an alternative, pier protection may be provided for the bridge structure to eliminate or reduce the vessel collision loads applied to the bridge structure to acceptable levels.

- C Two basic protection options are available to the Bridge Designer. The first option involves designing the bridge to withstand the impact loads in either an elastic or inelastic manner. If the response to collision is inelastic, the design must incorporate redundancy or other means to prevent collapse of the superstructure.
- C The second option is to provide a protective system of fenders, pile-supported structures, dolphins, islands, etc., either to reduce the magnitude of the impact loads to less than the strength of the bridge pier or superstructure components or to independently protect those components.
- C The requirements for either of these two options are general in nature because the actual design procedures that could be used vary considerably. This is particularly true for inelastic design. Because little information is available on the behavior of the inelastic deformation of materials and structures during the type of dynamic impacts associated with vessel impact, assumptions based on experience and sound engineering practice should be substituted.

3.13.14. Application of Impact Force

3.13.14.1. Substructure Design

For substructure design, equivalent static forces, parallel and normal to the centerline of the navigable channel, shall be applied separately as follows:

- 100 percent of the design impact force in a direction parallel to the alignment of the centerline of the navigable channel, or
- 50 percent of the design impact force in the direction normal to the direction of the centerline of the channel.

All components of the substructure, exposed to physical contact by any portion of the design vessel's hull or bow, shall be designed to resist the applied loads. The bow overhang, rake, or flair distance of ships and barges shall be considered in determining the portions of the substructure exposed to contact by the vessel. Crushing of the vessel's bow causing contact with any setback portion of the substructure shall also be considered.

The impact force in both design cases, specified herein, shall be applied to a substructure in accordance with the following criteria:

- For overall stability, the design impact force is applied as a concentrated force on the substructure at the mean high water level of the waterway, as shown in [Figure 3.51](#), and
- For local collision forces, the design impact force is applied as a vertical line load equally distributed along the ship's bow depth, as shown in [Figure 3.52](#). The ship's bow is considered to be raked forward in determining the potential contact area of the impact force on the substructure. For barge impact, the local collision force is taken as a vertical line load equally distributed on the depth of the head block, as shown in [Figure 3.53](#).

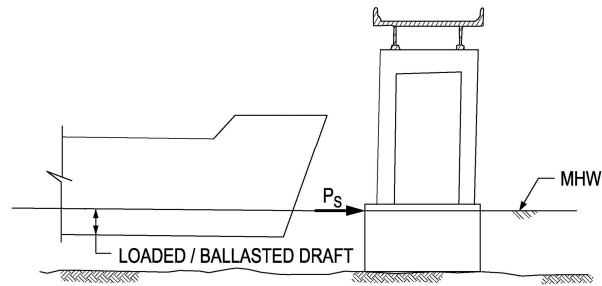


Figure 3.51: Ship Impact Concentrated Force on Pier.

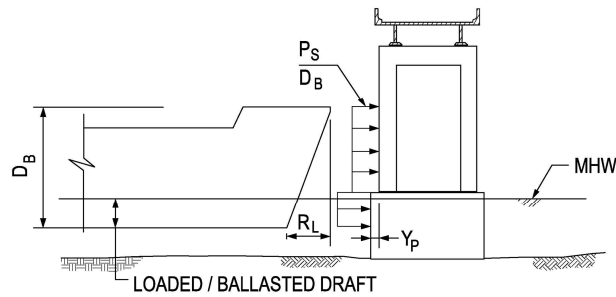


Figure 3.52: Ship Impact Line Load on Pier.

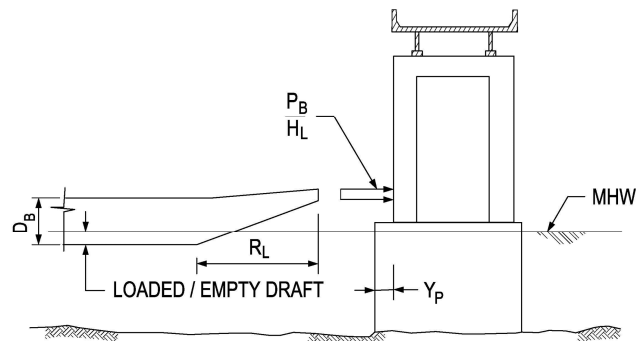


Figure 3.53: Barge Impact Force on Pier.

- C Two cases should be evaluated in designing the bridge substructure for vessel impact loadings:
- The overall stability of the substructure and foundation, assuming that the vessel impact acts as a concentrated force at the waterline, and
 - The ability of each component of the substructure to withstand any local collision force resulting from a vessel impact.
- C The need to apply local collision forces on substructures exposed to contact by overhanging portions of a ship or barge's bow is well documented by accident case histories. Ship and barge bow rake lengths are often large enough that they can even extend over protective fender systems and contact vulnerable bridge components, as shown in [Figure 3.54](#) and [Figure 3.55](#). Bow shapes and dimensions vary widely, and the Designer may need to perform special studies to establish vessel bow geometry for a particular waterway location. Typical bow geometry data is provided in [AASHTO \(1991\)](#).

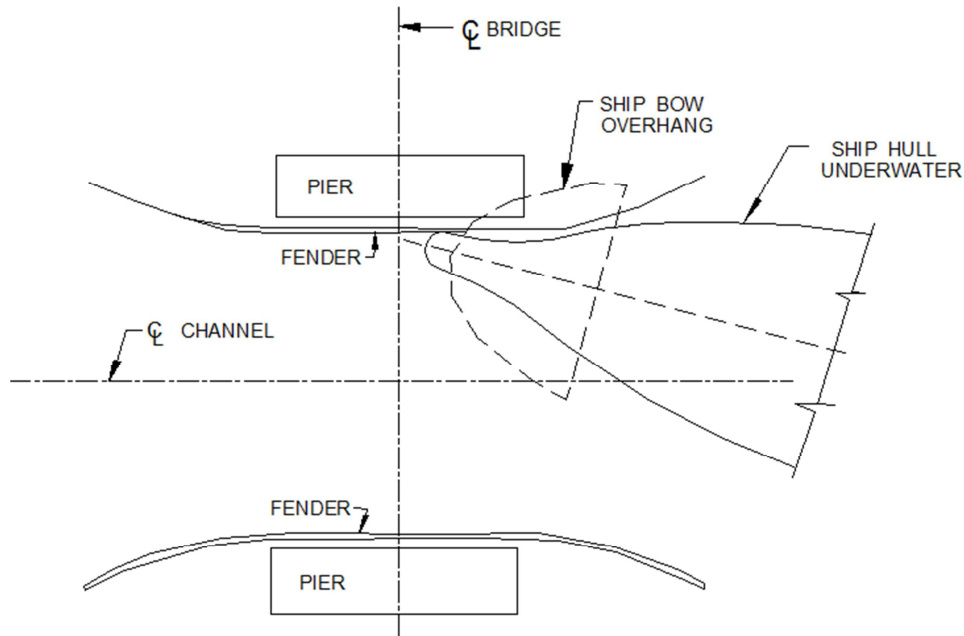


Figure 3.54: Plan of Ship Bow Overhang Impacting Pier.

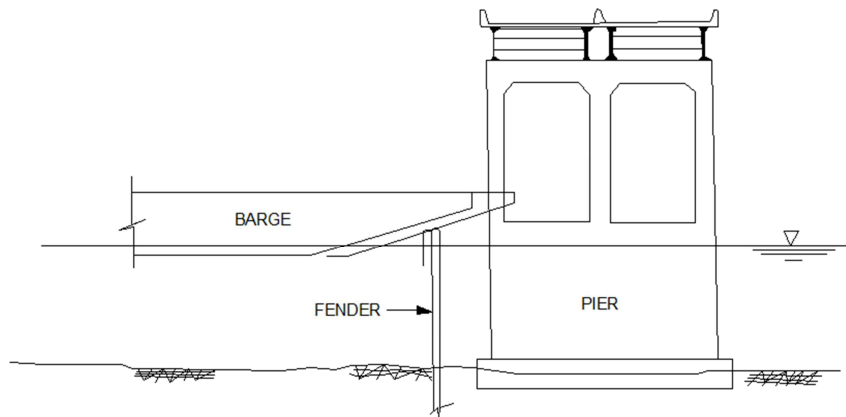


Figure 3.55: Elevation of Barge Bow Impacting Pier.

3.13.14.2. Superstructure Design

For superstructure design, the design impact force shall be applied as an equivalent static force transverse to the superstructure component in a direction parallel to the alignment of the centerline of the navigable channel.

- C The ability of various portions of a ship or barge to impact a superstructure component depends on the available vertical clearance under the structure, the water depth, vessel-type and, characteristics, and the loading condition of the vessel.

3.13.15. Protection of Substructures

Protection may be provided to reduce or to eliminate the exposure of bridge substructures to vessel collision by physical protection systems, including fenders, pile cluster, pile-supported structures, dolphins, islands, and combinations thereof.

Severe damage and/or collapse of the protection system may be permitted, provided that the protection system stops the vessel prior to contact with the pier or redirects the vessel away from the pier.

- C The development of bridge protection alternatives for vessel collisions generally follows three approaches:
- Reducing the annual frequency of collision events, for example, by improving navigation aids near a bridge;
 - Reducing the probability of collapse, for example, by imposing vessel speed restrictions in the waterway; or
 - Reducing the disruption costs of a collision, for example, by physical protection and motorist warning systems.
- C Because modifications to navigation aids in the waterway and vessel operating conditions are normally beyond the Bridge Designer's ability to implement, the primary area of bridge protection to be considered by the Designer are physical protection and motorist warning systems.
- C The current practice in the design of protective structures is almost invariably based on energy considerations. It is assumed that the loss of kinetic energy of the vessel is transformed into an equal amount of energy absorbed by the protective structure. The kinetic impact energy is dissipated by the work done by flexure, shear, torsion, and displacement of the components of the protective system.
- C Design of a protective system is usually an iterative process in which a trial configuration of a protective system is initially developed. For the trial, a force versus deflection diagram is developed via analysis or physical modeling and testing. The area under the diagram is the energy capacity of the protective system. The forces and energy capacity of the protective system is then compared with the design vessel impact force and energy to see if the vessel loads have been safely resisted.

3.13.16. Security Considerations

The owner of the bridge shall establish the size and velocity of the vessel to be used in bridge security analysis.

The vessel impact force shall be determined in accordance with Articles [3.13.8](#), [3.13.10.1](#), [3.13.10.2](#), or [3.13.10.3](#), as applicable. The probability of bridge collapse due to intentional collision with the design vessel at the design speed shall be taken equal to PC , which shall be determined using the provisions of Article [3.13.5.4](#). The design vessel and velocity are site-specific variables that should be selected by the owner as part of a security assessment.

- C As the intent of intentionally ramming a vessel into a bridge is to cause the bridge to collapse, the velocity of the vessel at the moment of collision is expected to be higher than the normal travel speed. In addition to accounting for the effects of impact, consideration should also be given to the potential for vessel-delivered explosives and subsequent fire. The physical limitations on the velocity and size of the vessel should be taken into account when determining the design velocity for intentional collision as well as the likely maximum explosive size that can be delivered. For example, the velocity of a barge tow is limited by the power of the tug boats and by the geometry of the waterway in the approach to the bridge. Similarly, the factors limiting the size of the vessel should be considered when determining the design vessel.
- C In case of accidental collision, determining the annual probability of collapse using Eq. [\(3.42\)](#) involves the annual number of vessels, N , the probability of vessel aberrancy, PA , and the geometric probability of a collision, PG . In the case of intentional collision, the value of each of the three variables may be taken as 1.0. Therefore, the probability of collapse in case of intentional collision is taken equal to PC .

3.14. BLAST LOADING

3.14.1. Introduction

Where it has been determined that a bridge or bridge component should be designed for intentional or unintentional blast force, the following should be considered:

- Size of explosive charge,

- Shape of explosive charge,
 - Type of explosive,
 - Stand-off distance,
 - Location of the charge,
 - Possible modes of delivery and associated capacities (e.g., maximum charge weight will depend upon vehicle type can include cars, trucks, ships, etc.) and
 - Fragmentation associated with vehicle-delivered explosives.
- C The size, shape, location, and type of an explosive charge determine the intensity of the blast force produced by an explosion. For comparison purposes, all explosive charges are typically converted to their equivalent TNT charge weights.
- C Stand-off refers to the distance between the center of an explosive charge and a target. Due to the dispersion of blast waves in the atmosphere, increasing stand-off causes the peak pressure on a target to drop as a cubic function of the distance (i.e., for a given quantity of explosives, doubling the stand-off distance causes the peak pressure to drop by a factor of eight). The location of the charge determines the amplifying effects of the blast wave reflecting from the ground surface or from the surfaces of surrounding structural elements. The location of the charge also determines the severity of damage caused by fragments from the components closest to the blast traveling away from the blast center.
- C Information on the analysis of blast loads and their effects on structures may be found in J. M. Biggs (1964) W. E. Baker, et al. (1983), Department of the Army (1990), P. S. Bulson (1997), and Department of the Army (1986).

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3.16. APPENDIX A3: OVERSTRENGTH RESISTANCE

3.16.1. General

Article [3.9.9.4.3.a](#) defines the forces resulting from plastic hinging, i.e., a column reaching its ultimate moment capacity, in the columns and presents two procedures. One is for a single column hinging about its two principal axes; this is also applicable for piers and bents acting as single columns. The other procedure is for a multiple column bent in the plane of the bent. The forces are based on the potential over strength resistance of the Materials, and to be valid the design detail requirements of this section must be used so that plastic hinging of the columns can occur. The over strength resistance results from actual properties being greater than the minimum specified values and is implemented by specifying resistance factors greater than unity. This fact must be accounted for when forces generated by yielding of the column are used as design forces. Generally, over strength resistance depends on the following factors:

- The actual size of the column and the actual amount of reinforcing steel
- The effect of an increased steel strength over the specified f_y and for strain hardening effects.
- The effect of an increased concrete strength over the specified f'_c and confinement provided by the transverse steel. Also, with time, concrete will gradually increase in strength.
- The effect of an actual concrete ultimate compressive strain above 0.003.

3.16.2. Column Size and Reinforcement Configuration

The design engineer should select the minimum column section size and steel reinforcement ratio when satisfying structural design requirements. As these parameters increase, the over strength resistance increases. This may lead to an increase in the foundation size and cost. A size and reinforcement ratio which forces the design below the nose of the interaction curve is preferable, especially in high seismic areas. However, the selection of size and reinforcement must also satisfy architectural and perhaps other requirements, which may govern the design.

3.16.3. Increase in Reinforcement Strength

Almost all reinforcing bars will have a yield strength larger than the minimum specified value which may be up to 30 percent higher, with an average increase of 12 percent. Combining this increase with the effect of strain hardening, it is realistic to assume increased yield strength of $1.25f_y$, when computing the column over strength.

3.16.4. Increase In Concrete Strength

Concrete strength is defined as the specified 28-day compression strength; this is a low estimate of the strength expected in the field. Typically, conservative concrete batch designs result in actual 28-day strengths of about 20 to 25 percent higher than specified. Concrete will also continue to gain strength with age. Tests on cores taken from older California bridges built in the 1950s and 1960s have consistently yielded compression strength in excess of $1.5f'_c$.

Concrete compression strength is further enhanced by the possible confinement provided by the transverse reinforcement.

Rapid loading due to seismic forces could also result in significant increase in strength, i.e., strain rate effect. In view of all the above, the actual concrete strength when a seismic event occurs is likely to significantly exceed the specified 28-day strength. Therefore, an increased concrete strength of 1.5 f'_c could be assumed in the calculation of the column over strength resistance.

3.16.5. Ultimate Compressive Strain (ϵ_c)

Although tests on unconfined concrete show 0.003 to be a reasonable strain at first crushing, tests on confined column sections show a marked increase in this value. The use of such a low extreme fiber strain is a very conservative estimate of strains at which crushing and spalling first develop in most columns, and considerably less than the expected strain at maximum response to the design seismic event. Research has supported strains on the order of 0.01 and higher as the likely magnitude of ultimate compressive strain. Therefore, designers could assume a value of ultimate strain equal to 0.01 as a realistic value.

For calculation purposes, the thickness of clear concrete cover used to compute the section over strength shall not be taken to be greater than 50 mm. This reduced section shall be adequate for all applied loads associated with the plastic hinge.

3.16.6. Over Strength Capacity

The derivation of the column over strength capacity is depicted in [Figure 3.56](#). The effect of higher material properties than specified is illustrated by comparing the actual over strength curve, computed with realistic f'_c/f_y and ϵ_c values, to the nominal strength interaction curve, $P_n M_n$. It is generally satisfactory to approximate the over strength capacity curve by multiplying the nominal moment strength by the 1.3 factor for axial loads below the nose of the interaction curve, i.e., $P_n 1.3M_n$ curve. However, as shown, this curve may be in considerable error for axial loads above the nose of the interaction curve. Therefore, it is recommended that the approximate over strength curve be obtained by multiplying both P_n and M_n by $\phi = 1.3$, i.e., $1.3 P_n$ and $1.3 M_n$. This curve follows the general shape of the actual curve very closely at all levels of axial loads.

In the light of the above discussion, it is recommended that:

- For all bridges with axial loads below P_b , the over strength moment capacity shall be assumed to be 1.3 times the nominal moment capacity.
- For bridges in Category C and D with importance classification of "other", and for all bridges in Category B for which plastic hinging has been invoked, the over strength curve for axial loads greater than P_b shall be approximated by multiplying both P_n and M_n by $\phi = 1.3$.
- For bridges in Category C and D with importance classification of "essential" or "critical", the over strength curve for axial loads greater than P_b shall be computed using realistic values for f'_c/f_y and s , as recommended in [Table 3.29](#) or from values based on actual test results. The over strength, thus calculated, should not be less than the value estimated by the approximate curve based on $1.3 P_n 1.3 M_n$.

Table 3.29: Recommended Increased Values of Materials Properties.

Increased f_y (minimum)	$1.25f_y$
Increased f'_c	$1.5f'_c$
Increased ϵ_c	0.01

3.16.7. Shear Failure

The shear mode of failure in a column or pile bent will probably result in a partial or total collapse of the bridge; therefore, the design shear force must be calculated conservatively. In calculating the column or pile bent shear force, consideration must be given to the potential locations of plastic hinges. For flared columns, these may occur at the top and bottom of the flare. For multiple column bents with a partial-height wall, the plastic hinges will probably occur at the top of the wall unless the wall is structurally separated from the column. For columns with deeply embedded foundations, the plastic hinge may occur above the foundation mat or pile cap. For pile bents, the plastic hinge may occur above the calculated point of fixity. Because of the consequences of a shear failure, it is recommended that conservatism be used in locating possible plastic hinges such that the smallest potential column length be used with the plastic moments to calculate the largest potential shear force for design.

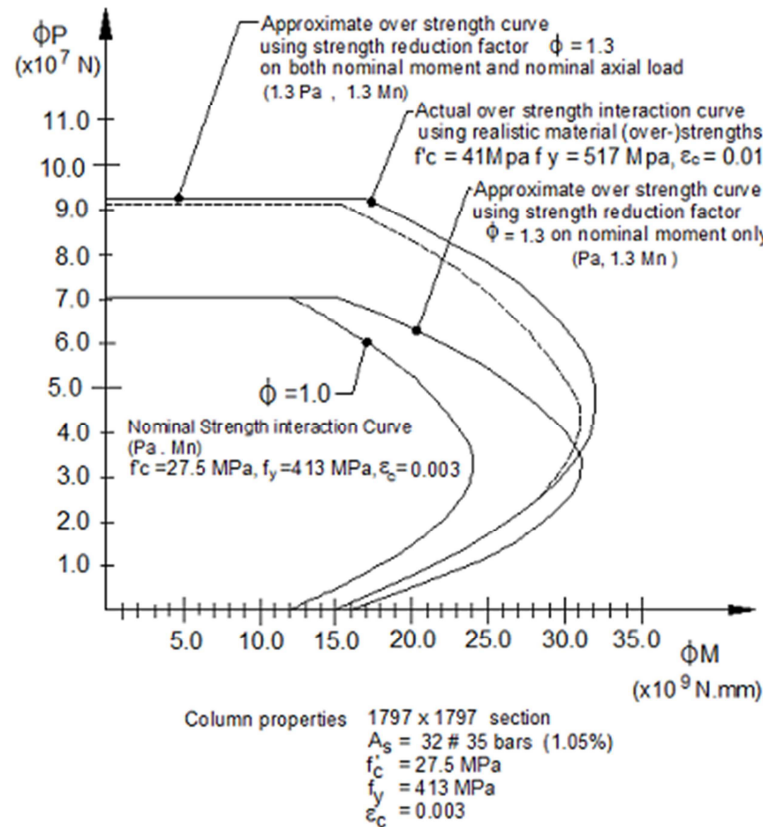


Figure 3.56: Development of Approximate over Strength Interaction Curves from Nominal Strength Curves after Gajer and Wagh (1994).

3.17. APPENDIX B3: COMMENTARIES ON ARTICLES

3.17.1. Commentary on Article 3.4.1 "Load Factors and Load Combinations"

The background for the load factors specified herein, and the resistance factors specified in other sections of these Specifications is developed in Nowak (1992).

The permit vehicle should not be assumed to be the only vehicle on the bridge unless so assured by traffic control. See Article 4.6.2.2.5 regarding other traffic on the bridge simultaneously.

Vehicles become unstable at higher wind velocities. Therefore, high winds prevent the presence of significant live load on the bridge.

The standard calibration process for the strength limit state consists of trying out various combinations of load and resistance factors on a number of bridges and their components. Combinations that yield a safety index close to the target value of $\beta = 3.5$ are retained for potential application. From these are selected constant load factors γ and corresponding resistance factors ϕ for each type of structural component reflecting its use.

This calibration process had been carried out for a large number of bridges with spans not exceeding 60 m. These calculations were for completed bridges. For the primary components of large bridges, the ratio of dead and live load force effects is rather high, and could result in a set of resistance factors different from those found acceptable for small- and medium-span bridges. It is believed to be more practical to investigate one additional load case than to require the use of two sets of resistance factors with the load factors provided in Strength Load Combination I, depending on other permanent loads present. Spot checks had been made on a few bridges with up to 183 m spans, and it appears that Strength Load Combination IV will govern where the dead load to live load force effect ratio exceeds about 7.0. This load combination can control during investigation of construction stages.

Although this limit state includes water loads, WA , the effects due to WA are considerably less significant than the effects on the structure stability due to degradation. Therefore, unless specific site conditions dictate otherwise, local pier scour and contraction scour depths should not be included in the design. However, the effects due to degradation of the channel should be considered. Live load coincident with an earthquake is discussed elsewhere in this Article.

The recurrence interval of extreme events is thought to exceed the design life.

The joint probability of these events is extremely low, and, therefore, the events are specified to be applied separately. Under these extreme conditions, the structure is expected to undergo considerable inelastic deformation by which locked-in force effects due to TU , TG , CR , SH , and SE are expected to be relieved.

The 0.50 live load factor signifies a low probability of the concurrence of the maximum vehicular live load (other than CT) and the extreme events.

Compression in prestressed concrete components and tension in prestressed bent caps are investigated using this load combination. Service III is used to investigate tensile stresses in prestressed concrete components.

This load combination corresponds to the overload provision for steel structures in past editions of the AASHTO Specifications, and it is applicable only to steel

structures. From the point of view of load level, this combination is approximately halfway between that used for Service I and Strength I Limit States.

The live load specified in these Specifications reflects, among other things, current exclusion weight limits mandated by various jurisdictions. Vehicles permitted under these limits have been in service for many years prior to 1993. For longitudinal loading, there is no nationwide physical evidence that these vehicles have caused detrimental cracking in existing prestressed concrete components. The statistical significance of the 0.80 factor on live load is that the event is expected to occur about once a year for bridges with two traffic lanes, less often for bridges with more than two traffic lanes, and about once a day for bridges with a single traffic lane. Service I should be used for checking tension related to transverse analysis of concrete segmental girders.

The principal tensile stress check is introduced in order to verify the adequacy of webs of segmental concrete girder bridges for longitudinal shear and torsion.

The 0.70 factor on wind represents a 135 km/hr. wind.

This should result in zero tension in prestressed concrete columns for ten-year mean reoccurrence winds. The prestressed concrete columns must still meet strength requirements as set forth in Load Combination Strength III in Article [3.4.1](#).

It is not recommended that thermal gradient be combined with high wind forces. Superstructure expansion forces are included.

The load factor, applied to a single design truck, reflects a load level found to be representative of the truck population with respect to a large number of return cycles of stresses and to their cumulative effects in steel elements, components, and connections.

This Article reinforces the traditional method of selecting load combinations to obtain realistic extreme effects and is intended to clarify the issue of the variability of permanent loads and their effects. As has always been the case, the Owner or Designer may determine that not all of the loads in a given load combination apply to the situation under investigation.

It is recognized herein that the actual magnitude of permanent loads may also be less than the nominal value.

This becomes important where the permanent load reduces the effects of transient loads.

It has been observed that permanent loads are more likely to be greater than the nominal value than to be less than this value.

In the application of permanent loads, force effects for each of the specified six load types should be computed separately. It is unnecessary to assume that one type of load varies by span, length, or component within a bridge. For example, when investigating uplift at a bearing in a continuous beam, it would not be appropriate to use the maximum load factor for permanent loads in spans that produce a negative reaction and the minimum load factor in spans that produce a positive reaction. Consider the investigation of uplift. Uplift, which was treated as a separate load case in past editions of the **AASHTO Standard Specifications**, now becomes a strength load combination.

Where a permanent load produces uplift, that load would be multiplied by the maximum load factor, regardless of the span in which it is located. If another permanent load reduces the uplift, it would be multiplied by the minimum load factor, regardless of the span in which it is located. For example, at Strength I Limit State where the permanent load reaction is positive and live load can cause a negative reaction, the load combination would be $0.9DC + 0.65DW + 1.75(LL + IM)$. If both

reactions were negative, the load combination would be $1.25DC + 150 DW + 1.75(LL + IM)$.

For each force effect, both extreme combinations may need to be investigated by applying either the high or the low load factor as appropriate. The algebraic sums of these products are the total force effects for which the bridge and its components should be designed.

PS , CR , SH , TU , and TG are superimposed deformations as defined in Article 3.11. Load factors for TU , and TG are as shown in Table 3.1. Load factors for PS , CR , and SH are as shown in Table 3.3. For prestressed members in typical bridge types, secondary prestressing, creep and shrinkage are generally designed for in the service limit state. In concrete segmental structures, CR and SH are factored by γ_p for DC because analysis for time-dependent effects in segmental bridges is nonlinear.

Abutments, piers, columns, and bent caps are to be considered as substructure components.

The calculation of displacements for TU utilizes a factor greater than 1.0 to avoid undersizing joints, expansion devices, and bearings.

Applying these criteria for the evaluation of the sliding resistance of walls:

The vertical earth load on the rear of a cantilevered retaining wall would be multiplied by γ_{pmin} (1.00) and the weight of the structure would be multiplied by γ_{pmin} (0.90) because these forces result in an increase in the contact stress (and shear strength) at the base of the wall and foundation.

The horizontal earth load on a cantilevered retaining wall would be multiplied by γ_{pmax} (1.50) for an active earth pressure distribution because the force results in a more critical sliding force at the base of the wall.

Similarly, the values of γ_{pmax} for structure weight (1.25), vertical earth load (1.35) and horizontal active earth pressure (1.50) would represent the critical load combination for an evaluation of foundation bearing resistance.

Water load and friction are included in all strength load combinations at their respective nominal values.

For creep and shrinkage, the specified nominal values should be used. For friction, settlement, and water loads, both minimum and maximum values need to be investigated to produce extreme load combinations.

The load factor for temperature gradient should be determined on the basis of the:

- Type of structure, and
- Limit state being investigated.

Open girder construction and multiple steel box girders have traditionally, but perhaps not necessarily correctly, been designed without consideration of temperature gradient, i.e., $\gamma_{TG} = 0.0$.

The most common applications of pre-stressed concrete in steel girder bridges are transverse post-tensioning of the deck and integral pier caps in which the tendons penetrate the girder webs. When a composite deck is pre-stressed longitudinally, the shear connectors transfer force to the steel. The effect of shrinkage and long-term creep around the shear connectors should be evaluated to ensure that the composite girder is able to recognize the pre-stressing over the life of the bridge. The contribution of long-term deformations in closure pours between precast deck panels which have been aged to reduce shrinkage and creep may need evaluation.

The Poisson effect recognizes the bulging of concrete when subjected to prestressing. When used in pier caps, post-tensioning causes a transverse Poisson tensile stress resulting in a longitudinal stress in the steel girders.

Past editions of the Standard Specifications used $\gamma_{EQ} = 0.0$. This issue is not resolved. The possibility of partial live load, i.e., $\gamma_{EQ} < 1.0$, with earthquakes should be considered. **Application of Turkstra's rule** for combining uncorrelated loads indicates that $\gamma_{EQ} = 0.50$ is reasonable for a wide range of values of average daily truck traffic (ADTT).

A load factor for passive lateral earth pressure is not given in [Table 3.2](#) because, strictly speaking, passive lateral earth pressure is a resistance and not a load. For discussion of the selection of a passive lateral earth pressure resistance factor see Article [8.5.5.2.2](#).

3.17.2. Commentary on Article [3.6.1.1.2](#) " Multiple Presence of Live Load"

The multiple presence factors have been included in the approximate equations for distribution factors in Articles [4.6.2.2](#) and [4.6.2.3](#), both for single and multiple lanes loaded. The equations are based on evaluation of several combinations of loaded lanes with their appropriate multiple presence factors and are intended to account for the worst case scenario. Where use of the lever rule is specified in Articles [4.6.2.2](#) and [4.6.2.3](#), the Engineer must determine the number and location of vehicles and lanes, and, therefore, must include the multiple presence. Stated another way, if a sketch is required to determine load distribution, the Engineer is responsible for including multiple presence factors and selecting the worst design case. The factor 1.20 from [Table 3.5](#) has already been included in the approximate equations and should be removed for the purpose of fatigue investigations.

The entry greater than 1.0 in [Table 3.5](#) results from statistical calibration of these Specifications on the basis of pairs of vehicles instead of a single vehicle. Therefore, when a single vehicle is on the bridge, it can be heavier than each one of a pair of vehicles and still have the same probability of occurrence.

The consideration of pedestrian loads counting as a "loaded lane" for the purpose of determining a multiple presence factor (m) is based on the assumption that simultaneous occupancy by a dense loading of people combined with a 75-year design live load is remote. For the purpose of this provision, it has been assumed that if a bridge is used as a viewing stand for eight hours each year for a total time of about one month, the appropriate live load to combine with it would have a one-month recurrence interval. This is reasonably approximated by use of the multiple presence factors, even though they are originally developed for vehicular live load.

Thus, if a component supported a sidewalk and one lane, it would be investigated for the vehicular live load alone with $m = 1.20$, and for the pedestrian loads combined with the vehicular live load with $m = 1.0$. If a component supported a sidewalk and two lanes of vehicular live load, it would be investigated for:

- One lane of vehicular live load, $m = 1.20$;
- The greater of the more significant lanes of vehicular live load and the pedestrian loads or two lanes of vehicular live load, $m = 1.0$, applied to the governing case; and
- Two lanes of vehicular live load and the pedestrian loads, $m = 0.85$.

The multiple presence factor of 1.20 for a single lane does not apply to the pedestrian loads. Therefore, the case of the pedestrian loads without the vehicular live load is a subset of the second bulleted item.

The multiple presence factors in [Table 3.5](#) were developed on the basis of an ADTT of 5000 trucks in one direction. The force effect resulting from the appropriate number of lanes may be reduced for sites with lower ADTT as follows:

- If $100 \leq \text{ADTT} \leq 1000$, 95 percent of the specified force effect may be used; and
- If $\text{ADTT} < 100$, 90 percent of the specified force effect may be used.

This adjustment is based on the reduced probability of attaining the design event during a 75-year design life with reduced truck volume.

3.17.3. Commentary on Article [3.6.2.1](#) "Dynamic Load Allowance: *IM*, General"

The dynamic load allowance (*IM*) in [Table 3.8](#) is an increment to be applied to the static wheel load to account for wheel load impact from moving vehicles.

Dynamic effects due to moving vehicles may be attributed to two sources:

- Hammering effect is the dynamic response of the wheel assembly to riding surface discontinuities, such as deck joints, cracks, potholes, and delaminations, and
- Dynamic response of the bridge as a whole to passing vehicles, which may be due to long undulations in the roadway pavement, such as those caused by settlement of fill, or to resonant excitation as a result of similar frequencies of vibration between bridge and vehicle.

Field tests indicate that in the majority of highway bridges, the dynamic component of the response does not exceed 25 percent of the static response to vehicles. This is the basis for dynamic load allowance with the exception of deck joints. However, the specified live load combination of the design truck and lane load, represents a group of exclusion vehicles that are at least 4/3 of those caused by the design truck alone on short- and medium-span bridges.

The specified value of 33 percent in [Table 3.8](#) is the product of 4/3 and the basic 25 percent.

Generally speaking, the dynamic amplification of trucks follows the following general trends:

- As the weight of the vehicle goes up, the apparent amplification goes down.
- Multiple vehicles produce a lower dynamic amplification than a single vehicle.
- More axles result in a lower dynamic amplification.

For heavy permit vehicles which have many axles compared to the design truck, a reduction in the dynamic load allowance may be warranted. A study of dynamic effects presented in a report by the [Calibration Task Group \(Nowak 1992\)](#) contains details regarding the relationship between dynamic load allowance and vehicle configuration.

This Article recognizes the damping effect of soil when in contact with some buried structural components, such as footings. To qualify for relief from impact, the entire

component must be buried. For the purpose of this Article, a retaining type component is considered to be buried to the top of the fill.

3.17.4. Commentary on Article 3.7.3.1 "Stream Pressure, Longitudinal"

For the purpose of this Article, the longitudinal direction refers to the major axis of a substructure unit.

The theoretically correct expression for Eq. (3.7) is:

$$p = C_D \frac{\gamma V^2}{2} \times 10^{-6} \quad (\text{B3.1})$$

where:

γ = density (unit mass) of water (kg/m^3)

V = velocity of water (m/sec.)

The drag coefficient, C_D , and the lateral drag coefficient, C_L , given in Table 3.9 and Table 3.10, were adopted from the Ontario Highway Bridge Design Code (1991). The more favorable drag coefficients measured by some researchers for wedge-type pier nose angles of less than 90° are not given here because such pier noses are more prone to catching debris.

Floating logs, roots, and other debris may accumulate at piers and, by blocking parts of the waterway, increase stream pressure load on the pier. Such accumulation is a function of the availability of such debris and level of maintenance efforts by which it is removed. It may be accounted for by the judicious increase in both the exposed surface and the velocity of water.

The draft New Zealand Highway Bridge Design Specification contains the following provision, which may be used as guidance in the absence of site-specific criteria: Where a significant amount of driftwood is carried, water pressure shall also be allowed for on a driftwood raft lodged against the pier. The size of the raft is a matter of judgment, but as a guide, Dimension A in Figure 3.57 should be half the water depth, but not greater than 3 m. Dimension B should be half the sum of adjacent span lengths, but no greater than 14 m. Pressure shall be calculated using Eq. (3.7), with $C_D = 0.5$.

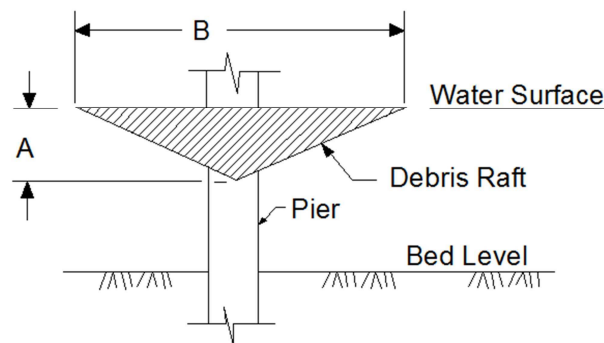


Figure 3.57: Debris Raft for Pier Design.

3.17.5. Commentary on Article 3.8.1.1 "Horizontal Wind Pressure, General"

Base design wind velocity varies significantly due to local conditions. For small and/or low structures, wind usually does not govern. For large and/or tall bridges, however, the local conditions should be investigated.

Pressures on windward and leeward sides are to be taken simultaneously in the assumed direction of wind.

Typically, a bridge structure should be examined separately under wind pressures from two or more different directions in order to ascertain those windward, leeward, and side pressures producing the most critical loads on the structure.

Eq.(3.9) is based on boundary layer theory combined with empirical observations and represents the most recent approach to defining wind speeds for various conditions as used in meteorology. In the past, an exponential equation was sometimes used to relate wind speed to heights above to 10 m. This formulation was based solely on empirical observations and had no theoretical basis.

$$V_{DZ} = CV \left(\frac{Z}{10000} \right)^a \quad (\text{B3.2})$$

The purpose of the term C and exponent a was to adjust the equation for various upstream surface conditions, similar to the use of Table 3.11. Further information can be found in Liu (1991) and Simiu (1973, 1976).

The following descriptions for the terms "open country," "suburban," and "city" in Table 3.11 are paraphrased from ASCE-7-93:

- Open Country-Open terrain with scattered obstructions having heights generally less than 10 000 mm. This category includes flat open country and grasslands.
- Suburban-Urban and suburban areas, wooded areas, or other terrain with numerous closely spaced obstructions having the size of single-family or larger dwellings. Use of this category shall be limited to those areas for which representative terrain prevails in the upwind direction at least 500 m.
- City-Large city centers with at least 50 percent of the buildings having a height in excess of 21 m. Use of this category shall be limited to those areas for which representative terrain prevails in the upwind direction at least 800 m. Possible channeling effects of increased velocity pressures due to the bridge or structure's location in the wake of adjacent structures shall be taken into account.

3.17.6. Commentary on Article 3.9.2.2 "Site Specific Procedure"

The intent in conducting a site-specific probabilistic ground motion study is to develop ground motions that are more accurate for the local seismic and site conditions than can be determined from national ground motion maps and the procedure of Article 3.9.2.1.

Accordingly such studies should be comprehensive and incorporate current scientific interpretations at a regional scale. Because there are typically scientifically credible alternatives for models and parameter values used to characterize seismic sources and ground-motion attenuation, it is important to incorporate these uncertainties formally in a site-specific probabilistic analysis. Examples of these

uncertainties include seismic source location, extent and geometry: maximum earthquake magnitude; earthquake recurrence rate: and ground-motion attenuation relationship.

Near-fault effects on horizontal response spectra include:

- Higher ground motions due to the proximity of the active fault; Directivity effects that increase ground motions for periods neater than 0.5 second if the fault rupture propagates toward the site;
- Directivity effects that increase ground motions for periods neater than 0.5 second if the fault rupture propagates toward the site; and
- Directionality effects that increase ground motions for periods greater than 0.5 second in the direction normal (perpendicular) to the strike of the fault.

If the active fault is included and appropriately modeled in the development of national ground motion maps, then the first effect above is already included in the national ground motion maps. The second and third effects are not included in the national maps.

These effects are significant only for periods longer than 0.5 second and normally would be evaluated only for essential or critical bridges having natural periods of vibration longer than 0.5 second. Further discussions of the second and third effects are contained in [Somerville \(1997\)](#) and [Somerville et al. \(1997\)](#).

The fault-normal component of near-field ($D < 9656$ m.) motion may contain relatively long-duration velocity pulses which can cause severe nonlinear structural response, predictable only through nonlinear time-history analyses.

For this case the recorded near-field horizontal components of motion need to be transformed into principal components before modifying them to be response-spectrum-compatible.

The ratio of vertical-to-horizontal ground motions increases for short-period motions in the near-fault environment.

3.17.7. Commentary on Article [3.10.5.3](#) "Active Lateral Earth Pressure Coefficient, k_a "

The values of k_a by Eq. [\(3.20\)](#) are based on the Coulomb earth pressure theories. The Coulomb theory is necessary for design of retaining walls for which the back face of the wall interferes with the development of the full sliding surfaces in the backfill soil assumed in Rankine theory ([Figure 3.58](#) and Article [3.10.5.8](#)). Either Coulomb or Rankine wedge theory may be used for long healed cantilever walls shown in [Figure 3.58a](#). In general, Coulomb wedge theory applies for gravity, semi-gravity and prefabricated modular walls with relatively steep back faces, and concrete cantilever walls with short heels.

For the cantilever wall in [Figure 3.58a](#), the earth pressure is applied to a plane extending vertically up from the heel of the wall base, and the weight of soil to the left of the vertical plane is considered as part of the wall weight.

The differences between the Coulomb theory currently specified, and the Rankine theory specified in the past is illustrated in [Figure 3.58](#). The Rankine theory is the basis of the equivalent fluid method of Article [3.10.5.5](#).

Silt and lean clay should not be used for backfill where free-draining granular materials are available. When using poorly draining silts or cohesive soils, extreme

caution is advised in the determination of lateral earth pressures assuming the most unfavorable conditions.

Consideration must be given for the development of pore water pressure within the soil mass in accordance with Article 3.10.3. Appropriate drainage provisions should be provided to prevent hydrostatic and seepage forces from developing behind the wall in accordance with the provisions in Section 9. In no case should highly plastic clay be used for backfill.

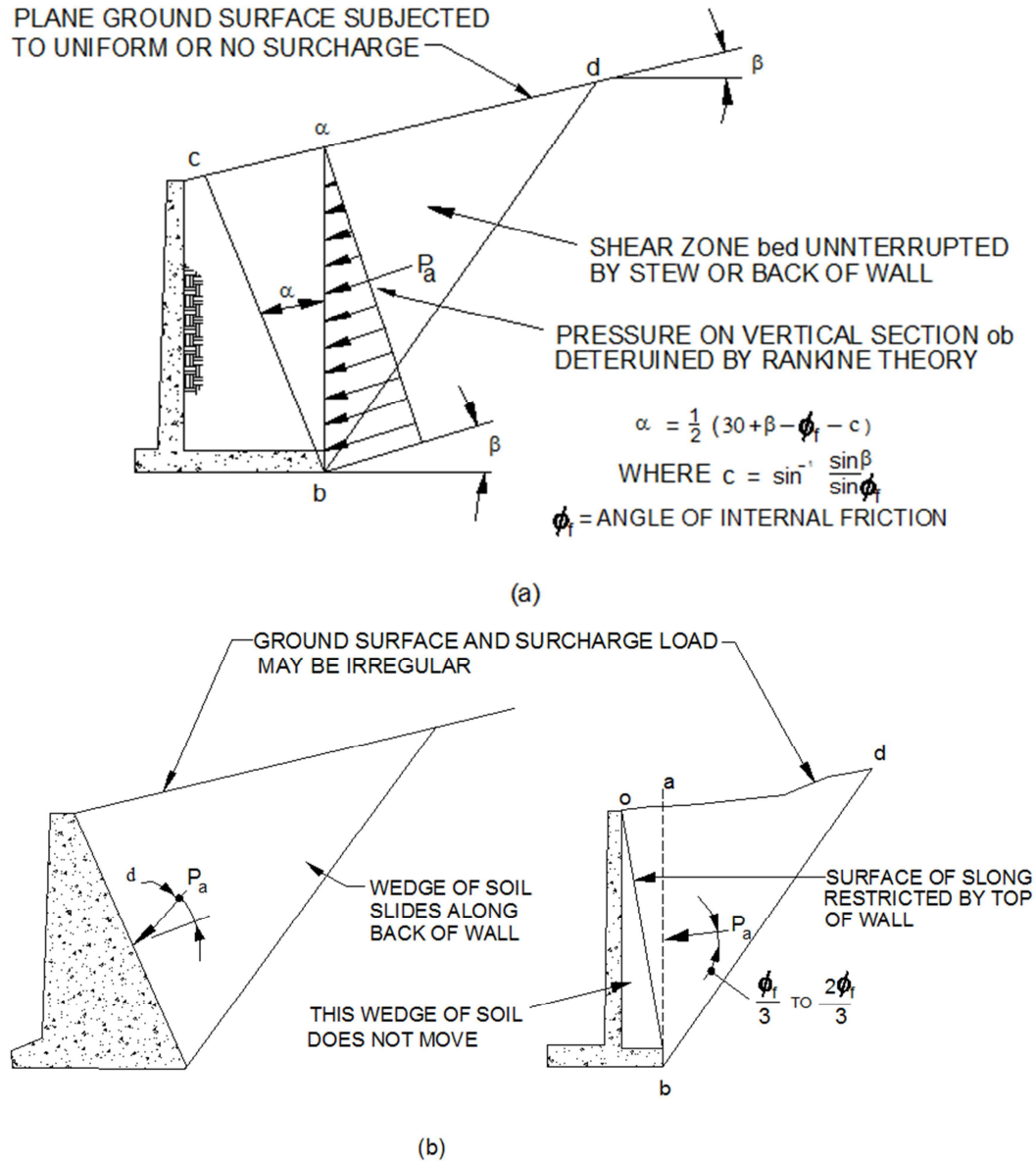


Figure 3.58: Application of (a) Rankine and (b) Coulomb Earth Pressure Theories in Retaining Wall Design.

3.17.8. Commentary on Article 3.10.8 "Downdrag"

Downdrag, also known as negative skin friction, can be caused by soil settlement due to loads applied after the piles were driven, such as an approach embankment as shown in Figure 3.59. Consolidation can also occur due to recent lowering of the groundwater level as shown in Figure 3.60.

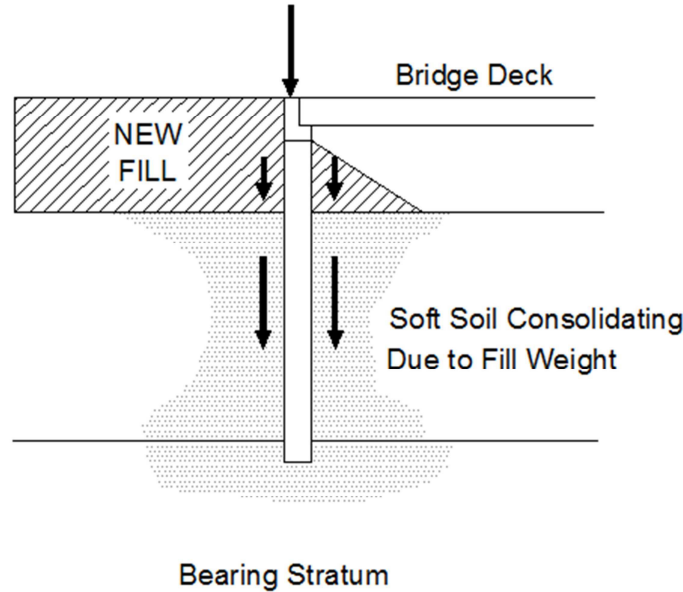


Figure 3.59: Common Downdrag Situation Due to Fill Weight (Hannigan, et al. 2005).

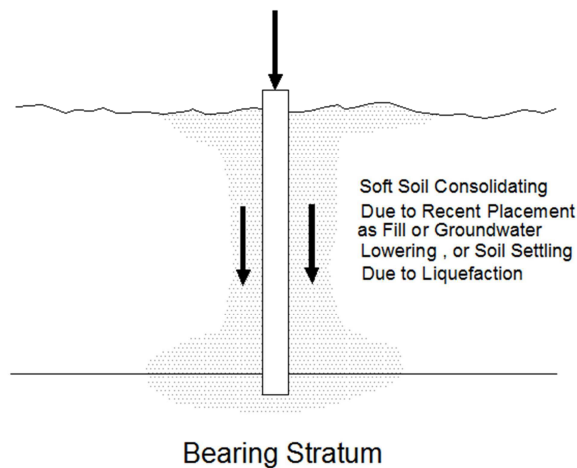


Figure 3.60: Common Downdrag Situation Due to Causes Other than Recent Fill Placement.

Regarding the load factors for downdrag in Table 3.2, use the maximum load factor when investigating maximum downward pile loads. The minimum load factor shall only be utilized when investigating possible uplift loads.

For some downdrag estimation methods, the magnitude of the load factor is dependent on the magnitude of the downdrag load relative to the dead load. The downdrag load factors were developed considering that downdrag loads equal to or

greater than the magnitude of the dead load become somewhat impractical for design. See [Allen \(2005\)](#) for additional background and guidance on the effect of downdrag load magnitude.

Methods for eliminating static downdrag potential include preloading. The procedure for designing a preload is presented in [Cheney and Chassie \(2000\)](#).

Post-liquefaction settlement can also cause downdrag.

Methods for mitigating liquefaction-induced downdrag are presented in [Kavazanjian, et al. \(1997\)](#).

The application of downdrag to pile or shaft groups can be complex. If the pile or shaft cap is near or below the fill material causing consolidation settlement of the underlying soft soil, the cap will prevent transfer of stresses adequate to produce settlement of the soil inside the pile or shaft group. The downdrag applied in this case is the frictional force around the exterior of the pile or shaft group and along the sides of the pile or shaft cap (if any). If the cap is located well up in the fill causing consolidation stresses or if the piles or shafts are used as individual columns to support the structure above ground, the downdrag on each individual pile or shaft will control the magnitude of the load. If group effects are likely, the downdrag calculated using the group perimeter shear force should be determined in addition to the sum of the downdrag forces for each individual pile or shaft. The greater of the two calculations should be used for design.

The skin friction used to estimate downdrag due to liquefaction settlement should be conservatively assumed to be equal to the residual soil strength in the liquefiable zone, and nonliquefied skin friction in nonliquefiable layers above the zone of liquefaction.

Transient loads can act to reduce the downdrag because they cause a downward movement of the pile resulting in a temporary reduction or elimination of the downdrag load. It is conservative to include the transient loads together with downdrag.

The step-by-step procedure for determining downdrag is presented in detail in [Hannigan, et al. \(2005\)](#).

The stress increases in each soil layer due to embankment load can be estimated using the procedures in [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#) or [Cheney and Chassie \(2000\)](#).

If the settlement is due to liquefaction, the [Tokimatsu and Seed \(1987\)](#) or the [Ishihara and Yoshimine \(1992\)](#) procedures can be used to estimate settlement.

The methods used to estimate downdrag are the same as those used to estimate skin friction, as described in Articles [8.7](#) and [8.8](#). The distinction between the two is that downdrag acts downward on the sides of the piles or shafts and loads the foundation, whereas skin friction acts upward on the sides of piles or shafts and, thus, supports the foundation loads.

Downdrag can be estimated for piles using the α or λ methods for cohesive soils. An alternative approach would be to use the β method where the long-term conditions after consolidation should be considered. Cohesion-less soil layers overlying the consolidating layers will also contribute to downdrag, and the negative skin resistance in these layers should be estimated using an effective stress method.

Downdrag loads for shafts may be estimated using the α method for cohesive soils and the β method for granular soils, as specified in Article [8.8](#), for calculating negative shaft resistance. As with positive shaft resistance, the top 1.5 m and a bottom length taken as one shaft diameter do not contribute to downdrag loads. When using the α

method, an allowance should be made for a possible increase in the undrained shear strength as consolidation occurs.

The neutral plane method is described and discussed in [NCHRP 393 \(Briaud and Tucker, 1993\)](#).

3.17.9. Commentary on Article [3.13.5.3](#) " Geometric Probability"

The geometric probability, PG , is defined as the conditional probability that a vessel will hit a bridge pier or superstructure component, given that it has lost control, i.e., it is aberrant, in the vicinity of the bridge. The probability of occurrence depends on the following factors:

- Geometry of waterway;
- Water depths of waterway;
- Location of bridge piers;
- Span clearances;
- Sailing path of vessel;
- Maneuvering characteristics of vessel;
- Location, heading, and velocity of vessel;
- Rudder angle at time of failure;
- Environmental conditions;
- Width, length, and shape of vessel; and
- Vessel draft.

The horizontal clearance of the navigation span has a significant impact on the risk of vessel collision with the main piers. Analysis of past collision accidents has shown that fixed bridges with a main span less than two to three times the design vessel length or less than two times the channel width are particularly vulnerable to vessel collision.

Various geometric probability models, some based on simulation studies, have been recommended and used on different bridge projects and for the development of general design provisions. Descriptions of these models may be found in [IABSE \(1983\)](#), [Modjeski and Masters \(1984\)](#), [Prucz \(1987\)](#), and [Larsen \(1993\)](#). The method used to determine PG herein is similar to that proposed by [Knott et al. \(1985\)](#). The use of a normal distribution is based on historical ship/bridge accident data. It is recommended that $\sigma = LOA$ of the design vessel for computing PG , and that bridge components located beyond 3σ from the centerline of the vessel transit path not be included in the analysis, other than the minimum impact requirement of Article [3.13.1](#).

The accident data used to develop the PG methodology primarily represents ships. Although barge accidents occur relatively frequently in United States waterways, there have been little published research findings concerning the distribution of barge accidents over a waterway. Until such data and research become available, it is recommended that the same $\sigma = LOA$ developed for ships be applied to barges with the barge LOA equal to the total length of the barge tow, including the towboat.

3.17.10. Commentary on Article [3.13.6](#) " Design Collision Velocity"

A triangular distribution of collision impact velocity across the length of the bridge and centered on the centerline of the vessel transit path in the channel was based on

historical accident data. This data indicated that aberrant ships and barges that collide with bridge piers further away from the channel are moving at reduced velocities compared with those hitting piers located closer to the navigable channel limits. Aberrant vessels located at long distances from the channel are usually drifting with the current. Aberrant vessels, located very near the channel, are moving at velocities approaching that of ships and barges in the main navigation channel.

The exact distribution of the velocity reduction is unknown. However, a triangular distribution was chosen because of its simplicity as well as its reasonableness in modeling the aberrant vessel velocity situation. The use of the distance 3.0 times *LOA* in [Figure 3.50](#) to define the limits at which the design velocity becomes equal to that of the water current was based on the observation that very few accidents, other than with drifting vessels, have historically occurred beyond that boundary.

The selection of the design collision velocity is one of the most significant design parameters associated with the vessel collision requirements. Judgment should be exercised in determining the appropriate design velocity for a vessel transiting the waterway. The chosen velocity should reflect the "typical" transit velocity of the design vessel under "typical" conditions of wind, current, visibility, opposing traffic, waterway geometry, etc. A different vessel velocity may be required for inbound vessels than for outbound vessels given the presence of currents that may exist in the waterway.

In waterways subject to seasonal flooding, consideration should be given to flood flow velocities in determining the minimum collision velocity.

In general, the design velocity should not be based on extreme values representing extreme events, such as exceptional flooding and other extreme environmental conditions. Vessels transiting under these conditions are not representative of the "annual average" situations reflecting the typical transit conditions.

3.17.11. Commentary on Article [3.13.8](#) "Ship Collision Force on Pier"

The determination of the impact load on a bridge structure during a ship collision is complex and depends on many factors as follows:

- Structural type and shape of the ship's bow,
- Degree of water ballast carried in the forepeak of the bow,
- Size and velocity of the ship,
- Geometry of the collision, and
- Geometry and strength characteristics of the pier.

Eq. [\(3.58\)](#) was developed from research conducted by [Woisin \(1976\)](#) in West Germany to generate collision data with a view to protecting the reactors of nuclear-powered ships from collisions with other ships. The ship collision data resulted from collision tests with physical ship models at scales of 1:12.0 and 1:7.5. Woisin's results have been found to be in good agreement with the results of research conducted by other ship collision investigators worldwide ([IABSE 1983](#)).

[Figure 3.61](#) indicates the scatter in Woisin's test data due to the various collision factors discussed herein, the triangular probability density function used to model the scatter, and the selection of a 70 percent fractile force for use as an equivalent static impact force for bridge design.

Using a 70 percent fractile force for a given design vessel, the number of smaller ships with a crushing strength greater than this force would be approximately equal to

the number of larger ships with a crushing strength less than this force. Figure 3.62 indicates typical ship impact forces computed with Eq. (3.58).

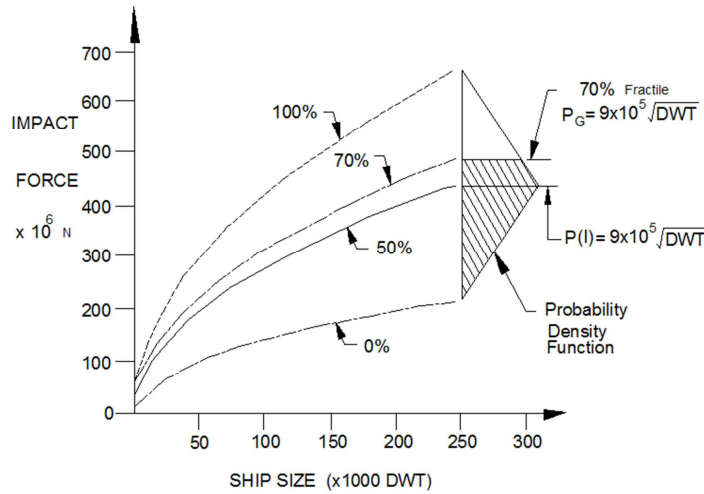


Figure 3.61: Probability Density Function of Ship Impact Force Data .

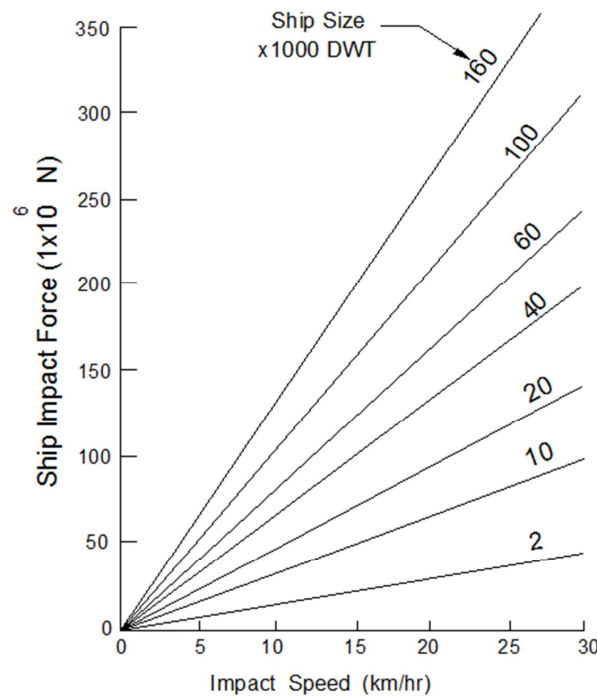


Figure 3.62: Typical Ship Impact Forces.

3.17.12. Commentary on Article 3.13.11 " Barge Collision Force on Pier"

There is less reported data on impact forces resulting from barge collisions than from ship collision. The barge collision impact forces determined by Eqs. (3.65) and (3.66) were developed from research conducted by Meir-Domberg (1983) in West Germany. Meir-Domberg's study included dynamic loading with a pendulum hammer on barge bottom models in scale 1:4.5, static loading on one bottom model in scale 1:6, and numerical analysis. The results for the standard European Barge, Type IIa, which

has a similar bow to the standard hopper barge in the United States, are shown in [Figure 3.63](#) for barge deformation and impact loading. No significant difference was found between the static and dynamic forces measured during the study.

Typical barge tow impact forces using Eqs. [\(3.65\)](#) and [\(3.66\)](#) are shown in [Figure 3.64](#), where:

E_B = deformation energy (J)

$\bar{P}_B$ = average equivalent static barge impact force resulting from the study (N)

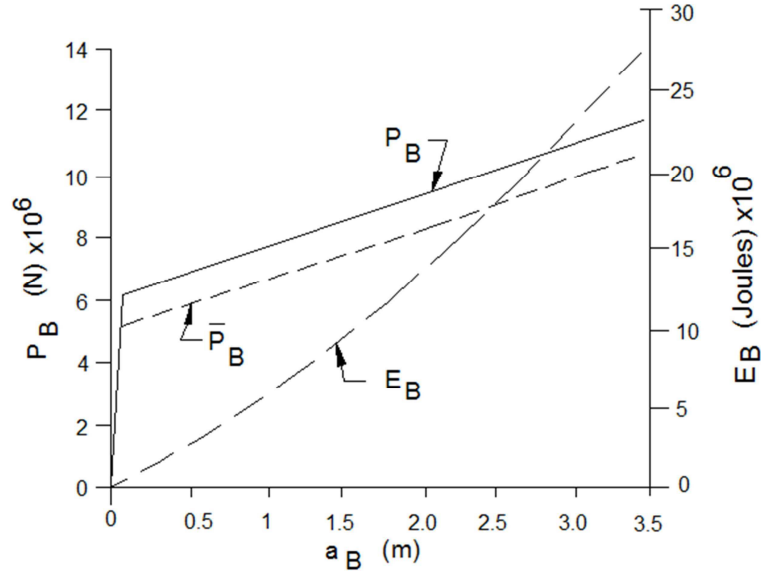


Figure 3.63: Barge Impact Force, Deformation Energy, and Damage Length -Data.

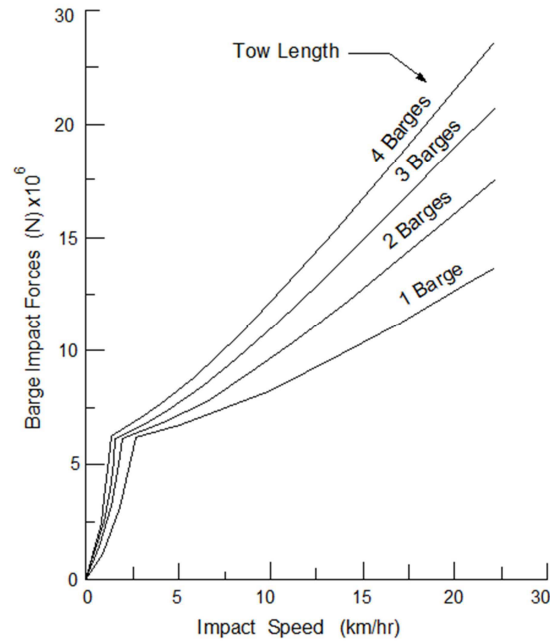


Figure 3.64: Typical Hopper Barge Impact Forces.

SECTION 4. STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

4.1. SCOPE

This Section describes methods of analysis suitable for the design and evaluation of bridges and is limited to the modeling of structures and the determination of force effects.

Other methods of analysis that are based on documented material characteristics and that satisfy equilibrium and compatibility may also be used.

In general, bridge structures are to be analyzed elastically. However, this Section permits the inelastic analysis or redistribution of force effects in some continuous beam superstructures. It specifies inelastic analysis for compressive members behaving inelastically and as an alternative for extreme event limit states.

- C This Section identifies and promotes the application of methods of structural analysis that are suitable for bridges. The selected method of analysis may vary from the approximate to the very sophisticated, depending on the size, complexity, and importance of the structure.
- C The primary objective in using more sophisticated methods of analysis is to obtain a better understanding of structural behavior. Such improved understanding may often, but not always, lead to the potential for saving material.
- C The outlined methods of analysis, which are suitable for the determination of deformations and force effects in bridge structures, have been successfully demonstrated, and most have been used for years.
- C Although many methods will require a computer for practical implementation, simpler methods that are amenable to hand calculation and/or to the use of existing computer programs based on line-structure analysis have also been provided. Comparison with hand calculations should always be encouraged and basic equilibrium checks should be standard practice.
- C With rapidly improving computing technology, the more refined and complex methods of analysis are expected to become commonplace. Hence, this Section addresses the assumptions and limitations of such methods. It is important that the user understand the method employed and its associated limitations.

In general, the suggested methods of analysis are based on linear material models. This does not mean that cross-sectional resistance is limited to the linear range.

- C This presents an obvious inconsistency in that the analysis is based on material linearity and the resistance model may be based on inelastic behavior for the strength limit states. This same inconsistency existed, however, in the load factor design method of previous editions of the AASHTO Standard Specifications, and is present in design codes of other nations using a factored design approach.
- C The loads and load factors, defined in [Section 3](#), and the resistance factors specified throughout these Specifications were developed using probabilistic principles combined with analyses based on linear material models. Hence, analysis methods based on material nonlinearities to obtain force effects that are more realistic at the strength limit states and subsequent economics that may be derived are permitted only where explicitly outlined herein.
- C Some nonlinear behavioral effects are addressed in both the analysis and resistance sections. For example, long column behavior may be modeled via geometric nonlinear methods and may also be modeled using approximate formulae in [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#). Either method may be used, but the more refined formulations are recommended.

4.2. DEFINITIONS

<i>Accepted Method of Analysis</i>	: A method of analysis that requires no further verification and that has become a regular part of structural engineering practice.
<i>Arc Span</i>	: Distance between centers of adjacent bearings, or other points of support, measured horizontally along the centerline of a horizontally curved member.
<i>Aspect Ratio</i>	: Ratio of the length to the width of a rectangle.
<i>Boundary Conditions</i>	: Structural restraint characteristics regarding the support for and/or the continuity between structural models.
<i>Bounding</i>	: Taking two or more extreme values of parameters to envelop the response with a view to obtaining a conservative design.
<i>Classical Deformation Method</i>	: A method of analysis in which the structure is subdivided into components whose stiffness can be independently calculated. Equilibrium and compatibility among the components is restored by determining the deformations at the interfaces.
<i>Classical Force Method</i>	: A method of analysis in which the structure is subdivided into statically determinate components. Compatibility among the components is restored by determining the interface forces.
<i>Closed-Box Section</i>	: A cross-section composed of two vertical or inclined webs which has at least one completely enclosed cell. A closed-section member is effective in resisting applied torsion by developing shear flow in the webs and flanges.
<i>Closed-Form Solution</i>	: One or more equations, including those based on convergent series, that permit calculation of force effects by the direct introduction of loads and structural parameters.
<i>Compatibility</i>	: The geometrical equality of movement at the interface of joined components.
<i>Component</i>	: A structural unit requiring separate design consideration; synonymous with member.
<i>Condensation</i>	: Relating the variables to be eliminated from the analysis to those being kept to reduce the number of equations to be solved.
<i>Core Width</i>	: The width of the superstructure of monolithic construction minus the deck overhangs.
<i>Cross-Section Distortion</i>	: Distortion of the cross-section of a closed-box or tub section due to torsional loading.
<i>Curved Girder</i>	: An I-, closed-box, or tub girder that is curved in a horizontal plane.

<i>Damper</i>	: A device that transfers and reduces forces between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements, while permitting thermal movements. The device provides damping by dissipating energy under seismic, braking, or other dynamic loads.
<i>Deck</i>	: A component, with or without wearing surface, directly supporting wheel loads.
<i>Deck System</i>	: A superstructure in which the deck is integral with its supporting components or in which the effects or deformation of supporting components on the behavior of the deck is significant.
<i>Deformation</i>	: A change in structural geometry due to force effects, including axial displacement, shear displacement, and rotations.
<i>Degree-of-Freedom</i>	: One of a number of translations or rotations required to define the movement of a node. The displaced shape of components and/or the entire structure may be defined by a number of degrees-of-freedom.
<i>Design</i>	: Proportioning and detailing the components and connections of a bridge to satisfy the requirements of these Specifications.
<i>Dynamic Degree-of-Freedom</i>	: A degree-of-freedom with which mass or mass effects have been associated.
<i>Elastic</i>	: A structural material behavior in which the ratio of stress to strain is constant, the material returns to its original unloaded state upon load removal.
<i>Element</i>	: A part of a component or member consisting of one material.
<i>End Zone</i>	: Region of structures where normal beam theory does not apply due to structural discontinuity and/or distribution of concentrated loads.
<i>Equilibrium</i>	: A state where the sum of forces and moments about any point in space is 0.0.
<i>Equivalent Beam</i>	: A single straight or curved beam resisting both flexural and torsional effects.
<i>Equivalent Strip</i>	: An artificial linear element, isolated from a deck for the purpose of analysis, in which extreme force effects calculated for a line of wheel loads, transverse or longitudinal, will approximate those actually taking place in the deck.
<i>Finite Difference Method</i>	: Numerical methods for approximating the solutions to differential equations using finite difference equations to approximate derivatives.
<i>Finite Element Method</i>	: A method of analysis in which a structure is discretized into elements connected at nodes, the shape of the element displacement field is assumed, partial or complete compatibility is maintained among the element interfaces, and nodal displacements are determined by using energy variational principles or equilibrium methods.

<i>Finite Strip Method</i>	: A method of analysis in which the structure is discretized into parallel strips. The shape of the strip displacement field is assumed and partial compatibility is maintained among the element interfaces. Model displacement parameters are determined by using energy variational principles or equilibrium methods.
<i>First-Order Analysis</i>	: Analysis in which equilibrium conditions are formulated on the undeformed structure; that is, the effect of deflections is not considered in writing equations of equilibrium.
<i>Flange Lateral Bending Stress</i>	: The normal stress caused by flange lateral bending.
<i>Folded Plate Method</i>	: A method of analysis in which the structure is subdivided into plate components, and both equilibrium and compatibility requirements are satisfied at the component interfaces.
<i>Footprint</i>	: The specified contact area between wheel and roadway surface.
<i>Force Effect</i>	: A deformation, stress, or stress resultant, i.e., axial force, shear force, flexural, or torsional moment, caused by applied loads, imposed deformations, or volumetric changes.
<i>Foundation</i>	: A supporting element that derives its resistance by transferring its load to the soil or rock supporting the bridge.
<i>Frame Action</i>	: Transverse continuity between the deck and the webs of cellular cross-section or between the deck and primary components in large bridges.
<i>Frame Action for Wind</i>	: Transverse flexure of the beam web and that of framed stiffeners, if present, by which lateral wind load is partially or completely transmitted to the deck.
<i>Girder Radius</i>	: The radius of the circumferential centerline of a segment of a curved girder.
<i>Global Analysis</i>	: Analysis of a structure as a whole.
<i>Governing Position</i>	: The location and orientation of transient load to cause extreme force effects.
<i>Grillage Analogy Method</i>	: A method of analysis in which all or part of the superstructure is discretized into orthotropic components that represent the characteristics of the structure.
<i>Inelastic</i>	: Any structural behavior in which the ratio of stress and strain is not constant, and part of the deformation remains after load removal.
<i>Lane Live Load</i>	: The combination of tandem axle and uniformly distributed loads or the combination of the design truck and design uniformly distributed load.
<i>Large Deflection Theory</i>	: Any method of analysis in which the effects of deformation upon force effects is taken into account.

<i>Lateral Flange Bending</i>	: Bending of a flange about an axis perpendicular to the flange plane due to lateral loads applied to the flange and/or nonuniform torsion in the member.
<i>Lever Rule</i>	: The statical summation of moments about one point to calculate the reaction at a second point.
<i>Linear Response</i>	: Structural behavior in which deflections are directly proportional to loads.
<i>Local Analysis</i>	: An in-depth study of strains and stresses in or among components using force effects obtained from a more global analysis.
<i>Member</i>	: Same as <i>Component</i> .
<i>Method of Analysis</i>	: A mathematical process by which structural deformations, forces, and stresses are determined.
<i>Model</i>	: A mathematical or physical idealization of a structure or component used for analysis.
<i>Monolithic Construction</i>	: Single cell steel and/or concrete box bridges, solid or cellular cast-in-place concrete deck systems, and decks consisting of precast, solid, or cellular longitudinal elements effectively tied together by transverse post-tensioning.
<i>M/R Method</i>	: An approximate method for the analysis of curved box girders in which the curved girder is treated as an equivalent straight girder to calculate flexural effects and as a corresponding straight conjugate beam to calculate the concomitant St. Venant torsional moments due to curvature.
<i>Negative Moment</i>	: Moment producing tension at the top of a flexural element.
<i>Node</i>	: A point where finite elements or grid components meet; in conjunction with finite differences, a point where the governing differential equations are satisfied.
<i>Nonlinear Response</i>	: Structural behavior in which the deflections are not directly proportional to the loads due to stresses in the inelastic range, or deflections causing significant changes in force effects, or by a combination thereof.
<i>Nonuniform Torsion</i>	: An internal resisting torsion in thin-walled sections, also known as warping torsion, producing shear stress and normal stresses, and under which cross-sections do not remain plane. Members resist the externally applied torsion by warping torsion and St. Venant torsion. Each of these components of internal resisting torsion varies along the member length, although the externally applied concentrated torque may be uniform along the member between two adjacent points of torsional restraint. Warping torsion is dominant over St. Venant torsion in members having open cross-sections, whereas St. Venant torsion is dominant over warping torsion in members having closed cross-sections.

<i>Open Section</i>	:	A cross-section which has no enclosed cell. An open-section member resists torsion primarily by nonuniform torsion, which causes normal stresses at the flange tips.
<i>Orthotropic</i>	:	Perpendicular to each other, having physical properties that differ in two or more orthogonal directions.
<i>Panel Point</i>	:	The point where centerlines of members meet, usually in trusses, arches, cable-stayed, and suspension bridges.
<i>Pin Connection</i>	:	A connection among members by a notionally frictionless pin at a point.
<i>Pinned End</i>	:	A boundary condition permitting free rotation but not translation in the plane of action.
<i>Point of Contraflexure</i>	:	The point where the sense of the flexural moment changes; synonymous with point of inflection.
<i>Positive Moment</i>	:	Moment producing tension at the bottom of a flexural element.
<i>Primary Member</i>	:	A member designed to carry the loads applied to the structure as determined from an analysis.
<i>Rating Vehicle</i>	:	A sequence of axles used as a common basis for expressing bridge resistance.
<i>Refined Methods of Analysis</i>	:	Methods of structural analysis that consider the entire superstructure as an integral unit and provide the required deflections and actions.
<i>Rigidity</i>	:	Force effect caused by a corresponding unit deformation per unit length of a component.
<i>Secondary Member</i>	:	A member in which stress is not normally evaluated in the analysis.
<i>Second-Order Analysis</i>	:	Analysis in which equilibrium conditions are formulated on the deformed structure; that is, in which the deflected position of the structure is used in writing the equations of equilibrium.
<i>Series or Harmonic Method</i>	:	A method of analysis in which the load model is subdivided into suitable parts, allowing each part to correspond to one term of a convergent infinite series by which structural deformations are described.
<i>Shear Flow</i>	:	Shear force per unit width acting parallel to the edge of a plate element.
<i>Shear Lag</i>	:	Nonlinear distribution of normal stress across a component due to shear distortions.
<i>Shock Transmission Unit (STU)</i>	:	A device that provides a temporary rigid link between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements under seismic, braking, or other dynamic loads, while permitting thermal movements.

<i>Skew Angle</i>	: Angle between the centerline of a support and a line normal to the roadway centerline.
<i>Small Deflection Theory</i>	: A basis for methods of analysis where the effects of deformation upon force effects in the structure is neglected.
<i>Spacing of Beams</i>	: The center-to-center distance between lines of support.
<i>Spread Beams</i>	: Beams not in physical contact, carrying a cast-in-place concrete deck.
<i>Stiffness</i>	: Force effect resulting from a unit deformation.
<i>Strain</i>	: Elongation per unit length.
<i>Stress Range</i>	: The algebraic difference between extreme stresses.
<i>St. Venant Torsion</i>	: That portion of the internal resisting torsion in a member producing only pure shear stresses on a cross-section; also referred to as pure torsion or uniform torsion.
<i>Superposition</i>	: The situation where the force effect due to one loading can be added to the force effect due to another loading. Use of superposition is only valid when the stress-strain relationship is linearly elastic and the small deflection theory is used.
<i>Tandem</i>	: Two closely spaced and mechanically interconnected axles of equal weight.
<i>Through-Thickness Stress</i>	: Bending stress in a web or box flange induced by distortion of the cross-section.
<i>Torsional Shear Stress</i>	: Shear stress induced by St. Venant torsion.
<i>Tub Section</i>	: An open-topped section which is composed of a bottom flange, two inclined or vertical webs, and top flanges.
<i>Uncracked Section</i>	: A section in which the concrete is assumed to be fully effective in tension and compression.
<i>V-Load Method</i>	: An approximate method for the analysis of curved I-girder bridges in which the curved girders are represented by equivalent straight girders and the effects of curvature are represented by vertical and lateral forces applied at cross-frame locations. Lateral flange bending at brace points due to curvature is estimated.
<i>Warping Stress</i>	: Normal stress induced in the cross-section by warping torsion and/or by distortion of the cross-section.
<i>Wheel Load</i>	: One-half of a specified design axle load.
<i>Yield Line</i>	: A plastic hinge line.

Yield Line Method : A method of analysis in which a number of possible yield line patterns are examined in order to determine load-carrying capacity.

4.3. NOTATION

A	=	area of a stringer, beam, or component (mm^2).
A_b	=	cross-sectional area of barrier (mm^2).
A_c	=	cross-section area—transformed for steel beams (mm^2).
A_o	=	area enclosed by centerlines of elements (mm^2).
A_s	=	total area of stiffeners (mm^2).
A	=	length of transition region for effective flange width of a concrete box beam (mm); longitudinal stiffener, spacing, or rib width in an orthotropic steel deck (mm).
B	=	spacing of transverse beams (mm).
B	=	tire length (mm); width of a beam (mm); width of plate element (mm); flange width each side of the web (mm).
B_e	=	effective flange width corresponding to the particular position of the section of interest in the span (mm).
B_m	=	effective flange width for interior portions of a span as determined from Figure 4.2 ; a special case of b_e (mm).
b_n	=	effective flange width for normal forces acting at anchorage zones (mm).
b_o	=	width of web projected to midplane of deck (mm).
B_s	=	effective flange width at interior support or for cantilever arm as determined from Figure 4.2 ; a special case of b_e (mm).
C	=	continuity factor; stiffness parameter.
C_m	=	moment gradient coefficient.
C_{sm}	=	the dimensionless elastic seismic response coefficient.
c_l	=	parameter for skewed supports.
D	=	web depth of a horizontally curved girder (mm); D_x/D_y ; width of distribution per lane (mm).
D_x	=	flexural rigidity in direction of main bars ($\text{N-mm}^2/\text{mm}$).
D_y	=	flexural rigidity perpendicular to the main bars ($\text{N-mm}^2/\text{mm}$).
D	=	depth of a beam or stringer (mm); depth of member (mm).
D_e	=	distance from the exterior web of exterior beam to the interior edge of curb or traffic barrier (mm).
d_o	=	depth of superstructure (mm).
E	=	modulus of elasticity (MPa); equivalent width (mm); equivalent distribution width perpendicular to span (mm).
E_B	=	modulus of elasticity of beam material (MPa).
E_c	=	modulus of elasticity of column (MPa).
E_D	=	modulus of elasticity of deck material (MPa).

E_g	=	modulus of elasticity of beam or other restraining member (MPa).
E_{MOD}	=	cable modulus of elasticity, modified for nonlinear effects (MPa).
E_{span}	=	equivalent distribution length parallel to span (mm).
e	=	correction factor for distribution; eccentricity of a lane from the center of gravity of the pattern of girders (mm); rib spacing in orthotropic steel deck (mm).
e_g	=	distance between the centers of gravity of the beam and deck (mm).
f_c	=	factored stress, corrected to account for second-order effects (MPa).
F_{2b}	=	stress corresponding to $M2b$ (MPa).
f_{2s}	=	stress corresponding to $M2s$ (MPa).
G	=	final force effect applied to a girder (kN or kN-mm); shear modulus (MPa).
G_a	=	ratio of stiffness of column to stiffness of members resisting column bending at “a” end.
G_b	=	ratio of stiffness of column to stiffness of members resisting column bending at “b” end.
GD	=	force effect due to design loads (kN or kN-mm).
G_p	=	force effect due to overload truck (kN or kN-mm).
G	=	distribution factor; acceleration of gravity (m/sec. ²).
G_m	=	multiple lane live load distribution factor.
g_l	=	single lane live load distribution factor.
H	=	depth of fill from top of culvert to top of pavement (mm); average height of substructure supporting the seat under consideration (mm).
$H, H1, H2$	=	horizontal component of cable force (N).
h	=	depth of deck (mm).
I	=	moment of inertia (mm ⁴).
I_c	=	moment of inertia of column (mm ⁴); inertia of cross-section—transformed for steel beams (mm ⁴).
I_g	=	moment of inertia of member acting to restrain column bending (mm ⁴).
IM	=	dynamic load allowance.
I_p	=	polar moment of inertia (mm ⁴).
I_s	=	inertia of equivalent strip (mm ⁴).
J	=	St. Venant torsional inertia (mm ⁴).
K	=	effective length factor for columns and arch ribs; constant for different types of construction; effective length factor for columns in the plane of bending.
K_g	=	longitudinal stiffness parameter (mm ⁴).
k	=	factor used in calculation of distribution factor for multi-beam bridges.
k_s	=	strip stiffness factor (N/mm).
L	=	span length of deck (mm); span length (mm); span length of beam (mm).

L_{as}	=	effective arc span of a horizontally curved girder (mm).
L_b	=	spacing of brace points (mm).
L_c	=	unbraced length of column (mm).
L_g	=	unsupported length of beam or other restraining member (mm).
$LLDF$	=	factor for distribution of live load with depth of fill, 1.15 or 1.00.
L_T	=	length of tire contact area parallel to span (mm).
L_1	=	modified span length taken to be equal to the lesser of the actual span or 18 000 (mm); distance between points of inflection of the transverse beam (mm).
L_2	=	distances between points of inflection of the transverse beam (mm).
L_i	=	a notional span length (mm).
ℓ	=	unbraced length of a horizontally curved girder (mm).
ℓ_u	=	unsupported length of a compression member (mm); one-half of the length of the arch rib (mm).
M	=	major-axis bending moment in a horizontally curved girder (N-mm); moment due to live load in filled or partially filled grid deck (N-mm/mm).
M_c	=	factored moment, corrected to account for second-order effects (N-mm); moment required to restrain uplift caused by thermal effects (N-mm).
M_{lat}	=	flange lateral bending moment due to curvature (N-mm).
MM	=	multimode elastic method.
M_n	=	nominal flexural strength
M_w	=	maximum lateral moment in the flange due to the factored wind loading (N-mm).
M_{1b}	=	smaller end moment on compression member due to gravity loads that result in no appreciable sidesway; positive if member is bent in single curvature, negative if bent in double curvature (N-mm).
M_{2b}	=	moment on compression member due to factored gravity loads that result in no appreciable sidesway calculated by conventional first-order elastic frame analysis; always positive (N-mm).
M_{2s}	=	moment on compression member due to factored lateral or gravity loads that result in sidesway, Δ , greater than $\ell_u/1500$, calculated by conventional first-order elastic frame analysis; always positive (N-mm).
N	=	constant for determining the lateral flange bending moment in I-girder flanges due to curvature, taken as 10 or 12 in past practice; axial force (N); minimum support length (mm).
N_b	=	number of beams, stringers, or girders.
N_c	=	number of cells in a concrete box girder.
N_L	=	number of design lanes.
n	=	modular ratio between beam and deck.
P	=	axle load (N).
P_D	=	design horizontal wind pressure (MPa).

P_e	=	Euler buckling load (N).
P_u	=	factored axial load (N).
P_w	=	lateral wind force applied to the brace point (N).
p	=	tire pressure (MPa).
p_e	=	equivalent uniform static seismic loading per unit length of bridge that is applied to represent the primary mode of vibration (N/mm).
$p_e(x)$	=	the intensity of the equivalent static seismic loading that is applied to represent the primary mode of vibration (N/mm).
p_o	=	a uniform load arbitrarily set equal to 1.0 (N/mm).
R	=	girder radius (mm); load distribution to exterior beam in terms of lanes; radius of curvature; R-factor for calculation of seismic design forces due to inelastic action
R_d	=	R_d -factor for calculation of seismic displacements due to inelastic action
r	=	reduction factor for longitudinal force effect in skewed bridges.
S	=	spacing of supporting components (mm); spacing of beams or webs (mm); clear span (mm); skew of support measured from line normal to span (°).
S_b	=	spacing of grid bars (mm).
SM	=	single-mode elastic method.
s	=	length of a side element (mm).
T	=	period of fundamental mode of vibration (sec.)
T_G	=	temperature gradient ($\Delta^\circ\text{C}$).
TH	=	time history method.
T_m	=	period of m^{th} mode of vibration (sec.).
T_s	=	reference period used to define shape of seismic response spectrum (sec.)
T_u	=	uniform specified temperature ($^\circ\text{C}$).
T_{UG}	=	temperature averaged across the cross-section ($^\circ\text{C}$).
t	=	thickness of plate-like element (mm); thickness of flange plate in orthotropic steel deck (mm).
t_g	=	depth of steel grid or corrugated steel plank including integral concrete overlay or structural concrete component, less a provision for grinding, grooving, or wear (mm).
t_o	=	depth of structural overlay (mm).
t_s	=	depth of concrete slab (mm).
V_{LD}	=	maximum vertical shear at $3d$ or $L/4$ due to wheel loads distributed laterally as specified herein (N).
V_{LL}	=	distributed live load vertical shear (N).
V_{LU}	=	maximum vertical shear at $3d$ or $L/4$ due to undistributed wheel loads (N).
$v_s(x)$	=	deformation corresponding to p_o (mm).
v_s, MA	=	maximum value of $v_s(x)$ (mm).
X		

W	=	edge-to-edge width of bridge (mm); factored wind force per unit length (N/mm); total weight of cable (N); total weight of bridge (N).
W_e	=	half the web spacing, plus the total overhang (mm).
W_l	=	modified edge-to-edge width of bridge taken to be equal to the lesser of the actual width or 18 000 for multilane loading, or 9000 for single-lane loading (mm).
w	=	width of clear roadway (mm); width of element in cross-section (mm).
$w(x)$	=	nominal, unfactored dead load of the bridge superstructure and tributary substructure (N/mm).
W_p	=	plank width (mm).
z	=	vertical distance from center of gravity of cross-section (mm).
X	=	distance from load to point of support (mm).
X_{ext}	=	horizontal distance from the center of gravity of the pattern of girders to the exterior girder (mm).
X	=	horizontal distance from the center of gravity of the pattern of girders to each girder (mm).
Z	=	a factor taken as 1.20 where the lever rule was not utilized, and 1.0 where the lever rule was used for a single lane live load distribution factor.
α	=	angle between cable and horizontal (°); coefficient of thermal expansion (mm/mm/°C); generalized flexibility.
β	=	generalized participation.
γ	=	load factor; generalized mass.
Δ	=	displacement of point of contraflexure in column or pier relative to point of fixity for the foundation (mm)
Δ_e	=	displacement calculated from elastic seismic analysis (mm)
Δ_w	=	overhang width extension (mm).
δ_b	=	moment or stress magnifier for braced mode deflection.
δ_s	=	moment or stress magnifier for unbraced mode deflection.
ϵ_u	=	uniform axial strain due to axial thermal expansion (mm/mm).
η_i	=	load modifier relating to ductility, redundancy, and operational importance.
θ	=	skew angle (°).
μ	=	Poisson's ratio.
σ_E	=	internal stress due to thermal effects (MPa).
ϕ	=	rotation per unit length; flexural resistance factor.
ϕ_K	=	stiffness reduction factor = 0.75 for concrete members and 1.0 for steel and aluminum members.

4.4. ACCEPTABLE METHODS OF STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

Any method of analysis that satisfies the requirements of equilibrium and compatibility and utilizes stress-strain relationships for the proposed materials may be used, including, but not limited to:

- Classical force and displacement methods,
- Finite difference method,
- Finite element method,
- Folded plate method,
- Finite strip method,
- Grillage analogy method,
- Series or other harmonic methods,
- Methods based on the formation of plastic hinges, and
- Yield line method.

The Designer shall be responsible for the implementation of computer programs used to facilitate structural analysis and for the interpretation and use of results.

The name, version, and release date of software used should be indicated in the contract documents.

- C Many computer programs are available for bridge analysis. Various methods of analysis, ranging from simple formulae to detailed finite element procedures, are implemented in such programs. Many computer programs have specific engineering assumptions embedded in their code, which may or may not be applicable to each specific case.
- C When using a computer program, the Designer should clearly understand the basic assumptions of the program and the methodology that is implemented.
- C A computer program is only a tool, and the user is responsible for the generated results. Accordingly, all output should be verified to the extent possible.
- C Computer programs should be verified against the results of:
 - Universally accepted closed-form solutions,
 - Other previously verified computer programs, or
 - Physical testing.
- C The purpose of identifying software is to establish code compliance and to provide a means of locating bridges designed with software that may later be found deficient.

4.5. MATHEMATICAL MODELING

4.5.1. General

Mathematical models shall include loads, geometry, and material behavior of the structure, and, where appropriate, response characteristics of the foundation.

The choice of model shall be based on the limit states investigated, the force effect being quantified, and the accuracy required.

- C Service and fatigue limit states should be analyzed as fully elastic, as should strength limit states, except in case of certain continuous girders where inelastic analysis is specifically permitted, inelastic redistribution of negative bending moment and stability investigation.
- C The extreme event limit states may require collapse investigation based entirely on inelastic modeling.
- C Very flexible bridges, e.g., suspension and cable-stayed bridges, should be analyzed using nonlinear methods, such as the large deflection theory.
- C The need for sophisticated modeling of foundations is a function of the sensitivity of the structure to foundation movements.

Unless otherwise permitted, consideration of continuous composite barriers shall be limited to service and fatigue limit states and to structural evaluation.

The stiffness of structurally discontinuous railings, curbs, elevated medians, and barriers shall not be considered in structural analysis.

For the purpose of this Section, an appropriate representation of the soil and/or rock that supports the bridge shall be included in the mathematical model of the foundation.

- C In some cases, the foundation model may be as simple as unyielding supports. In other cases, an estimate of settlement may be acceptable. Where the structural response is particularly sensitive to the boundary conditions, such as in a fixed-end arch or in computing natural frequencies, rigorous modeling of the foundation should be made to account for the conditions present. In lieu of rigorous modeling, the boundary conditions may be varied to extreme bounds, such as fixed or free of restraint, and envelopes of force effects considered.

In the case of seismic design, gross soil movement and liquefaction should also be considered.

If lift-off is indicated at a bearing, the analysis shall recognize the vertical freedom of the girder at that bearing.

- C Where lift-off restraints are provided in the contract documents, the construction stage at which the restraints are to be installed should be clearly indicated. The analysis should recognize the vertical freedom of the girder consistent with the construction sequence shown in the contract documents.

4.5.2. Structural Material Behavior

4.5.2.1. Elastic versus Inelastic Behavior

For the purpose of analysis, structural materials shall be considered to behave linearly up to an elastic limit and inelastically thereafter.

Actions at the extreme event limit state may be accommodated in both the inelastic and elastic ranges.

4.5.2.2. Elastic Behavior

Elastic material properties and characteristics shall be in accordance with the provisions of [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#). Changes in these values due to maturity of concrete and environmental effects should be included in the model, where appropriate.

The stiffness properties of concrete and composite members shall be based upon cracked and/or un-cracked sections consistent with the anticipated behavior.

Stiffness characteristics of beam-slab-type bridges may be based on full participation of concrete decks.

- C Tests indicate that in the elastic range of structural behavior, cracking of concrete seems to have little effect on the global behavior of bridge structures. This effect can, therefore, be safely neglected by modeling the concrete as uncracked for the purposes of structural analysis ([King et al., 1975](#); [Yen et al., 1995](#)).

4.5.2.3. Inelastic Behavior

Sections of components that may undergo inelastic deformation shall be shown to be ductile or made ductile by confinement or other means. Where inelastic analysis is used, a preferred design failure mechanism and its attendant hinge locations shall be determined. It shall be ascertained in the analysis that shear, buckling, and bond failures in the structural components do not precede the formation of a flexural inelastic mechanism. Unintended over-strength of a component in which hinging is expected should be considered. Deterioration of geometrical integrity of the structure due to large deformations shall be taken into account.

- C Where technically possible, the preferred failure mechanism should be based on a response that has generally been observed to provide for large deformations as a means of warning of structural distress.

- C The selected mechanism should be used to estimate the extreme force effect that can be applied adjacent to a hinge.
- C Unintended overstrength of a component may result in an adverse formation of a plastic hinge at an undesirable location, forming a different mechanism.

The inelastic model shall be based either upon the results of physical tests or upon a representation of load-deformation behavior that is validated by tests. Where inelastic behavior is expected to be achieved by confinement, test specimens shall include the elements that provide such confinement. Where extreme force effects are anticipated to be repetitive, the tests shall reflect their cyclic nature.

Except where noted, stresses and deformations shall be based on a linear distribution of strains in the cross section of prismatic components. Shear deformation of deep components shall be considered. Limits on concrete strain, as specified in [Section 5](#), shall not be exceeded.

The inelastic behavior of compressive components shall be taken into account, wherever applicable.

4.5.3. Geometry

4.5.3.1. Small Deflection Theory

If the deformation of the structure does not result in a significant change in force effects due to an increase in the eccentricity of compressive or tensile forces, such secondary force effects may be ignored.

- C Small deflection theory is usually adequate for the analysis of beam-type bridges. Bridges that resist loads primarily through a couple whose tensile and compressive forces remain in essentially fixed positions relative to each other while the bridge deflects, such as in trusses and tied arches, are generally insensitive to deformations. Columns and structures in which the flexural moments are increased or decreased by deflection tend to be sensitive to deflection considerations. Such structures include suspension bridges, very flexible cable-stayed bridges, and some arches other than tied arches and frames.
- C In many cases, the degree of sensitivity can be assessed and evaluated by a single-step approximate method, such as the moment magnification factor method. In the remaining cases, a complete second-order analysis may be necessary.
- C The past traditional boundary between small- and large-deflection theory becomes less distinct as bridges and bridge components become more flexible due to advances in material technology, the change from mandatory to optional deflection limits, and the trend toward more accurate, optimized design. The Engineer needs to consider these aspects in the choice of an analysis method.
- C Small-deflection elastic behavior permits the use of the principle of superposition and efficient analytical solutions. These assumptions are typically used in bridge analysis for this reason. The behavior of the members assumed in these provisions is generally consistent with this type of analysis.
- C Superposition does not apply for the analysis of construction processes that include changes in the stiffness of the structure.
- C Moments from noncomposite and composite analyses may not be added for the purpose of computing stresses. The addition of stresses and deflections due to noncomposite and composite actions computed from separate analyses is appropriate.

4.5.3.2. Large Deflection Theory

1. General

If the deformation of the structure results in a significant change in force effects, the effects of deformation shall be considered in the equations of equilibrium.

The effect of deformation and out-of-straightness of components shall be included in stability analyses and large deflection analyses.

For slender concrete compressive components, those time- and stress-dependent material characteristics that cause significant changes in structural geometry shall be considered in the analysis.

The interaction effects of tensile and compressive axial forces in adjacent components should be considered in the analysis of frames and trusses.

- C A properly formulated large deflection analysis is one that provides all the force effects necessary for the design. Further application of moment magnification factors is neither required nor appropriate. The presence of compressive axial forces amplifies both out-of-straightness of a component and the deformation due to nontangential loads acting thereon, thereby increasing the eccentricity of the axial force with respect to the centerline of the component. The synergistic effect of this interaction is the apparent softening of the component, i.e., a loss of stiffness. This is commonly referred to as a second-order effect. The converse is true for tension. As axial compressive stress becomes a higher percentage of the so called Euler buckling stress, this effect becomes increasingly more significant.
- C The second-order effect arises from the translation of applied load creating increased eccentricity. It is considered as geometric nonlinearity and is typically addressed by iteratively solving the equilibrium equations or by using geometric stiffness terms in the elastic range (Przemieniecki, 1968). The analyst should be aware of the characteristics of the elements employed, the assumptions upon which they are based, and the numerical procedures used in the computer code.
- C Discussions on the subject are given by (White, 1991) and only factored loads shall be used and no superposition of force effects shall be applied in the nonlinear range. The order of load application in nonlinear analysis shall be consistent with that on the actual bridge.
- C Because large deflection analysis is inherently nonlinear, the loads are not proportional to the displacements, and superposition cannot be used.
- C Therefore, the order of load application can be important and traditional approaches, such as influence functions, are not directly applicable. The loads should be applied in the order experienced by the structure, i.e., dead load stages followed by live load stages, etc. If the structure undergoes nonlinear deformation, the loads should be applied incrementally with consideration for the changes in stiffness after each increment. In conducting nonlinear analysis, it is prudent to perform a linear analysis for it baseline and to use the procedures employed on, the problem at hand on a simple structure that can be analyzed by hand, such as a cantilever beam. This permits the analyst to observe behavior and develop insight into behavior that is not easily gained from more complex models.

2. Approximate Methods

a. General

Where permitted in [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#), the effects of deflection on force effects on beam-columns and arches which meet the provisions of these Specifications may be approximated by the single-step adjustment method known as moment magnification.

- C The moment magnification procedure outlined herein is one of several variations of the approximate process and was selected as a compromise between accuracy and ease of use. It is believed to be conservative. An alternative procedure thought to be more accurate than the one specified herein may be found in [AISC \(1993\)](#). This alternative procedure will require supplementary calculations not commonly made in bridge design using modern computational methods.
- C In some cases, the magnitude of movement implied by the moment magnification process cannot be physically attained. For example, the actual movement of a pier may be limited to the distance between the end of longitudinal beams and the backwall of the abutment.
- C In cases where movement is limited, the moment magnification factors of elements so limited may be reduced accordingly.

b. Moment Magnification—Beam Columns

The factored moments or stresses may be increased to reflect effects of deformations as follows:

$$M_c = \delta_b M_{2b} + \delta_s M_{2s} \quad (4.1)$$

$$f_c = \delta_b f_{2b} + \delta_s f_{2s} \quad (4.2)$$

in which:

$$\delta_b = \frac{C_m}{1 - \frac{P_u}{\phi_K P_e}} \geq 1.0 \quad (4.3)$$

$$\delta_s = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\sum P_u}{\phi_K \sum P_e}} \quad (4.4)$$

where:

- M_{2b} = moment on compression member due to factored gravity loads that result in no appreciable sidesway calculated by conventional first-order elastic frame analysis; always positive (N-mm).
- M_{2s} = moment on compression member due to factored lateral or gravity loads that result in sidesway, Δ , greater than $\ell_u/1500$, calculated by conventional first order elastic frame analysis; always positive (N-mm).
- f_{2b} = stress corresponding to M_{2b} (MPa).
- f_{2s} = stress corresponding to M_{2s} (MPa).
- P_u = factored axial load (N).
- ϕ_K = Stiffness reduction factor; 0.75 for concrete members and 1.0 for steel and aluminum members.
- P_e = Euler buckling load (N).

For steel/concrete composite columns, the Euler buckling load, P_e , shall be determined as specified in Article 6.9.5.1. For all other cases, P_e shall be taken as:

$$P_e = \frac{\pi^2 EI}{(K \ell_u)^2} \quad (4.5)$$

where:

- E = modulus of elasticity (MPa)
- I = moment of inertia about axis under consideration (mm^4)
- K = effective length factor in the plane of bending as specified in Article 4.6.2.5. For calculation of δ_b , P_e shall be based on the K -factor for braced frames; for calculation of δ_s , P_e shall be based on the K -factor for unbraced frames
- ℓ_u = unsupported length of a compression member (mm)

For concrete compression members, the provisions of Article 5.7.4.3 also apply.

For members braced against side-sway, δ_s shall be taken as 1.0 unless analysis indicates that a lower value may be used. For members not braced against side-sway, δ_b shall be determined as for a braced member and δ_s for an unbraced member.

For members braced against side-sway and without transverse loads between supports, C_m may be taken as:

$$C_m = 0.6 + 0.4 \frac{M_{1b}}{M_{2b}} \quad (4.6)$$

where:

M_{1b} = smaller end moment

M_{2b} = larger end moment

- C The previous limit $C_m \geq 0.4$ has been shown to be unnecessary in [AISC \(1994\), Chapter C](#), of commentary.

The ratio M_{1b}/M_{2b} is considered positive if the component is bent in single curvature and negative if it is bent in double curvature.

For all other cases, C_m shall be taken as 1.0.

In structures that are not braced against sidesway, the flexural members and foundation units framing into the compression member shall be designed for the sum of end moments of the compression member at the joint.

Where compression members are subject to flexure about both principal axes, the moment about each axis shall be magnified by δ , determined from the corresponding conditions of restraint about that axis.

Where a group of compression members on one level comprise a bent, or where they are connected integrally to the same superstructure, and collectively resist the sidesway of the structure, the value of δ_s shall be computed for the member group with ΣP_u and ΣP_e equal to the summations for all columns in the group.

c. Moment Magnification—Arches

Live load and impact moments from a small deflection analysis shall be increased by the moment magnification factor, δ_b , as specified in Article [4.5.3.2.2.b](#), with the following definitions:

ℓ_u = one-half of the length of the arch rib (mm).

K = effective length factor specified in [Table 4.1](#).

$C_m = 1.0$

Table 4.1: K Values for Effective Length of Arch Ribs

Rise to Span Ratio	3-Hinged Arch	2-Hinged Arch	Fixed Arch
0.1–0.2	1.16	1.04	0.70
0.2–0.3	1.13	1.10	0.70
0.3–0.4	1.16	1.16	0.72

3. Refined Methods

Refined methods of analysis shall be based upon the concept of forces satisfying equilibrium in a deformed position.

- C Flexural equilibrium in a deformed position may be iteratively satisfied by solving a set of simultaneous equations, or by evaluating a closed-form solution formulated using the displaced shape.

4.5.4. Modeling Boundary Conditions

Boundary conditions shall represent actual characteristics of support and continuity.

- C If the accurate assessment of boundary conditions cannot be made, their effects may be bounded.

Foundation conditions shall be modeled in such a manner as to represent the soil properties underlying the bridge, the soil-pile interaction, and the elastic properties of piles.

4.5.5. Equivalent Members

Non-prismatic components may be modeled by discretizing the components into a number of frame elements with stiffness properties representative of the actual structure at the location of the element.

Components or groups of components of bridges with or without variable cross-sections may be modeled as a single equivalent component provided that it represents all the stiffness properties of the components or group of components. The equivalent stiffness properties may be obtained by closed-form solutions, numerical integration, sub-model analysis, and series and parallel analogies.

- C Standard frame elements in available analysis programs may be used. The number of elements required to model the nonprismatic variation is dependent on the type of behavior being modeled, e.g., static, dynamic, or stability analysis. Typically, eight elements per span will give sufficient accuracy for actions in a beam loaded statically with cross-sectional properties that vary smoothly. Fewer elements are required to model for deflection and frequency analyses.
- C Alternatively, elements may be used that are based on the assumed tapers and cross-sections. [Karabalis \(1983\)](#) provides a comprehensive examination of this issue. Explicit forms of stiffness coefficients are given for linearly tapered rectangular, flanged, and box sections. [Aristizabal \(1987\)](#) presents similar equations in a simple format that can be readily implemented into stiffness-based computer programs. Significant bibliographies are given in [Karabalis \(1983\)](#) and [Aristizabal \(1987\)](#).

4.6. STATIC ANALYSIS

4.6.1. Influence of Plan Geometry

4.6.1.1. Plan Aspect Ratio

If the span length of a superstructure with torsionally stiff closed cross-sections exceeds 2.5 times its width, the superstructure may be idealized as a single-spine beam. The following dimensional definitions shall be used to apply this criterion:

- Width—the core width of a monolithic deck or the average distance between the outside faces of exterior webs.
- Length for rectangular simply supported bridges—the distance between deck joints.
- Length for continuous and/or skewed bridges—the length of the longest side of the rectangle that can be drawn within the plan view of the width of the smallest span, as defined herein.

This restriction does not apply to cast-in-place multi-cell box girders.

- C Where transverse distortion of a superstructure is small in comparison with longitudinal deformation, the former does not significantly affect load distribution; hence, an equivalent beam idealization is appropriate.
- C The relative transverse distortion is a function of the ratio between structural width and height, the latter, in turn, depending on the length. Hence, the limits of such idealization are determined in terms of the width-to-effective length ratio.
- C Simultaneous torsion, moment, shear, and reaction forces and the attendant stresses are to be superimposed as appropriate. The equivalent beam idealization does not alleviate the need to investigate warping effects in steel structures. In all equivalent beam idealizations, the eccentricity of loads should be taken with respect to the centerline of the equivalent beam.

4.6.1.2. Structures Curved in Plan

1. General

The moments, shears, and other force effects required to proportion the superstructure components shall be based on a rational analysis of the entire superstructure.

The entire superstructure, including bearings, shall be considered as an integral structural unit. Boundary conditions shall represent the articulations provided by the bearings and/or integral connections used in the design. Analyses may be based on elastic small deflection theory, unless more rigorous approaches are deemed necessary by the Engineer.

- C Since equilibrium of horizontally curved I-girders is developed by the transfer of load between the girders, the analysis must recognize the integrated behavior of all structural components. Equilibrium of curved box girders may be less dependent on the interaction between girders. Bracing members are considered primary members in curved bridges since they transmit forces necessary to provide equilibrium.
- C The deck acts in flexure, vertical shear, and horizontal shear. Torsion increases the horizontal deck shear, particularly in curved box girders. The lateral restraint of the bearings may also cause horizontal shear in the deck.
- C Small-deflection theory is adequate for the analysis of most curved-girder bridges. However, curved I-girders are prone to deflect laterally when the girders are insufficiently braced during erection. This behavior may not be well recognized by small-deflection theory.
- C Classical methods of analysis usually are based on strength of materials assumptions that do not recognize cross-section deformation. Finite element analyses that model the actual cross-section shape of the I-or box girders can recognize cross-section distortion and its effect on structural behavior. Cross-section deformation of steel box girders may have a significant effect on torsional behavior, but this effect is limited by the provision of sufficient internal cross bracing.

Analyses shall consider bearing orientation and restraint of bearings afforded by the substructure. These load effects shall be considered in designing bearings, cross-frames, diaphragms, bracing, and the deck.

Distortion of the cross-section need not be considered in the structural analysis.

Centrifugal force effects shall be considered in accordance with Article [3.6.3](#).

2. Single-Girder Torsionally Stiff Superstructures

A horizontally curved, torsionally stiff single-girder superstructure meeting the requirements of Article [4.6.1.1](#) may be analyzed for global force effects as a curved spine beam.

- C In order to apply the aspect ratio provisions of Article [4.6.1.1](#), as specified, the plan needs to be hypothetically straightened. Force effects should be calculated on the basis of the actual curved layout.

The location of the centerline of such a beam shall be taken at the center of gravity of the cross-section, and the eccentricity of dead loads shall be established by volumetric consideration.

- C With symmetrical cross-sections, the center of gravity of permanent loads falls outside the center of gravity. Shear center of the cross-section and the resulting eccentricity need to be investigated.

3. Multi-cell Concrete Box Girders

Horizontally curved cast-in-place multi-cell box girders may be designed as single-spine beams with straight segments, for central angles up to 34° within one span, unless concerns about other force effects dictate otherwise.

- C A parametric study conducted by [Song, Chai, and Hida \(2003\)](#) indicated that the distribution factors from the LRFD formulae compared well with the distribution factors from grillage analyses when using straight segments on spans with central angles up to 34° in one span.

4. Steel Multiple-Beam Superstructures

a. General

Horizontally curved superstructures may be analyzed as grids or continuums in which the segments of the longitudinal beams are assumed to be straight between nodes. The actual eccentricity of the segment between the nodes shall not exceed 2.5 percent of the length of the segment.

- C An eccentricity of 2.5 percent of the length of the segment corresponds to a central angle subtended by a curved segment of about 12°.
- C This Article applies only to major-axis bending moment and does not apply to lateral flange bending, or torsion, which should always be examined with respect to curvature.
- C Bridges with even slight curvature may develop large radial forces at the abutment bearings. Therefore, thermal analysis of all curved bridges is recommended.

b. I-Girders

The effect of curvature on stability shall be considered for all curved I-girders.

Where I-girder bridges meet the following four conditions, the effects of curvature may be ignored in the analysis for determining the major-axis bending moments and bending shears:

- Girders are concentric;
- Bearing lines are not skewed more than 10° from radial;
- The stiffnesses of the girders are similar;
- For all spans, the arc span divided by the girder radius in millimeters is less than 0.06 radians where the arc span, L_{as} , shall be taken as follows:

For simple spans L_{as} = arc length of the girder (mm)

For end spans of continuous members L_{as} = 0.9 times the arc length of the girder (mm)

For interior spans of continuous members L_{as} = 0.8 times the arc length of the girder (mm)

An I-girder in a bridge satisfying these criteria may be analyzed as an individual straight girder with span length equal to the arc length. Lateral flange bending effects should then be determined from an appropriate approximation and considered in the design.

Cross-frame or diaphragm members shall be designed in accordance with Articles [6.7.4](#) and [6.13](#) for forces computed by rational means.

Cross-frame spacing shall be set to limit flange lateral bending in the girders.

- C For more information see Article [4.10.1](#) in Appendix B4.

c. Closed Box and Tub Girders

- C Although box-shaped girders have not been examined as carefully as I-girders with regard to approximate methods, bending moments in closed girders are less affected by curvature than are I-girders ([Tung and Fountain, 1970](#)). However, in a box shape, torsion is much greater than in an open shape so that web shears are affected by torsion due to curvature, skew or loads applied away from the shear center of the box. Double bearings resist significant torque compared to a box-centered single bearing.

The effect of curvature on strength and stability shall be considered for all curved box girders.

Where box girder bridges meet the following three conditions, the effect of curvature may be ignored in the analysis for determination of the major-axis bending moments and bending shears:

- Girders are concentric,
- Bearings are not skewed, and
- For all spans, the arc span divided by the girder radius is less than 0.3 radians, and the girder depth is less than the width of the box at mid-depth where the arc span, L_{as} , shall be taken as defined in Article 4.6.1.2.4.b.

C If the box is haunched or tapered, the shallowest girder depth should be used in conjunction with the narrowest width of the box at middepth in determining whether the effects of curvature may be ignored in calculating the major axis bending moments and bending shears.

A box girder in a bridge satisfying these criteria may be analyzed as an individual straight girder with span length equal to the arc length. Lateral flange bending effects should then be found from an appropriate approximation and considered in the design.

Cross-frame or diaphragm members shall be designed in accordance with the provisions of

Articles 6.7.4 and 6.13 and lateral bracing members shall be designed in accordance with Articles 6.7.5 and 6.13 for forces computed by rational means.

4.6.2. Approximate Methods of Analysis

4.6.2.1. Decks

1. General

An approximate method of analysis in which the deck is subdivided into strips perpendicular to the supporting components shall be considered acceptable for decks other than:

- Fully filled and partially filled grids for which the provisions of Article 4.6.2.1.8 shall apply and
- Top slabs of segmental concrete box girders for which the provisions of 4.6.2.9.4 shall apply.

Where the strip method is used, the extreme positive moment in any deck panel between girders shall be taken to apply to all positive moment regions.

Similarly, the extreme negative moment over any beam or girder shall be taken to apply to all negative moment regions.

C This model is analogous to past AASHTO Specifications.

C In determining the strip widths, the effects of flexure in the secondary direction and of torsion on the distribution of internal force effects are accounted for to obtain flexural force effects approximating those that would be provided by a more refined method of analysis.

C Depending on the type of deck, modeling and design in the secondary direction may utilize one of the following approximations:

- Secondary strip designed in a manner like the primary strip, with all the limit states applicable;

- Resistance requirements in the secondary direction determined as a percentage of that in the primary one as specified in Article 7.7.3.2 (i.e., the traditional approach for reinforced concrete slab in the previous editions of the AASHTO Standard Specifications); or
 - Minimum structural and/or geometry requirements specified for the secondary direction independent of actual force effects, as is the case for most wood decks.
- C The approximate strip model for decks is based on rectangular layouts. Currently about two-thirds of all bridges nationwide are skewed. While skew generally tends to decrease extreme force effects, it produces negative moments at corners, torsional moments in the end zones, substantial redistribution of reaction forces, and a number of other structural phenomena that should be considered in the design.

2. Applicability

The use of design aids for decks containing prefabricated elements may be permitted in lieu of analysis if the performance of the deck is documented and supported by sufficient technical evidence. The

Engineer shall be responsible for the accuracy and implementation of any design aids used.

For slab bridges and concrete slabs spanning more than 4600 mm and which span primarily in the direction parallel to traffic, the provisions of Article 4.6.2.3 shall apply.

3. Width of Equivalent Interior Strips

The width of the equivalent strip of a deck may be taken as specified in Table 4.2. Where decks span primarily in the direction parallel to traffic, strips supporting an axle load shall not be taken to be greater than 1m for open grids and not greater than 3600 mm for all other decks where multilane loading is being investigated. For deck overhangs, where applicable, the provisions of Article 3.6.1.3.4 may be used in lieu of the strip width specified in Table 4.2 for deck overhangs. The equivalent strips for decks that span primarily in the transverse direction shall not be subject to width limits. The following notation shall apply to Table 4.2:

S	=	spacing of supporting components (mm)
h	=	depth of deck (mm)
L	=	span length of deck (mm)
P	=	axle load (N)
S_b	=	spacing of grid bars (mm)
$+M$	=	positive moment
$-M$	=	negative moment
X	=	distance from load to point of support (mm)

Table 4.2: Equivalent Strips

Type of Deck	Direction of Primary Strip Relative to Traffic	Width of Primary Strip (mm)
Concrete:		
• Cast-in-place	Overhang	$1140 + 0.833X$
	Either Parallel or Perpendicular	+M: $660 + 0.55S$ -M: $1220 + 0.25S$
• Cast-in-place with stay-in-place concrete formwork	Either Parallel or Perpendicular	+M: $660 + 0.55S$ -M: $1220 + 0.25S$
• Precast, post-tensioned	Either Parallel or Perpendicular	+M: $660 + 0.55S$ -M: $1220 + 0.25S$
Steel:		
• Open grid	Main Bars	$0.007P + 4.0S_b$
• Filled or partially filled grid	Main Bars	Article 4.6.2.1.8 applies
• Unfilled, composite grids	Main Bars	Article 4.6.2.1.8 applies

- C Values provided for equivalent strip widths and strength requirements in the secondary direction are based on past experience. Practical experience and future research work may lead to refinement.
- C To get the load per unit width of the equivalent strip, divide the total load on one design traffic lane by the calculated strip width.

4. Width of Equivalent Strips at Edges of Slabs

a. General

For the purpose of design, the notional edge beam shall be taken as a reduced deck strip width specified herein. Any additional integral local thickening or similar protrusion acting as a stiffener to the deck that is located within the reduced deck strip width can be assumed to act with the reduced deck strip width as the notional edge beam.

b. Longitudinal Edges

Edge beams shall be assumed to support one line of wheels and, where appropriate, a tributary portion of the design lane load.

Where decks span primarily in the direction of traffic, the effective width of a strip, with or without an edge beam, may be taken as the sum of the distance between the edge of the deck and the inside face of the barrier, plus 300 mm, plus one-quarter of the strip width, specified in either Article [4.6.2.1.3](#), Article [4.6.2.3](#), or Article [4.6.2.10](#), as appropriate, but not exceeding either one-half the full strip width or 1.8 m.

c. Transverse Edges

Transverse edge beams shall be assumed to support one axle of the design truck in one or more design lanes, positioned to produce maximum load effects. Multiple presence factors and the dynamic load allowance shall apply.

The effective width of a strip, with or without an edge beam, may be taken as the sum of the distance between the transverse edge of the deck and the centerline of the first line of support for the deck, usually taken as a girder web, plus one-half of the

width of strip as specified in Article 4.6.2.1.3. The effective width shall not exceed the full strip width specified in Article 4.6.2.1.3.

5. Distribution of Wheel Loads

- C This Article attempts to clarify the application of the traditional AASHTO approach with respect to continuous decks.

If the spacing of supporting components in the secondary direction exceeds 1.5 times the spacing in the primary direction, all of the wheel loads shall be considered to be applied to the primary strip, and the provisions of Article 7.7.3.2 may be applied to the secondary direction.

If the spacing of supporting components in the secondary direction is less than 1.5 times the spacing in the primary direction, the deck shall be modeled as a system of intersecting strips.

The width of the equivalent strips in both directions may be taken as specified in Table 4.2. Each wheel load shall be distributed between two intersecting strips. The distribution shall be determined as the ratio between the stiffness of the strip and the sum of stiffnesses of the intersecting strips. In the absence of more precise calculations, the strip stiffness factor, k_s (N/mm) may be estimated as:

$$k_s = \frac{EI_s}{S^3} \quad (4.7)$$

where:

- I_s = moment of inertia of the equivalent strip (mm⁴)
 S = spacing of supporting components (mm)

6. Calculation of Force Effects

The strips shall be treated as continuous beams or simply supported beams, as appropriate. Span length shall be taken as the center-to-center distance between the supporting components. For the purpose of determining force effects in the strip, the supporting components shall be assumed to be infinitely rigid.

- C This is a deviation from the traditional approach based on a continuity correction applied to results obtained for analysis of simply supported spans.
 C For short-spans, the force effects calculated using the footprint could be significantly lower, and more realistic, than force effects calculated using concentrated loads.

The wheel loads may be modeled as concentrated loads or as patch loads whose length along the span shall be the length of the tire contact area, as specified in Article 3.6.1.2.5, plus the depth of the deck. The strips should be analyzed by classical beam theory.

The design section for negative moments and shear forces, where investigated, may be taken as follows:

- For monolithic construction, closed steel boxes, closed concrete boxes, open concrete boxes without top flanges, and stemmed precast beams, i.e., Cross-sections (b), (c), (d), (e), (f), (g), (h), (i), and (j) from Table 4.3, at the face of the supporting component,
- For steel I-beams and steel tub girders, i.e., Cross-sections (a) and (c) from Table 4.3, one-quarter the flange width from the centerline of support,

- For precast I-shaped concrete beams and open concrete boxes with top flanges, i.e., Cross-sections (c) and (k) from [Table 4.3](#), one-third the flange width, but not exceeding 380 mm, from the centerline of support.

For open box beams, each web shall be considered as a separate supporting component for the deck. The distance from the centerline of each web and the adjacent design sections for negative moment shall be determined based on the type of construction of the box and the shape of the top of the web using the requirements outlined above.

- C Reduction in negative moment and shear replaces the effect of reduced span length in the current code. The design sections indicated may be applied to deck overhangs and to portions of decks between stringers or similar lines of support.
- C Past practice has been to not check shear in typical decks. A design section for shear is provided for use in nontraditional situations. It is not the intent to investigate shear in every deck.

7. Cross-Sectional Frame Action

Where decks are an integral part of box or cellular cross-sections, flexural and/or torsional stiffnesses of supporting components of the cross-section, i.e., the webs and bottom flange, are likely to cause significant force effects in the deck. Those components shall be included in the analysis of the deck.

If the length of a frame segment is modeled as the width of an equivalent strip, provisions of Articles [4.6.2.1.3](#), [4.6.2.1.5](#), and [4.6.2.1.6](#) may be used.

- C The model used is essentially a transverse segmental strip, in which flexural continuity provided by the webs and bottom flange is included. Such modeling is restricted to closed cross sections only. In open framed structures, a degree of transverse frame action also exists, but it can be determined only by complex, refined analysis.
- C In normal beam slab superstructures, cross sectional frame action may safely be neglected. If the slab is supported by box beams or is integrated into a cellular cross section, the effects of frame action could be considerable. Such action usually decreases positive moments, but may increase negative moments resulting in cracking of the deck. For larger structures, a three dimensional analysis may be appropriate. For smaller structures, the analysis could be restricted to a segment of the bridge whose length is the width of an equivalent strip.
- C Extreme force effects may be calculated by combining the:
 - Longitudinal response of the superstructure approximated by classical beam theory, and
 - Transverse flexural response modeled as a cross-sectional frame.

8. Live Load Force Effects for Fully and Partially Filled Grids and for Unfilled Grid Decks Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slabs

Live load moments, in N-mm/mm of deck, may be determined as:

- Main bars perpendicular to traffic:

For $L \leq 3000$ mm

$$M_{transverse} = 1290D^{0.197}L^{0.459}C \quad (4.8)$$

For $L > 3000$ mm

$$M_{transverse} = \frac{5300D^{0.188}(L^{1.35} - 20400)}{L}(C) \quad (4.9)$$

- Main bars parallel to traffic:

For $L \leq 3000$ mm

$$M_{parallel} = 408D^{0.123}L^{0.64}C \quad (4.10)$$

For $L > 3000$ mm

$$M_{parallel} = \frac{3405D^{0.138}(L^{1.429} - 34900)}{L}(C) \quad (4.11)$$

where:

L = span length from center-to-center of supports (mm)

C = continuity factor; 1.0 for simply supported and 0.8 for continuous spans

D = D_x/D_y

D_x = flexural rigidity of deck in main bar direction (N-mm²/mm)

D_y = flexural rigidity of deck perpendicular to main bar direction (N-mm²/mm)

- C The moment equations are based on orthotropic plate theory considering vehicular live loads specified in Article 3.6. The equations take into account relevant factored load combinations including truck and tandem loads. The moment equations also account for dynamic load allowance, multiple presence factors, and load positioning on the deck surface to produce the largest possible moment.
- C Negative moment can be determined as maximum simple span positive moment times the continuity factor, C .

For grid decks, D_x and D_y should be calculated as EI_x and EI_y where E is the modulus of elasticity and I_x and I_y are the moment of inertia per unit width of deck, considering the section as cracked and using the transformed area method for the main bar direction and perpendicular to main bar direction, respectively.

- C Actual D_x and D_y values can vary considerably depending on the specific deck design, and using assumed values based only on the general type of deck can lead to unconservative design moments. Flexural rigidity in each direction should be calculated analytically as EI considering the section as cracked and using the transformed area method.

Moments for fatigue assessment may be estimated for all span lengths by reducing Eq. (4.8) for main bars perpendicular to traffic or Eq. (4.10) for main bars parallel to traffic by a factor of 3.

- C The reduction factor of 3.0 in the last sentence above, accounts for smaller dynamic load allowance (15 percent vs. 33 percent), smaller load factor (0.75 vs. 1.75) and no multiple presence (1.0 vs. 1.2) when considering fatigue. Use of Eqs. (4.8) and (4.10) for all spans is appropriate as Eqs. (4.8) and (4.10) reflect an individual design truck on short-span lengths while Eqs. (4.9) and (4.11) reflect the influence of multiple design tandems that control moment envelope on longer span lengths. The approximation produces reasonable estimates of fatigue moments; however, improved estimates can be determined using fatigue truck patch loads in the infinite series formula provided by Higgins (2003).

Deflection (Δ) in units of mm due to vehicular live load may be determined as:

- Main bars perpendicular to traffic:

$$\Delta_{transverse} = \frac{0.91D^{0.19}L^3}{D_x} \quad (4.12)$$

- Main bars parallel to traffic:

$$\Delta_{parallel} = \frac{1.26D^{0.11}L^3}{D_x} \quad (4.13)$$

- C The deflection equations permit calculation of the midspan displacement for a deck under service load. The equations are based on orthotropic plate theory and consider both truck and tandem loads on a simply supported deck.
- C Deflection may be reduced for decks continuous over three or more supports. A reduction factor of 0.8 is conservative.

9. Inelastic Analysis

The inelastic finite element analysis or yield line analysis may be permitted by the Owner.

4.6.2.2. Beam-Slab Bridges

1. Application

The provisions of this Article may be applied to straight girder bridges and horizontally curved concrete bridges, as well as horizontally curved steel girder bridges complying with the provisions of Article 4.6.1.2.4. The provisions of this Article may also be used to determine a starting point for some methods of analysis to determine force effects in curved girders of any degree of curvature in plan.

Except as specified in Article 4.6.2.2.5, the provisions of this Article shall be taken to apply to bridges being analyzed for:

- A single lane of loading, or
- Multiple lanes of live load yielding approximately the same force effect per lane.

If one lane is loaded with a special vehicle or evaluation permit vehicle, the design force effect per girder resulting from the mixed traffic may be determined as specified in Article 4.6.2.2.5.

For beam spacing exceeding the range of applicability as specified in tables in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3, the live load on each beam shall be the reaction of the loaded lanes based on the lever rule unless specified otherwise herein.

The provisions of Article 3.6.1.1.2 specify that multiple presence factors shall not be used with the approximate load assignment methods other than statical moment or lever arm methods because these factors are already incorporated in the distribution factors.

Bridges not meeting the requirements of this Article shall be analyzed as specified in Article 4.6.3.

The distribution of live load, specified in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3, may be used for girders, beams, and stringers, other than multiple steel box beams with concrete decks that meet the following conditions and any other conditions identified in tables of distribution factors as specified herein:

- Width of deck is constant;
- Unless otherwise specified, the number of beams is not less than four;
- Beams are parallel and have approximately the same stiffness;
- Unless otherwise specified, the roadway part of the overhang, d_e , does not exceed 910 mm;

- Curvature in plan is less than the limit specified in Article 4.6.1.2.4, or where distribution factors are required in order to implement an acceptable approximate or refined analysis method satisfying the requirements of Article 4.4 for bridges of any degree of curvature in plan; and
- Cross-section is consistent with one of the cross-sections shown in Table 4.3.

Where moderate deviations from a constant deck width or parallel beams exist, the distribution factor may either be varied at selected locations along the span or else a single distribution factor may be used in conjunction with a suitable value for beam spacing.

Cast-in-place multi-cell concrete box girder bridge types may be designed as whole-width structures. Such cross-sections shall be designed for the live load distribution factors in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3 for interior girders, multiplied by the number of girders, i.e., webs.

Additional requirements for multiple steel box girders with concrete decks shall be as specified in Article 4.6.2.2.2.a. Where bridges meet the conditions specified herein, permanent loads of and on the deck may be distributed uniformly among the beams and/or stringers.

Live load distribution factors, specified herein, may be used for permit and rating vehicles whose overall width is comparable to the width of the design truck.

The following notation shall apply to tables in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3:

A	=	area of stringer, beam or girder (mm^2).
B	=	width of beam (mm).
C	=	stiffness parameter (Dim).
D	=	width of distribution per lane (mm).
d	=	depth of beam or stringer (mm).
d_e	=	distance from the exterior web of exterior beam to the interior edge of curb or traffic barrier (mm).
e	=	correction factor (Dim).
g	=	distribution factor (Dim).
I_p	=	polar moment of inertia (mm^4).
J	=	St. Venant's torsional inertia (mm^4).
K	=	constant for different types of construction (Dim).
K_g	=	longitudinal stiffness parameter (mm^4).
L	=	span of beam (mm).
N_b	=	number of beams, stringers or girders.
N_c	=	number of cells in a concrete box girder.
N_L	=	number of design lanes as specified in Article 3.6.1.1.1
S	=	spacing of beams or webs (mm).

- t_g = depth of steel grid or corrugated steel plank including integral concrete overlay or structural concrete component, less a provision for grinding, grooving, or wear (mm).
 t_o = depth of structural overlay (mm).
 t_s = depth of concrete slab (mm).
 W = edge-to-edge width of bridge (mm).
 W_e = half the web spacing, plus the total overhang (mm).
 θ = skew angle (°).
 μ = Poisson's ratio.

Unless otherwise stated, the stiffness parameters for area, moments of inertia and torsional stiffness used herein and in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3 shall be taken as those of the cross-section to which traffic will be applied, i.e., usually the composite section.

The longitudinal stiffness parameter, K_g , shall be taken as:

$$K_g = n (I + A e_g^2) \quad (4.14)$$

in which:

$$n = \frac{E_B}{E_D} \quad (4.15)$$

where:

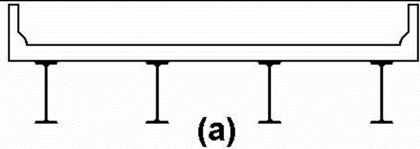
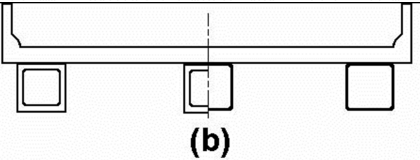
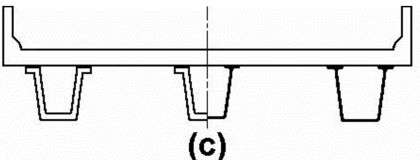
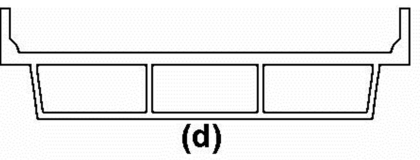
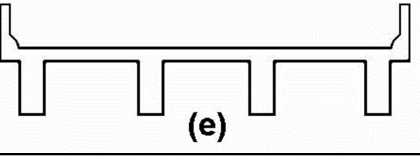
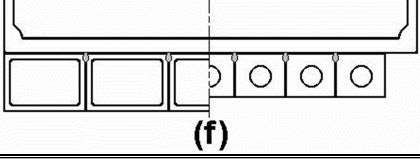
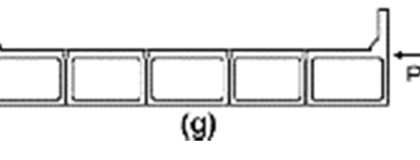
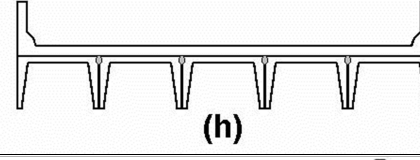
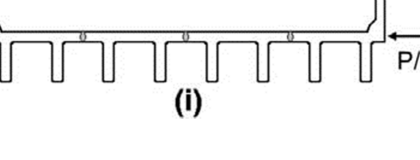
- E_B = modulus of elasticity of beam material (MPa)
 E_D = modulus of elasticity of deck material (MPa)
 I = moment of inertia of beam (mm⁴)
 e_g = distance between the centers of gravity of the basic beam and deck (mm)

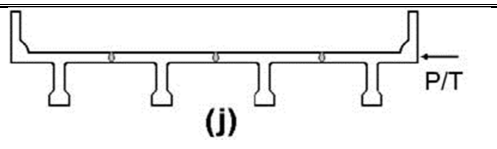
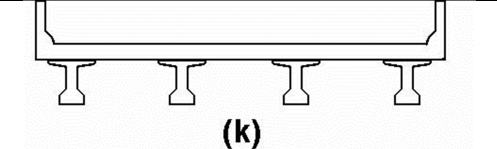
The parameters A and I in Eq. 4.14 shall be taken as those of the noncomposite beam.

The bridge types indicated in tables in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3, with reference to Table 4.3, may be taken as representative of the type of bridge to which each approximate equation applies.

Except as permitted by Article 2.6.2.7.1, regardless of the method of analysis used, i.e., approximate or refined, exterior girders of multibeam bridges shall not have less resistance than an interior beam.

Table 4.3: Common Deck Superstructures Covered in Articles [4.6.2.2.2](#) and [4.6.2.2.3](#).

Supporting Components	Type of Deck	Typical Cross-Section
Steel Beam	Cast-in-place concrete slab, precast concrete slab, steel grid, glued/spiked panels, stressed wood	 (a)
Closed Steel or Precast Concrete Boxes	Cast-in-place concrete slab	 (b)
Open Steel or Precast Concrete Boxes	Cast-in-place concrete slab, precast concrete deck slab	 (c)
Cast-in-Place Concrete Multicell Box	Monolithic concrete	 (d)
Cast-in-Place Concrete Tee Beam	Monolithic concrete	 (e)
Precast Solid, Voids or Cellular Concrete Boxes with Shear Keys	Cast-in-place concrete overlay	 (f)
Precast Solid, Voids, or Cellular Concrete Box with Shear Keys and with or without Transverse Post-Tensioning	Integral concrete	 (g)
Precast Concrete Channel Sections with Shear Keys	Cast-in-place concrete overlay	 (h)
Precast Concrete Double Tee Section with Shear Keys and with or without Transverse Post-Tensioning	Integral concrete	 (i)

Supporting Components	Type of Deck	Typical Cross-Section
Precast Concrete Tee Section with Shear Keys and with or without Transverse Post-Tensioning	Integral concrete	 (j)
Precast Concrete I or Bulb-Tee Sections	Cast-in-place concrete, precast concrete	 (k)

For cast-in-place concrete multi-cell box shown as cross-section Type “d” in [Table 4.3](#), the distribution factors in Article [4.6.2.2.2](#) and [4.6.2.2.3](#) shall be taken to apply to a notional shape consisting of a web, overhangs of an exterior web, and the associated half flanges between a web under consideration and the next adjacent web or webs.

C For more information see [4.10.2](#), Appendix B4.

2. Distribution Factor Method for Moment and Shear

a. Interior Beams with Concrete Decks

The live load flexural moment for interior beams with concrete decks may be determined by applying the lane fraction specified in [Table 4.4](#).

For preliminary design, the terms $K_g/(Lt_s^3)$ and I/J may be taken as 1.0.

For the concrete beams, other than box beams, used in multibeam decks with shear keys:

- Deep, rigid end diaphragms shall be provided to ensure proper load distribution; and
- If the stem spacing of stemmed beams is less than 1.2 m or more than 3 m, a refined analysis complying with Article [4.6.3](#) shall be used.

For multiple steel box girders with a concrete deck in bridges satisfying the requirements of Article [6.11.2.3](#), the live load flexural moment may be determined using the appropriate distribution factor specified in [Table 4.4](#).

Where the spacing of the box girders varies along the length of the bridge, the distribution factor may either be varied at selected locations along the span or else a single distribution factor may be used in conjunction with a suitable value of N_L . In either case, the value of N_L shall be determined as specified in Article [3.6.1.1.1](#), using the width, w , taken at the section under consideration.

C The results of analytical and model studies¹ of simple span multiple box section bridges, reported in [Johnston and Mattock \(1967\)](#), showed that folded plate theory could be used to analyze the behavior of bridges of this type. The folded plate theory was used to obtain the maximum load per girder, produced by various critical combinations of loading on 31 bridges having various spans, numbers of box girders, and numbers of traffic lanes. Multiple presence factors, specified in [Table 3.5](#), are not applied because the multiple factors in past editions of the Standard Specifications were considered in the development of the equation in [Table 4.4](#) for multiple steel box girders.

C The lateral load distribution obtained for simple spans is also considered applicable to continuous structures.

- C The bridges considered in the development of the equations had interior end diaphragms only, i.e., no interior diaphragms within the spans, and no exterior diaphragms anywhere between boxes. If interior or exterior diaphragms are provided within the span, the transverse load distribution characteristics of the bridge will be improved to some degree. This improvement can be evaluated, if desired, using the analysis methods identified in Article 4.4.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Live Loads per Lane for Moment in Interior Beams.

Type of Superstructure	Applicable Cross-Section from Table 4.3	Distribution Factors	Range of Applicability
Concrete Deck, Filled Grid, Partially Filled Grid, or Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab on Steel or Concrete Beams; Concrete T-Beams, T- and Double T-Sections	a, e, k and also i, j if sufficiently connected to act as a unit	One Design Lane Loaded: $0.06 + \left(\frac{S}{4300}\right)^{0.4} \left(\frac{S}{L}\right)^{0.3} \left(\frac{K_g}{Lt_s^3}\right)^{0.1}$ Two or More Design Lanes Loaded: $0.075 + \left(\frac{S}{2900}\right)^{0.6} \left(\frac{S}{L}\right)^{0.2} \left(\frac{K_g}{Lt_s^3}\right)^{0.1}$	$1100 \leq S \leq 4900$ $110 \leq t_s \leq 300$ $6000 \leq L \leq 73\ 000$ $N_b \geq 4$ $4 \times 109 \leq K_g \leq 3 \times 1012$
		use lesser of the values obtained from the equation above with $N_b = 3$ or the lever rule	$N_b = 3$
Cast-in-Place Concrete Multicell Box	d	One Design Lane Loaded: $\left(1.75 + \frac{S}{100}\right) \left(\frac{300}{L}\right)^{0.35} \left(\frac{1}{N_c}\right)^{0.45}$ Two or More Design Lanes Loaded: $\left(\frac{13}{N_c}\right)^{0.3} \left(\frac{S}{430}\right) \left(\frac{1}{L}\right)^{0.25}$	$2100 \leq S \leq 4000$ $18\ 000 \leq L \leq 73\ 000$ $N_c \geq 3$ If $N_c > 8$ use $N_c = 8$
Concrete Deck on Concrete Spread Box Beams	b, c	One Design Lane Loaded: $\left(\frac{S}{910}\right)^{0.35} \left(\frac{Sd}{L^2}\right)^{0.25}$ Two or More Design Lanes Loaded: $\left(\frac{S}{1900}\right)^{0.6} \left(\frac{Sd}{L^2}\right)^{0.125}$	$1800 \leq S \leq 5500$ $6000 \leq L \leq 43\ 000$ $450 \leq d \leq 1700$ $N_b \geq 3$
		Use Lever Rule	$S > 5500$
Concrete Beams used in Multibeam Decks	f	One Design Lane Loaded: $k \left(\frac{b}{2.8L}\right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{I}{J}\right)^{0.25}$ where: $k = 2.5 (N_b)^{-0.2} \geq 1.5$	$900 \leq b \leq 1500$ $6000 \leq L \leq 37\ 000$ $5 \leq N_b \leq 20$
	g if sufficiently connected to act as a unit	Two or More Design Lanes Loaded: $k \left(\frac{b}{7600}\right)^{0.6} \left(\frac{b}{L}\right)^{0.2} \left(\frac{I}{J}\right)^{0.06}$	

Type of Superstructure	Applicable Cross-Section from Table 4.3	Distribution Factors	Range of Applicability												
Concrete Beams used in Multibeam Decks	h	Regardless of Number of Loaded Lanes: S/D where $C=K(W/L) \leq K$ $D=300 [11.5-N_L+1.4N_L(1-0.2C)^2]$ when $C \leq 5$ $D=300(11.5-N_L)$ when $C > 5$ $K = \sqrt{\frac{(1+\mu)I}{J}}$	Skew $\leq 45^\circ$ $N_L \leq 6$												
	g, i, j if connected only enough to	for preliminary design, the following values of K may be used: <table><tr><td>Beam Type</td><td>K</td></tr><tr><td>Nonvoided rectangular beams</td><td>0.7</td></tr><tr><td>Rectangular beams with circular voids:</td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Box section beams</td><td>1.0</td></tr><tr><td>Channel beams</td><td>2.2</td></tr><tr><td>T-beam</td><td>2.0</td></tr><tr><td>Double T-beam</td><td>2.0</td></tr></table>		Beam Type	K	Nonvoided rectangular beams	0.7	Rectangular beams with circular voids:		Box section beams	1.0	Channel beams	2.2	T-beam	2.0
Beam Type	K														
Nonvoided rectangular beams	0.7														
Rectangular beams with circular voids:															
Box section beams	1.0														
Channel beams	2.2														
T-beam	2.0														
Double T-beam	2.0														
Open Steel Grid Deck on Steel Beams	a	One Design Lane Loaded: $S/2300$ If $t_g < 100$ $S/3050$ If $t_g \geq 100$	$S \leq 1800$												
		Two or More Design Lanes Loaded: $S/2400$ If $t_g < 100$ $S/3050$ If $t_g \geq 100$	$S \leq 3200$												
Concrete Deck on Multiple Steel Box Girders	b, c	Regardless of Number of Loaded Lanes: $0.05 + 0.85 \frac{N_L}{N_b} + \frac{0.425}{N_L}$	$0.5 \leq \frac{N_L}{N_b} \leq 1.5$												

b. Interior Beams with Corrugated Steel Decks

The live load flexural moment for interior beams with corrugated steel plank deck may be determined by applying the lane fraction, g, specified in [Table 4.5](#).

Table 4.5: Distribution of Live Load per Lane for Moment in Interior Beams with Corrugated Steel Plank Decks.

One Design Lane Loaded	Two or More Design Lanes Loaded	Range of Applicability
$S/2800$	$S/2700$	$S \leq 1700$ $t_g \geq 50$

c. Exterior Beams

The live load flexural moment for exterior beams may be determined by applying the lane fraction, g, specified in [Table 4.6](#).

The distance, d_e , shall be taken as positive if the exterior web is inboard of the interior face of the traffic railing and negative if it is outboard of the curb or traffic barrier.

In beam-slab bridge cross-sections with diaphragms or cross-frames, the distribution factor for the exterior beam shall not be taken to be less than that which would be obtained by assuming that the cross-section deflects and rotates as a rigid cross-section. The provisions of Article 3.6.1.1.2 shall apply.

- C This additional investigation is required because the distribution factor for girders in a multi-girder cross-section, Types "a," "e," and "k" in Table 4.3, was determined without consideration of diaphragm or cross-frames. The recommended procedure is an interim provision until research provides a better solution.
- C The procedure outlined in this Section is the same as the conventional approximation for loads on piles.

$$R = \frac{N_L}{N_b} + \frac{X_{ext} \sum_{i=1}^{N_L} e}{\sum_{i=1}^{N_b} x^2} \quad (4.16)$$

C where:

- R = reaction on exterior beam in terms of lanes
- N_L = number of loaded lanes under consideration
- e = eccentricity of a design truck or a design lane load from the center of gravity of the pattern of girders (mm)
- x = horizontal distance from the center of gravity of the pattern of girders to each girder (mm)
- x_{ext} = horizontal distance from the center of gravity of the pattern of girders to the exterior girder (mm)
- N_b = number of beams or girders

Table 4.6: Distribution of Live Loads Per Lane for Moment in Exterior Longitudinal Beams

Type of Superstructure	Applicable Cross-Section from Table 4.3	One Design Lane Loaded	Two or More Design Lanes Loaded	Range of Applicability
Concrete Deck, Filled Grid, Partially Filled Grid, or Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab on Steel or Concrete Beams; Concrete T-Beams, T and Double T-Sections	a, e, k and also i, j if sufficiently connected to act as a unit	Lever Rule	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 0.77 + d_e/2800$	$-300 \leq d_e \leq 1700$
			use lesser of the values obtained from the equation above with $N_b = 3$ or the lever rule	$N_b = 3$
Cast-in-Place Concrete Multicell Box	d	$g = W_e / 4300$ or the provisions for a whole-width design specified in Article 4.6.2.2.1 .	$g = W_e / 4300$	$W_e \leq S$
Concrete Deck on Concrete Spread Box Beams	b, c	Lever Rule	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 0.97 + d_e/8700$	$0 \leq d_e \leq 1400$ $1800 < S \leq 5500$
			Use Lever Rule	$S > 5500$
Concrete Box Beams Used in Multibeam Decks	f, g	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 1.125 + d_e/9100 \geq 1$	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 1.04 + d_e/7600 \geq 1$	$d_e \leq 600$
Concrete Beams Other than Box Beams Used in Multibeam Decks	h	Lever Rule	Lever Rule	N/A
	i, j if connected only enough to prevent relative vertical displacement at the interface			
Open Steel Grid Deck on Steel Beams	a	Lever Rule	Lever Rule	N/A
Concrete Deck on Multiple Steel Box Girders	b, c	As specified in Table 4.4		

d. Skewed Bridges

When the line supports are skewed and the difference between skew angles of two adjacent lines of supports does not exceed 10° , the bending moment in the beams may be reduced in accordance with [Table 4.7](#).

C Accepted reduction factors are not currently available for cases not covered in [Table 4.7](#).

Table 4.7: Reduction of Load Distribution Factors for Moment in Longitudinal Beams on Skewed Supports

Type of Superstructure	Applicable Cross-Section from Table 4.3	Any Number of Design Lanes Loaded	Range of Applicability
Concrete Deck, Filled Grid, Partially Filled Grid, or Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab on Steel or Concrete Beams; Concrete T-Beams, T- and Double T-Sections	a, e, k and also i, j if sufficiently connected to act as a unit	$1 - c_l(\tan \theta)^{1.5}$ $c_l = 0.25 \left(\frac{K_g}{Lt_s^3} \right)^{0.25} \left(\frac{S}{L} \right)^{0.5}$ If $\theta < 30^\circ$ then $c_l = 0.0$ If $\theta > 60^\circ$ use $\theta = 60^\circ$	$30^\circ \leq \theta \leq 60^\circ$ $1100 \leq S \leq 4900$ $6000 \leq L \leq 73000$ $N_b \geq 4$
Concrete Deck on Concrete Spread Box Beams, Cast-in-Place Multicell Box Concrete Box Beams and Double T-Sections used in Multibeam Decks	b, c, d, f, g	$1.05 - 0.25 \tan \theta \leq 1.0$ If $\theta > 60^\circ$ use $\theta = 60^\circ$	$0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 60^\circ$

e. Flexural Moments and Shear in Transverse Floorbeams

If the deck is supported directly by transverse floorbeams, the floorbeams may be designed for loads determined in accordance with Table 4.8.

The fractions provided in Table 4.8 shall be used in conjunction with the 145 kN design axle load alone. For spacings of floorbeams outside the given ranges of applicability, all of the design live loads shall be considered, and the lever rule may be used.

Table 4.8: Distribution of Live Load per Lane for Transverse Beams for Moment and Shear

Type of Deck	Fraction of Wheel Load to Each Floor beam	Range of Applicability
Concrete	$S/1800$	$S \leq 1800$
Steel Grid and Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab	$S/1400$	$t_g \leq 100$ $S \leq 1500$
Steel Grid and Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab	$S/1800$	$t_g > 100$ $S \leq 1800$
Steel Bridge Corrugated Plank	$S/1700$	$t_g \geq 50$

3. Distribution Factor Method for Shear

a. Interior Beams

The live load shear for interior beams may be determined by applying the lane fractions specified in Table 4.9. For interior beam types not listed in Table 4.9, lateral

distribution of the wheel or axle adjacent to the end of span shall be that produced by use of the lever rule.

For preliminary design, the term (I/J) may be taken as 1.0.

For concrete box beams used in multi-beam decks, if the values of I or J do not comply with the limitations in [Table 4.9](#), the distribution factor for shear may be taken as that for moment.

b. Exterior Beams

The live load shear for exterior beams shall be determined by applying the lane fractions specified in [Table 4.10](#). For cases not addressed in [Table 4.9](#) and [Table 4.10](#), the live load distribution to exterior beams shall be determined by using the lever rule.

The parameter d_e shall be taken as positive if the exterior web is inboard of the curb or traffic barrier and negative if it is outboard.

The additional provisions for exterior beams in beam-slab bridges with cross-frames or diaphragms, specified in Articles [4.6.2.2.2.c](#), shall apply.

Table 4.9: Distribution of Live Load per Lane for Shear in Interior Beams

Type of Superstructure	Applicable Cross-Section from Table 4.3	One Design Lane Loaded	Two or More Design Lanes Loaded	Range of Applicability
Concrete Deck, Filled Grid, Partially filled Grid, or Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab on Steel or Concrete Beams; Concrete T-Beams, T- and Double T-Sections	a, e, k and also i, j if sufficiently connected to act as a unit	$0.36 + \frac{S}{7600}$	$0.2 + \frac{S}{3600} - \left(\frac{S}{10700}\right)^2$	$1100 \leq S \leq 4900$ $6000 \leq L \leq 73\ 000$ $110 \leq t_s \leq 300$ $N_b \geq 4$
		Lever Rule	Lever Rule	$N_b = 3$
Cast-in-Place Concrete Multicell Box	d	$\left(\frac{S}{2900}\right)^{0.6} \left(\frac{d}{L}\right)^{0.1}$	$\left(\frac{S}{2200}\right)^{0.9} \left(\frac{d}{L}\right)^{0.1}$	$1800 \leq S \leq 4000$ $6000 \leq L \leq 73000$ $890 \leq d \leq 2800$ $N_e \geq 3$
Concrete Deck on Concrete Spread Box Beams	b, c	$\left(\frac{S}{3050}\right)^{0.6} \left(\frac{d}{L}\right)^{0.1}$	$\left(\frac{S}{2250}\right)^{0.8} \left(\frac{d}{L}\right)^{0.1}$	$1800 \leq S \leq 5500$ $6000 \leq L \leq 43000$ $450 \leq d \leq 1700$ $N_c \geq 3$
		Lever Rule	Lever Rule	$S > 5500$
Concrete Box Beams Used in Multibeam Decks	f, g	$0.70 \left(\frac{b}{L}\right)^{0.15} \left(\frac{I}{J}\right)^{0.05}$	$\left(\frac{b}{4000}\right)^{0.4} \left(\frac{b}{L}\right)^{0.1} \left(\frac{I}{J}\right)^{0.05} \left(\frac{b}{1200}\right)$ $\frac{b}{1200} \geq 1.0$	$900 \leq b \leq 1500$ $6000 \leq L \leq 73000$ $5 \leq N_b \leq 20$ $1.0 \times 10^{10} \leq J \leq 2.5 \times 10^{10}$ $1.7 \times 10^{10} \leq I \leq 2.5 \times 10^{10}$
Concrete Beams Other Than Box Beams Used in Multibeam Decks	h i, j if connected only enough to prevent relative vertical displacement at the interface	Lever Rule	Lever Rule	N/A
Open Steel Grid Deck on Steel Beams	a	Lever Rule	Lever Rule	N/A
Concrete Deck on Multiple Steel Box Beams	b, c	As specified in Table 4.4		

Table 4.10: Distribution of Live Load per Lane for Shear in Exterior Beams

Type of Superstructure	Applicable Cross-Section from Table 4.3	One Design Lane Loaded	Two or More Design Lanes Loaded	Range of Applicability
Concrete Deck, Filled Grid, Partially Filled Grid, or Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab on Steel or Concrete Beams; Concrete T-Beams, T- and Double T-Beams	a, e, k and also i, j if sufficiently connected to act as a unit	Lever Rule	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 0.6 + \frac{d_e}{3000}$	$-300 \leq d_e \leq 1700$
			Lever Rule	$N_b = 3$
Cast-in-Place Concrete Multicell Box	d	Lever Rule	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 0.64 + d_e / 3800$	$-600 \leq d_e \leq 1500$
		or the provisions for a whole-width design specified in Article 4.6.2.2.1.		
Concrete Deck on Concrete Spread Box Beams	b, c	Lever Rule	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 0.8 + d_e / 3050$	$0 \leq d_e \leq 1400$
			Lever Rule	$S > 5500$
Concrete Box Beams Used in Multibeam Decks	f, g	$g = e g_{interior}$ $e = 1.25 + \frac{d_e}{6100} \geq 1.0$	$g = e g_{interior} \left(\frac{1200}{b} \right)$ $\frac{1200}{b} \leq 1.0$ $e = 1 + \left(\frac{d_e + b - 610}{12200} \right)^{0.5} \geq 1$	$d_e \leq 600$ $900 \leq b \leq 1500$
Concrete Beams Other Than Box Beams Used in Multibeam Decks	h	Lever Rule	Lever Rule	N/A
	i, j if connected only enough to prevent relative vertical displacement at the interface			
Open Steel Grid Deck on Steel Beams	A	Lever Rule	Lever Rule	N/A
Concrete Deck on Multiple Steel Box Beams	b, c	As specified in Table 4.4		

c. Skewed Bridges

Shear in the exterior beam at the obtuse corner of the bridge shall be adjusted when the line of support is skewed. The value of the correction factor shall be obtained from Table 4.11. It is applied to the lane fraction specified in Table 4.9 for interior beams and in Table 4.10 for exterior beams.

In determining the end shear in multibeam bridges, the skew correction at the obtuse corner shall be applied to all the beams.

- C Verifiable correction factors are not available for cases not covered in [Table 4.11](#).
- C The equal treatment of all beams in a multi-beam bridge is conservative regarding positive reaction and shear. However, it is not necessarily conservative regarding uplift in the case of large skew and short exterior spans of continuous beams. A supplementary investigation of uplift should be considered using the correction factor from [Table 4.11](#), i.e., the terms other than 1.0, taken as negative for the exterior beam at the acute corner.

Table 4.11: Correction Factors for Load Distribution Factors for Support Shear of the Obtuse Corner

Type of Superstructure	Applicable Cross-Section from Table 4.3	Correction Factor	Range of Applicability
Concrete Deck, Filled Grid, Partially Filled Grid, or Unfilled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab on Steel or Concrete Beams; Concrete T-Beams, T- and Double T-Section	a, e, k and also i, j if sufficiently connected to act as a unit	$1.0 + 0.20 \left(\frac{Lt_s^3}{K_g} \right)^{0.3} \tan \theta$	$0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 60^\circ$ $1100 \leq S \leq 4900$ $6000 \leq L \leq 73000$ $N_b \geq 4$
Cast-in-Place Concrete Multicell Box	d	$1.0 + \left(0.25 + \frac{L}{70d} \right) \tan \theta$	$0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 60^\circ$ $1800 \leq S \leq 4000$ $6000 \leq L \leq 73000$ $900 \leq d \leq 2700$ $N_c \geq 3$
Concrete Deck on Spread Concrete Box Beams	b, c	$1.0 + \frac{\sqrt{Ld}}{6S} \tan \theta$	$0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 60^\circ$ $1800 \leq S \leq 3500$ $6000 \leq L \leq 43000$ $450 \leq d \leq 1700$ $N_b \geq 3$
Concrete Box Beams Used in Multibeam Decks	f, g	$1.0 + \frac{L\sqrt{\tan \theta}}{90d}$	$0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 60^\circ$ $6000 \leq L \leq 37000$ $430 \leq d \leq 1500$ $900 \leq d \leq 1500$ $5 \leq N_b \leq 20$

4. Curved Steel Bridges

Approximate analysis methods may be used for analysis of curved steel bridges. The Engineer shall ascertain that the approximate analysis method used is appropriate by confirming that the method satisfies the requirements stated in Article [4.4](#).

In curved systems, consideration should be given to placing parapets, sidewalks, barriers and other heavy line loads at their actual location on the bridge. Wearing surface and other distributed loads may be assumed uniformly distributed to each girder in the cross-section.

- C The V-load method (United States Steel, 1984) has been a widely used approximate method for analyzing horizontally curved steel I-girder bridges. The method assumes that the internal torsional load on the bridge resulting solely from the curvature--is resisted by self equilibrating sets of shears between adjacent girders.
- C The V-load method does not directly account for sources of torque other than curvature and the method does not account for the horizontal shear stiffness of the concrete deck. The method is only

valid for loads such as normal highway loadings. For exceptional loadings, a more refined analysis is required. The method assumes a linear distribution of girder shears across the bridge section; thus, the girders at a given cross-section should have approximately the same vertical stiffness. The V-load method is also not directly applicable to structures with reverse curvature or to a closed-framed system with horizontal lateral bracing near, or in the plane of one or both flanges. The V-load method does not directly account for girder twist; thus, lateral deflections, which become important on bridges with large spans and/or sharp skews and vertical deflections, may be significantly underestimated. In certain situations, the V-load method may not detect uplift at end bearings. The method is best suited for preliminary design, but may also be suitable for final design of structures with radial supports or supports skewed less than approximately 10° .

- C The M/R method provides a means to account for the effect of curvature in curved box girder bridges. The method and suggested limitations on its use are discussed by [Tung and Fountain \(1970\)](#).
- C Vertical reactions at interior supports on the concave side of continuous-span bridges may be significantly underestimated by both the V-load and M/R methods.
- C Live load distribution factors for use with the V-load and M/R methods may be determined using the appropriate provisions of Article [4.6.2.2](#).
- C Strict rules and limitations on the applicability of both of these approximate methods do not exist. The Engineer must determine when approximate methods of analysis are appropriate.

5. Special Loads with Other Traffic

Except as specified herein, the provisions of this Article may be applied where the approximate methods of analysis for the analysis of beam-slab bridges specified in Article [4.6.2.2](#) and slab-type bridges specified in Article [4.6.2.3](#) are used. The provisions of this Article shall not be applied where either:

- The lever rule has been specified for both single lane and multiple lane loadings, or
- The special requirement for exterior girders of beam-slab bridge cross-sections with diaphragms specified in Article [4.6.2.2.c](#) has been utilized for simplified analysis.

Force effects resulting from heavy vehicles in one lane with routine traffic in adjacent lanes, such as might be considered with Load Combination Strength II in [Table 3.1](#) may be determined as:

$$G = G_p \left(\frac{g_l}{Z} \right) + G_D \left(g_m - \frac{g_l}{Z} \right) \quad (4.17)$$

where:

- G = final force effect applied to a girder (kN or kN-mm)
- G_p = force effect due to overload truck (kN or kN-mm)
- g_l = single lane live load distribution factor
- G_D = force effect due to design loads (kN or kN-mm)
- g_m = multiple lane live load distribution factor
- Z = a factor taken as 1.20 where the lever rule was not utilized, and 1.0 where the lever rule was used for a single lane live load distribution factor

- C Because the number of loaded lanes used to determine the multiple lane live load distribution factor, g_m , is not known, the multiple lane multiple presence factor, m , is implicitly set equal to 1.0 in this equation, which assumes only two lanes are loaded, resulting in a conservative final force effect over using the multiple presence factors for three or more lanes loaded.
- C The factor Z is used to distinguish between situations where the single lane live load distribution factor was determined from a specified algebraic equation and situations where the lever rule was specified for the determination of the single lane live load distribution factor. In the situation where an

algebraic equation was specified, the multiple presence factor of 1.20 for a single lane loaded has been included in the algebraic equation and must be removed by using $Z=1.20$ in Eq. (4.17) so that the distribution factor can be utilized in Eq. (4.17) to determine the force effect resulting from a multiple lane loading.

- C This formula was developed from a similar formula presented without investigation by Modjeski and Masters, Inc. (1994) in a report to the Pennsylvania Department of Transportation in 1994, as was examined in Zokaie (1998).

4.6.2.3. Equivalent Strip Widths for Slab-Type Bridges

This Article shall be applied to the types of cross-sections shown schematically in Table 4.12. For the purpose of this Article, cast-in-place voided slab bridges may be considered as slab bridges.

The equivalent width of longitudinal strips per lane for both shear and moment with one lane, i.e., two lines of wheels, loaded may be determined as:

$$E = 250 + 0.42\sqrt{L_1 W_1} \quad (4.18)$$

- C In Eq. (4.18), the strip width has been divided by 1.20 to account for the multiple presence effect.

The equivalent width of longitudinal strips per lane for both shear and moment with more than one lane loaded may be determined as:

$$E = 2100 + 0.12\sqrt{L_1 W_1} \leq \frac{W}{N_L} \quad (4.19)$$

where:

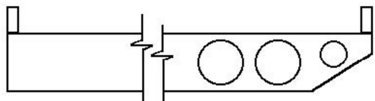
- E = equivalent width (mm)
 L_1 = modified span length taken equal to the lesser of the actual span or 18 000 (mm)
 W_1 = modified edge-to-edge width of bridge taken to be equal to the lesser of the actual width or 18 000 for multilane loading, or 9000 for single-lane loading (mm)
 W = physical edge-to-edge width of bridge (mm)
 N_L = number of design lanes as specified in Article 3.6.1.1.1

For skewed bridges, the longitudinal force effects may be reduced by the factor r :

$$r = 1.05 - 0.25 \tan \theta \leq 1.00 \quad (4.20)$$

where θ = skew angle ($^\circ$)

Table 4.12: Typical Schematic Cross-Section.

Supporting Components	Type of Deck	Typical Cross-Section
Cast-in-Place Concrete Slab or Voided Slab	Monolithic	

4.6.2.4. Truss and Arch Bridges

The lever rule may be used for the distribution of gravity loads in trusses and arches when analyzed as planar structures. If a space analysis is used, either the lever rule or direct loading through the deck or deck system may be used.

Where loads, other than the self-weight of the members and wind loads thereon, are transmitted to the truss at the panel points, the truss may be analyzed as a pin-connected assembly.

4.6.2.5. Effective Length Factor, K

Physical column lengths shall be multiplied by an effective length factor, K , to compensate for rotational and translational boundary conditions other than pinned ends.

Theoretical values of K , as provided by the **Structural Stability Research Council**, are given in [Table 4.13](#) for some idealized column end conditions.

Table 4.13 : Effective Length Factors, K .

Buckled shape of column is shown by dashed line	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)
Theoretical K value	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.0	2.0	2.0
Design value of K when ideal conditions are approximated	0.65	0.8	1.0	1.2	2.1	2.0
End condition code		Rotation fixed Rotation free Rotation fixed Rotation free		Translation fixed Translation fixed Translation free Translation free		

In the absence of a more refined analysis, where lateral stability is provided by diagonal bracing or other suitable means, the effective length factor in the braced plane, K , for the compression members in triangulated trusses, trusses, and frames may be taken as:

- For bolted or welded end connections at both ends: $K = 0.750$
- For pinned connections at both ends: $K = 0.875$
- For single angles, regardless of end connection: $K = 1.0$

Vierendeel trusses shall be treated as unbraced frames.

4.6.2.6. Effective Flange Width

1. General

Unless specified otherwise in this Article or in Articles [4.6.2.6.2](#), [4.6.2.6.3](#), or [4.6.2.6.5](#), the effective flange width of a concrete deck slab in composite or monolithic construction may be taken as the tributary width perpendicular to the axis of the member for determining cross-section stiffness for analysis and for determining flexural resistances. The effective flange width of orthotropic steel decks shall be as

specified in Article 4.6.2.6.4. For the calculation of live load deflections, where required, the provisions of Article 2.6.2.6.2 shall apply.

Where a structurally continuous concrete barrier is present and is included in the structural analysis as permitted in Article 4.5.1, the deck slab overhang width used for the analysis as well as for checking the composite girder resistance may be extended by:

$$\Delta w = \frac{A_b}{2t_s} \quad (4.21)$$

A_b = cross-sectional area of the barrier (mm²)

T_s = thickness of deck slab (mm)

The slab effective flange width in composite girder and/or stringer systems or in the chords of composite deck trusses may be taken as one-half the distance to the adjacent stringer or girder on each side of the component, or one-half the distance to the adjacent stringer or girder plus the fill overhang width.

Otherwise, the slab effective flange width should be determined by a refined analysis when:

- the composite or monolithic member crosssection is subjected to significant combined axial force and bending, with the exception that forces induced by restraint of thermal expansion may be determined in beam-slab systems using the slab tributary width,
- the largest skew angle θ in the bridge system is greater than 75-degree. where θ is the angle of a bearing line measured relative to a normal to the centerline of a longitudinal component,
- the slab spans longitudinally between transverse floorbeams, or
- the slab is designed for two-wave action.

C For more information see Article 4.10.3. Appendix B4.

2. Segmental Concrete Box Beams and Single-Cell, Cast-in-Place Box Beams

- C One possible alternative to the procedure specified in this Article is contained in **Clause 3-10.2 of the 1991 Ontario Highway Bridge Design Code**, which provides an equation for determining the effective flange width for use in calculating flexural resistances and stresses.
- C Superposition of local two-way slab flexural stresses due to wheel loads and the primary longitudinal flexural stresses is not normally required.

The effective flange width may be assumed equal to the physical flange width if:

$$b \leq 0.1 l_i$$

$$b \leq 0.3 d_o$$

Otherwise, the effective width of outstanding flanges may be taken as specified in **Figure 4.1** through **Figure 4.4**.

where:

d_o = depth of superstructure (mm)

- b = physical flange width on each side of the web, e.g., b_1 , b_2 , and b_3 , as shown in [Figure 4.3](#) (mm)
- b_e = effective flange width corresponding to the particular position of the section of interest in the span as specified in [Figure 4.1](#) (mm)
- b_m = effective flange width for interior portions of a span as determined from [Figure 4.2](#); a special case of b_e (mm)
- b_s = effective flange width at interior support or for cantilever arm as determined from [Figure 4.2](#); a special case of b_e (mm)
- a = portion of span subject to a transition in effective flange width taken as the lesser of the physical flange width on each side of the web shown in [Figure 4.3](#) or one quarter of the span length (mm)
- l_i = a notional span length specified in [Figure 4.1](#) for the purpose of determining effective flange widths using [Figure 4.2](#).

- C The effective flange widths b_m and b_s are determined as the product of the coefficient in [Figure 4.2](#) and the physical distance b , as indicated in [Figure 4.3](#).

The following interpretations apply:

- In any event, the effective flange width shall not be taken as greater than the physical width.
- The effects of unsymmetrical loading on the effective flange width may be disregarded.
- The value of b_s shall be determined using the greater of the effective span lengths adjacent to the support.
- If b_m is less than b_s in a span, the pattern of the effective width within the span may be determined by the connecting line of the effective widths b_s at adjoining support points.

For the superposition of local and global force effects, the distribution of stresses due to the global force effects may be assumed to have a straight line pattern in accordance with [Figure 4.3c](#). The linear stress distribution should be determined from the constant stress distribution using the conditions that the flange force remains unchanged and that the maximum width of the linear stress distribution on each side of a web is 2.0 times the effective flange width.

- C If the linear stress distributions intersect a free edge or each other before reaching the maximum width, the linear stress distribution is a trapezoid; otherwise, it is a triangle. This is shown in [Figure 4.3c](#).

The section properties for normal forces may be based on the pattern according to [Figure 4.4](#) or determined by more rigorous analysis.

- C [Figure 4.4](#) is intended only for calculation of resistance due to anchorage of post-tensioning tendons and other concentrated forces and may be disregarded in the general analysis to determine force effects.

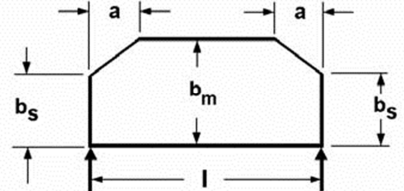
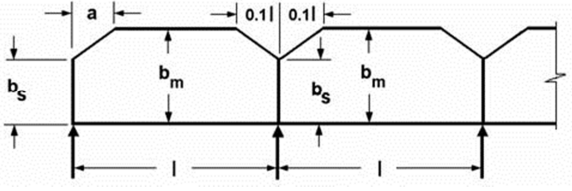
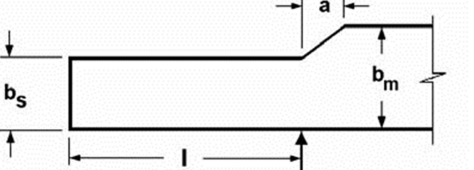
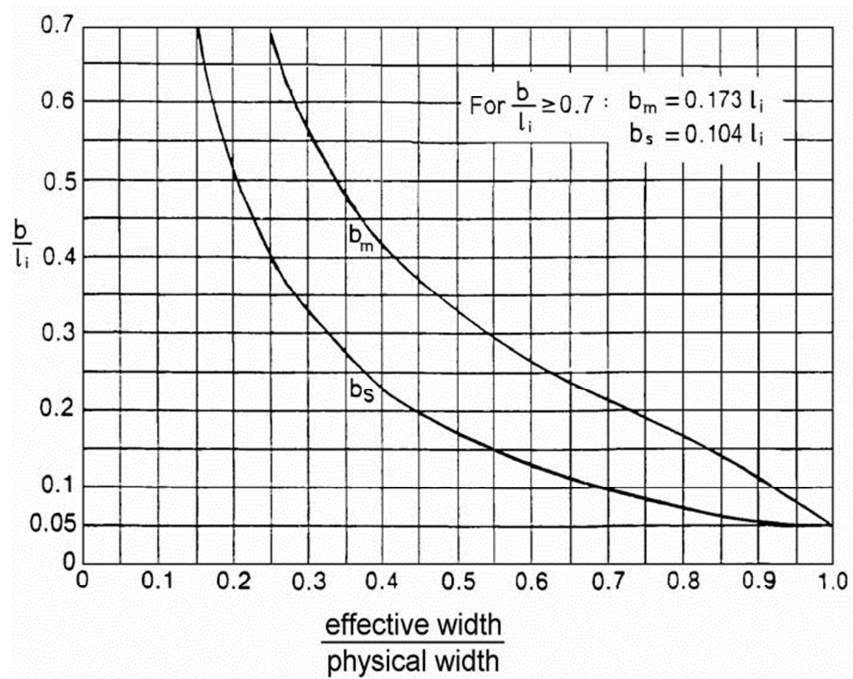
System		Pattern of b_m/b
Single-Span Girder $l_i = 1.0 l$		
Continuous Girder	End Span $l_i = 0.8 l$	
	Interior Span $l_i = 0.6 l$	
Cantilever Arm $l_i = 1.5 l$		

Figure 4.1: Pattern of Effective Flange Width, b_e , b_m and b_s .Figure 4.2: Values of the Effective Flange Width Coefficients for b_m and b_s for the Given Values of b/l_i

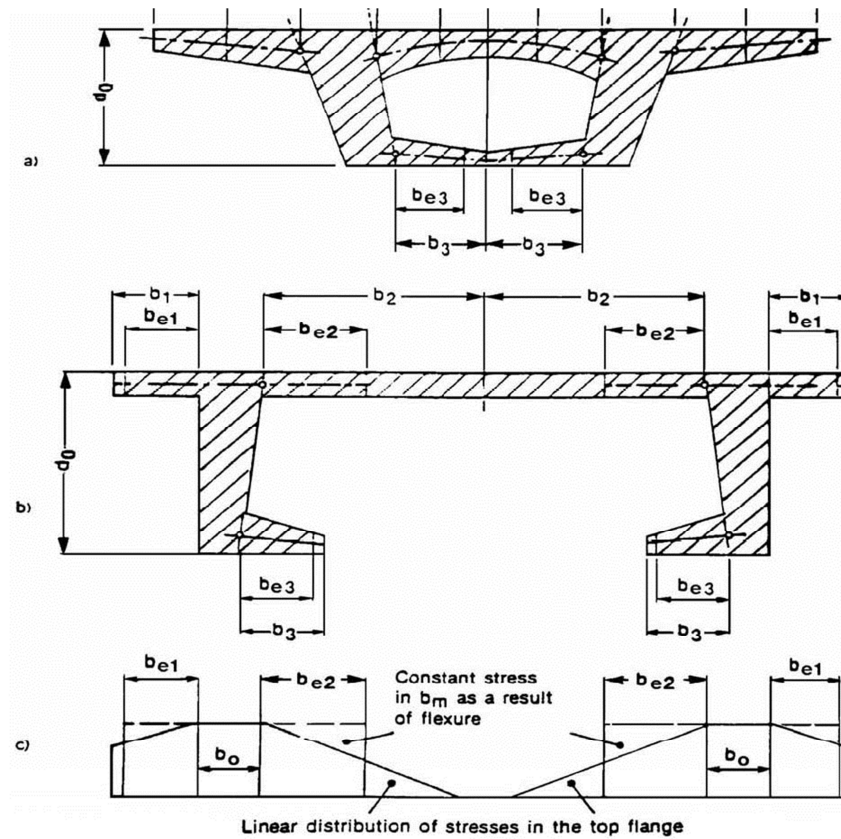


Figure 4.3: Cross-Sections and Corresponding Effective Flange Widths, b_e , for Flexure and Shear.

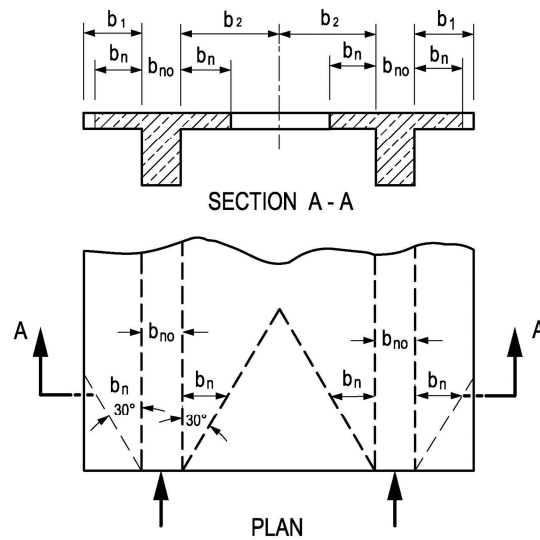


Figure 4.4: Effective Flange Widths, b_n , for Normal Forces.

3. Cast-in-Place Multi-cell Superstructures

The effective width for cast-in-place multi-web cellular superstructures may be taken to be as specified in Article [4.6.2.6.1](#), with each web taken to be a beam, or it may be taken to be the full width of the deck slab.

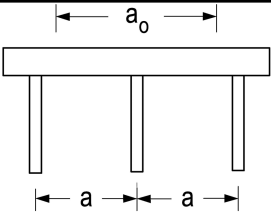
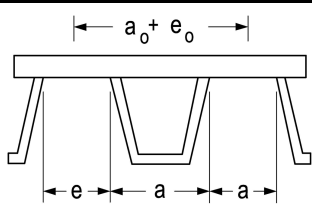
In the latter case, the effects of shear lag in the end zones shall be investigated.

4. Orthotropic Steel Decks

The effective width of the deck plate acting as the top flange of one longitudinal stiffener, or one rib, shall be as specified in [Table 4.14](#).

- C The assumption of effective width equal to actual rib spacing is permissible for calculations of relative rigidity ratio by the **Pelikan-Esslinger method** and for flexural effects of uniformly distributed load. See **discussion in Wolchuk (1963)**.
- C The effective width of the deck plate for flexural effects due to wheel loads is based on unequal loads on individual ribs. The specified value is an average based on more exact calculations.
- C Note that variation of the effective width of the deck plate does not significantly affect the rib rigidity or section modulus of the rib bottom.

Table 4.14: Effective Width of Deck Plate Acting with a Rib

Calculation of		
Rib section properties for calculation of deck rigidity and flexural effects due to dead loads	$a_0 = a$	$a_0 + e_0 = a + e$
Rib section properties for calculation of flexural effects due to wheel loads	$a_0 = 1.1 a$	$a_0 + e_0 = 1.3(a + e)$

The effective width of the deck, including the deck plate and the ribs, acting as the top flange of a longitudinal superstructure component or a transverse beam may be determined as specified in [Figure 4.5](#).

The effective span, shown as L_1 and L_2 in [Figure 4.5](#), shall be taken as the actual span for simple spans and the distance between points of dead load inflection for continuous spans.

- C The development of this Figure is explained in **Moffatt and Dowling (1975 and 1976)**; the particular adaptation is from **Wolchuk (1990)**.
- C [Figure 4.5](#) was originally developed to determine the effective width of deck to be considered active with each web of a box girder but is believed to be adequate for use with other types of beams.

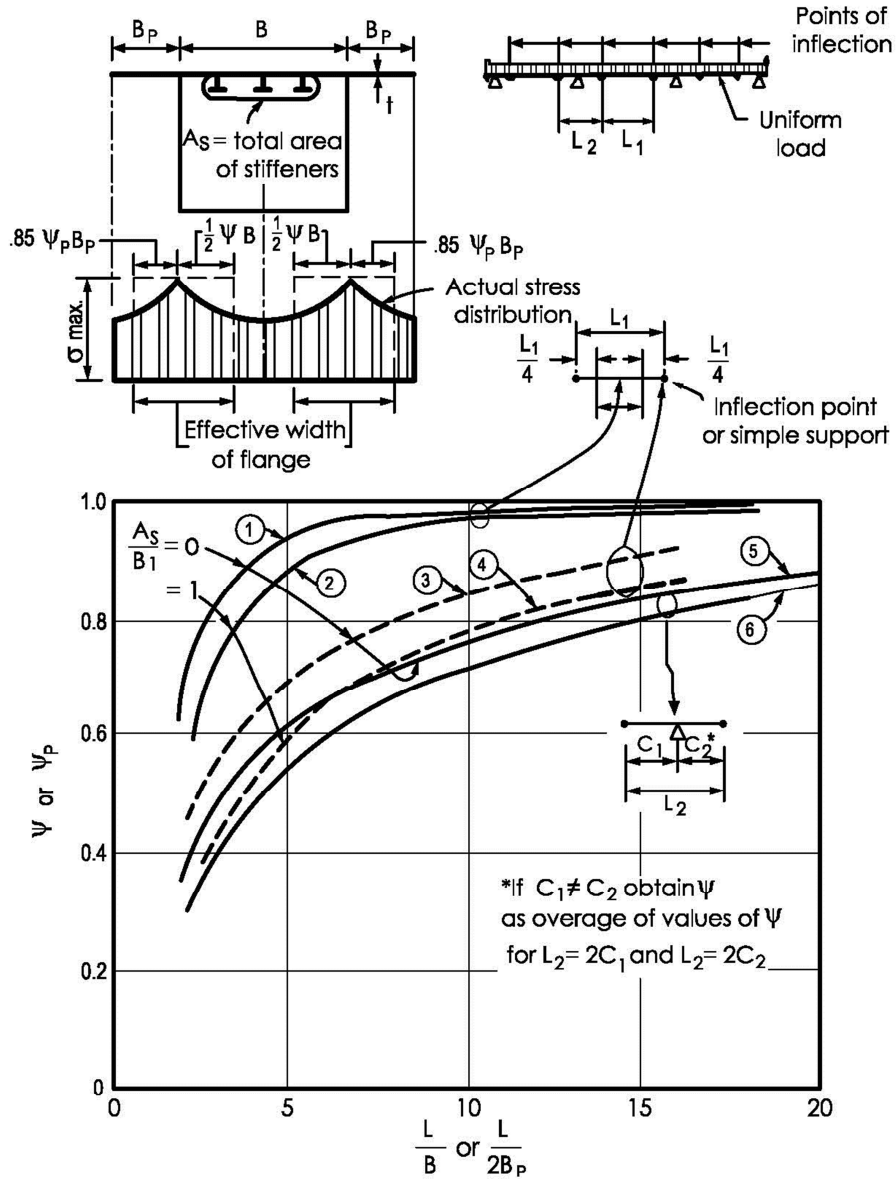


Figure 4.5: Effective Width of Deck

The following notation applies when using [Figure 4.5](#) to determine the effective width of the deck plate acting with a transverse beam:

- B = spacing as shown in [Figure 4.5](#) (mm)
- L_1, L_2 = distances between points of inflection as shown in [Figure 4.5](#) (mm)
- A_s = total area of stiffeners (mm²)
- t = thickness of flange plate (mm)

For cantilever portions of transverse beams, L shall be taken as 2.0 times the length of the cantilever.

5. Transverse Floor-beams and Integral Bent Caps

For transverse floor-beams and for integral bent caps designed with a composite concrete deck slab, the effective flange width overhanging each side of the transverse floor-beam or bent cap web shall not exceed six times the least slab thickness or one-tenth of the span length. For cantilevered transverse floor-beams or integral bent caps, the span length shall be taken as two times the length of the cantilever span.

4.6.2.7. Lateral Wind Load Distribution in Multi-beam Bridges

1. I-Sections

In bridges with composite decks, non-composite decks with concrete haunches, and other decks that can provide horizontal diaphragm action, wind load on the upper half of the outside beam, the deck, vehicles, barriers, and appurtenances shall be assumed to be directly transmitted to the deck, acting as a lateral diaphragm carrying this load to supports. Wind load on the lower half of the outside beam shall be assumed to be applied laterally to the lower flange.

For bridges with decks that cannot provide horizontal diaphragm action, the lever rule shall apply for distribution of the wind load to the top and bottom flanges.

Bottom and top flanges subjected to lateral wind load shall be assumed to carry that load to adjacent brace points by flexural action. Such brace points occur at wind bracing nodes or at cross-frames and diaphragm locations.

The lateral forces applied at brace points by the flanges shall be transmitted to the supports by one of the following load paths:

- Truss action of horizontal wind bracing in the plane of the flange;
- Frame action of the cross-frames or diaphragms transmitting the forces into the deck or the wind bracing in the plane of the other flange, and then by diaphragm action of the deck, or truss action of the wind bracing, to the supports;
- Lateral bending of the flange subjected to the lateral forces and all other flanges in the same plane, transmitting the forces to the ends of the span, for example, where the deck cannot provide horizontal diaphragm action, and there is no wind bracing in the plane of either flange.

C For more information see Article [4.10.4](#), Appendix B4.

2. Box Sections

One quarter of the wind force on a box section shall be applied to the bottom flange of the exterior box beam.

The section assumed to resist the wind force shall consist of the bottom flange and a part of the web as determined in Sections 5 and 6. The other three quarters of the wind force on a box section, plus the wind force on vehicles, barriers, and appurtenances, shall be assumed to be transmitted to the supports by diaphragm action of the deck.

Inter-box lateral bracing shall be provided if the section assumed to resist the wind force is not adequate.

3. Construction

The need for temporary wind bracing during construction shall be investigated for I- and box-section bridges.

4.6.2.8. Seismic Lateral Load Distribution

1. Applicability

These provisions shall apply to diaphragms, cross-frames, and lateral bracing, which are part of the seismic lateral force resisting system in common slab-on-girder bridges in Seismic Design Categories B, C, and D. The provisions of Article [3.9.9.2](#) shall apply to Seismic Design Category A.

2. Design Criteria

The Engineer shall demonstrate that a clear, straightforward load path to the substructure exists and that all components and connections are capable of resisting the imposed load effects consistent with the chosen load path.

The flow of forces in the assumed load path must be accommodated through all affected components and details including, but not limited to, flanges and webs of main beams or girders, cross-frames, connections, slab-to-girder interfaces, and all components of the bearing assembly from top flange interface through the confinement of anchor bolts or similar devices in the substructure.

- C Diaphragms, cross-frames, lateral bracing, bearings, and substructure elements are part of a seismic load resisting system in which the lateral loads and performance of each element are affected by the strength and stiffness characteristics of the other elements. Past earthquakes have shown that when one of these elements responded in a ductile manner or allowed some movement, damage was limited. In the strategy taken herein, it is assumed that ductile plastic hinging in substructure is the primary source of energy dissipation.
- C Alternative design strategies may be considered if approved by the Owner.

The analysis and design of end diaphragms and cross-frames shall consider horizontal supports at an appropriate number of bearings. Slenderness and connection requirements of bracing members that are part of the lateral force resisting system shall comply with applicable provisions specified for main member design.

Members of diaphragms and cross-frames identified by the Designer as part of the load path carrying seismic forces from the superstructure to the bearings shall be designed and detailed to remain elastic, based on the applicable gross area criteria, under all design earthquakes, regardless of the type of bearings used. The applicable provisions for the design of main members shall apply.

3. Load Distribution

- C A continuous path is necessary for the transmission of the superstructure inertia forces to the foundation.
- C Concrete decks have significant rigidity in their horizontal plane, and in short to medium slab-on-girder spans, their response approaches a rigid body motion.
- C Therefore, the lateral loading of the intermediate diaphragms and cross-frames is minimal.
- C Bearings do not usually resist load simultaneously, and damage to only some of the bearings at one end of a span is not uncommon. When this occurs, high load concentrations can result at the location of the other bearings, which should be taken into account in the design of the end cross-frames or diaphragms. Also, a significant change in the load distribution among end cross-frame members may occur. Although studies of cyclic load behavior of bracing systems have shown that with adequate details, bracing systems can allow for ductile behavior, these design provisions require elastic behavior in end diaphragms ([Astaneh-Asl and Gael, 1984](#); [Astaneh-Asl et al., 1985](#); [Haroun and Sheperd, 1986](#); [Gael and El-Tayem, 1986](#)).

A viable load path shall be established to transmit lateral loads to the foundation based on the stiffness characteristics of the deck, diaphragms, cross-frames, and lateral

bracing. Unless a more refined analysis is made, an approximate load path shall be assumed as noted below.

- In bridges with:
 - A concrete deck that can provide horizontal diaphragm action, or
 - A horizontal bracing system in the plane of the top flange, the lateral loads applied to the deck shall be assumed to be transmitted directly to the bearings through end diaphragms or crossframes.
 - The development and analysis of the load path through the deck or through the top lateral bracing, if present, shall utilize assumed structural actions analogous to those used for the analysis of wind loadings.
 - In bridges that have:
 - Decks that cannot provide horizontal diaphragm action and
 - No lateral bracing in the plane of the top flange,
 the lateral loads applied to the deck shall be distributed through the intermediate diaphragms and cross-frames to the bottom lateral bracing or the bottom flange, and then to the bearings, and through the end diaphragms and cross-frames, in proportion to their relative rigidity and the respective tributary mass of the deck.
- C Because the end diaphragm is required to remain elastic as part of the identified load path, stressing of intermediate cross-frames need not be considered.
- If a bottom lateral bracing system is not present, and the bottom flange is not adequate to carry the imposed force effects, the first procedure shall be used, and the deck shall be designed and detailed to provide the necessary horizontal diaphragm action.

4.6.2.9. Analysis of Segmental Concrete Bridges

1. General

- C Analysis of concrete segmental bridges requires consideration of variation of design parameters with time as well as a specific construction schedule and method of erection. This, in turn, requires the use of a computer program developed to trace the time-dependent response of segmentally erected prestressed concrete bridges through construction and under service loads. Among the many programs developed for this purpose, several are in the public domain and may be purchased for a nominal amount, e.g., (Ketchum, 1986; Shushkewich, 1986; Danon and Gamble, 1977).

Elastic analysis and beam theory may be used to determine design moments, shears, and deflections. The effects of creep, shrinkage, and temperature differentials shall be considered as well as the effects of shear lag.

Shear lag shall be considered in accordance with the provisions of Article [4.6.2.9.3](#).

For spans in excess of 75 m, results of elastic analyses should be evaluated with consideration of possible variations in the modulus of elasticity of the concrete, variations in the concrete creep and shrinkage properties, and the impact of variations in the construction schedule on these and other design parameters.

2. Strut-and-Tie Models

Strut-and-tie models may be used for analysis in areas of load or geometrical discontinuity.

- C See references for background on transverse analysis of concrete box girder bridges.

3. Effective Flange Width

Effective flange width for service load stress calculations may be determined by the provisions of Article [4.6.2.6.2](#).

The section properties for normal forces may be based on [Figure 4.4](#) or determined by more rigorous analysis.

Bending, shear, and normal forces may be evaluated by using the corresponding factored resistances.

The capacity of a cross-section at the strength limit state may be determined by considering the full compression flange width effect.

4. Transverse Analysis

The transverse design of box girder segments for flexure shall consider the segment as a rigid box frame.

Flanges shall be analyzed as variable depth sections, considering the fillets between the flanges and webs.

Wheel loads shall be positioned to provide maximum moments, and elastic analysis shall be used to determine the effective longitudinal distribution of wheel loads for each load location. Consideration shall be given to the increase in web shear and other effects on the cross-section resulting from eccentric loading or unsymmetrical structure geometry.

The provisions of Articles [4.6.2.1](#) and [4.6.3.2](#), influence surfaces such as those by Homborg (1968) and Pucher (1964), or other elastic analysis procedures may be used to evaluate live load plus impact moment effects in the top flange of the box section.

Transverse elastic and creep shortening due to prestressing and shrinkage shall be considered in the transverse analysis.

The effect of secondary moments due to prestressing shall be included in stress calculations at the service limit state and construction evaluation. At the strength limit state, the secondary force effects induced by prestressing, with a load factor of 1.0, shall be added algebraically to the force effects due to factored dead and live loads and other applicable loads.

5. Longitudinal Analysis

a. General

Longitudinal analysis of segmental concrete bridges shall consider a specific construction method and construction schedule as well as the time-related effects of concrete creep, shrinkage, and prestress losses.

The effect of secondary moments due to prestressing shall be included in stress calculations at the service limit state. At the strength limit state, the secondary force effects induced by prestressing, with a load factor of 1.0, shall be added algebraically to other applicable factored loads.

b. Erection Analysis

Analysis of the structure during any construction stage shall consider the construction load combinations, stresses, and stability considerations specified in Article [5.18.2.3](#).

c. Analysis of the Final Structural System

The provisions of Article 5.18.2.2.3 shall apply.

4.6.2.10. Equivalent Strip Widths for Box Culverts

1. General

This Article shall be applied to box culverts with depths of fill less than 600 mm.

- C Design for depths of fill of 600 mm or greater are covered in Article 3.6.1.2.6.

2. Case 1: Traffic Travels Parallel to Span

When traffic travels primarily parallel to the span, culverts shall be analyzed for a single loaded lane with the single lane multiple presence factor.

- C Culverts are designed under the provisions of Section 10. Box culverts are normally analyzed as two dimensional frames. Equivalent strip widths are used to simplify the analysis of the three-dimensional response to live loads. Eqs. (4.22) and (4.23) are based on research (McGrath et al., 2004) that investigated the forces in box culverts with spans up to 7.2 m.
- C The distribution widths are based on distribution of shear forces. Distribution widths for positive and negative moments are wider; however, using the narrower width in combination with a single lane multiple presence factors provides designs adequate for multiple loaded lanes for all force effects.

The axle load shall be distributed to the top slab for determining moment, thrust, and shear as follows:

Perpendicular to the span:

$$E = 2440 + 0.12S \quad (4.22)$$

Parallel to the span:

$$E_{span} = L_T + LLDF (H) \quad (4.23)$$

where:

E = equivalent distribution width perpendicular to span (mm)

S = clear span (mm)

E_{span} = equivalent distribution length parallel to span (mm)

L_T = length of tire contact area parallel to span, as specified in Article 3.6.1.2.5 (mm)

$LLDF$ = factor for distribution of live load with depth of fill, 1.15 or 1.00, as specified in Article 3.6.1.2.6

H = depth of fill from top of culvert to top of pavement (mm)

- C Although past practice has been to ignore the distribution of live load with depth of fill, consideration of this effect, as presented in Eq. (4.23), produces a more accurate model of the changes in design forces with increasing depth of fill. The increased load length parallel to the span, as allowed by Eq. (4.23), may be conservatively neglected in design.

3. Case 2: Traffic Travels Perpendicular to Span

When traffic travels perpendicular to the span, live load shall be distributed to the top slab using the equations specified in Article 4.6.2.1 for concrete decks with primary strips perpendicular to the direction of traffic.

- C Culverts with traffic traveling perpendicular to the span can have two or more trucks on the same design strip at the same time. This must be considered, with the appropriate multiple presence factor, in analysis of the culvert structural response.

4. Precast Box Culverts

For precast box culverts, the distribution width computed with Eq. (4.22) shall not exceed the length between two adjacent joints without a means of shear transfer across the joint. Additionally, if no means of shear transfer is provided, the section ends shall be designed as an edge beam in accordance with the provisions of Article 4.6.2.1.4.b.

Shear transfer may be provided by pavement, soil backfill, or a physical connection between adjacent sections.

- C Precast box culverts manufactured in accordance with AASHTO Materials Specification M 273 are often installed with joints that do not provide a means of direct shear transfer across the joints of adjacent sections under service load conditions. This practice is based on research (James, 1984; Frederick, et al., 1988) which indicated significant shear transfer may not be necessary under service loading. The response of the sections tested was typified by small deflections and strains indicating that cracking did not occur under service wheel loads with no earth cover and that the demand on the section was lower than predicted by the design, which was based conservatively on a cracked section.
- C While there are no known service issues with installation of standard box sections without means of shear transfer across joints, analysis (McGrath et al., 2004) shows that stresses are substantially higher when a box culvert is subjected to a live load at a free edge than when loaded away from a free edge.
- C Most shallow cover box culvert applications have some fill or a pavement that likely provides sufficient shear transfer to distribute live load to adjacent box sections without shear keys to avoid higher stresses due to edge loading. States and design agencies that utilize grouted shear keys, pavement, or systems whose function is to transfer shear across joints may use past performance of these connections and/or materials as a basis for providing adequate shear transfer. Otherwise, for applications with zero depth of cover, and no pavement, soil, or other means of shear transfer such as shear keys, designers should design the culvert section for the specified reduced distribution widths.

4.6.3. Refined Methods of Analysis

4.6.3.1. General

Refined methods, listed in Article 4.4, may be used for the analysis of bridges. In such analyses, consideration shall be given to aspect ratios of elements, positioning and number of nodes, and other features of topology that may affect the accuracy of the analytical solution.

- C The number of possible locations for positioning the design vehicular live load will be large when determining the extreme force effect in an element using a refined method of analysis. The following are variable:
 - The location of the design lanes when the available deck width contains a fraction of a design lane width,
 - Which of the design lanes are actually used,
 - The longitudinal location of the design vehicular live load in each lane,
 - The longitudinal axle spacing of the design vehicular live load,
 - The transverse location of the design vehicular live load in each lane.

A structurally continuous railing, barrier, or median, acting compositely with the supporting components, may be considered to be structurally active at service and fatigue limit states.

- C This provision reflects the experimentally observed response of bridges. This source of stiffness has traditionally been neglected but exists and may be included, provided that full composite behavior is assured.

When a refined method of analysis is used, a table of live load distribution coefficients for extreme force effects in each span shall be provided in the contract documents to aid in permit issuance and rating of the bridge.

- C These live load distribution coefficients should be provided for each combination of component and lane.

4.6.3.2. Decks

1. General

Unless otherwise specified, flexural and torsional deformation of the deck shall be considered in the analysis but vertical shear deformation may be neglected.

Locations of flexural discontinuity through which shear may be transmitted should be modeled as hinges.

- C In many solid decks, the wheel load-carrying contribution of torsion is comparable to that of flexure.
- C Large torsional moments exist in the end zones of skewed girder bridges due to differential deflection. In most deck types, shear stresses are rather low, and their contribution to vertical deflection is not significant. Inplane shear deformations, which gave rise to the concept of effective width for composite bridge decks, should not be neglected.

In the analysis of decks that may crack and/or separate along element boundaries when loaded, Poisson's ratio may be neglected. The wheel loads shall be modeled as patch loads distributed over an area, as specified in Article [3.6.1.2.5](#), taken at the contact surface. This area may be extended by the thickness of the wearing surface, integral or non-integral, on all four sides. When such extension is utilized, the thickness of the wearing surface shall be reduced for any possible wear at the time of interest. Other extended patch areas may be utilized with the permission of the Owner provided that such extended area is consistent with the assumptions in, and application of, a particular refined method of analysis.

2. Isotropic Plate Model

For the purpose of this Section, bridge decks that are solid, have uniform or close to uniform depth, and whose stiffness is close to equal in every in-plane direction shall be considered isotropic.

- C Analysis is rather insensitive to small deviations in constant depth, such as those due to superelevation, crown, and haunches. In slightly cracked concrete slabs, even a large difference in the reinforcement ratio will not cause significant changes in load distribution.
- C The torsional stiffness of the deck may be estimated using Eq. [\(B4.2\)](#) in Appendix B4 with b equal to 1.0.

3. Orthotropic Plate Model

In orthotropic plate modeling, the flexural rigidity of the elements may be uniformly distributed along the cross-section of the deck. Where the torsional stiffness of the deck is not contributed solely by a solid plate of uniform thickness, the torsional rigidity should be established by physical testing, three-dimensional analysis, or generally accepted and verified approximations.

- C The accuracy of the orthotropic plate analysis is sharply reduced for systems consisting of a small number of elements subjected to concentrated loads.

4.6.3.3. Beam-Slab Bridges

1. General

The aspect ratio of finite elements and grid panels should not exceed 5.0. Abrupt changes in size and/or shape of finite elements and grid panels should be avoided.

Nodal loads shall be statically equivalent to the actual loads being applied.

- C More restrictive limits for aspect ratio may be specified for the software used. In the absence of other information, the following guidelines may be used at the discretion of the Engineer:
- A minimum of five, and preferably nine, nodes per beam span should be used.
 - For finite element analyses involving plate and beam elements, it is preferable to maintain the relative vertical distances between various elements. If this is not possible, longitudinal and transverse elements may be positioned at the mid-thickness of the plate-bending elements, provided that the eccentricities are included in the equivalent properties of those sections that are composite.
 - For grid analysis or finite element and finite difference analyses of live load, the slab shall be assumed to be effective for stiffness in both positive and negative flexure.' In a filled or partially filled grid system, composite section properties should be used.
 - In finite element analysis, an element should have membrane capability with discretization sufficient to properly account for shear lag. The force effects so computed should be applied to the appropriate composite or noncomposite section for computing resistance.
 - The engineer or the analyst should perform convergence studies of key variables such as displacements, strains or stresses to insure attaining accurate results. Convergence studies may include refined meshes (i.e. increasing the number of elements) or using elements with higher order formulations.
 - For longitudinal composite members in grid analyses, stiffness should be computed by assuming a width of the slab to be effective, but it need not be less than that specified in Article [4.6.2.6](#).
 - For K-frame and X-frame diaphragms, equivalent beam flexure and shear stiffness should be computed. For bridges with widely spaced diaphragms, it may be desirable to use notional transverse beam members to model the deck. The number of such beams is to some extent discretionary. The significance of shear lag in the transverse beam-slab width as it relates to lateral load distribution can be evaluated qualitatively by varying the stiffness of the beam-slab elements within reasonable limits and observing the results. Such a sensitivity study often shows that this effect is not significant.
 - Live load force effects in diaphragms should be calculated by the grid or finite element analysis. The easiest way to establish extreme force effects is by using influence surfaces analogous to those developed for the main longitudinal members.
 - The St. Venant torsional inertia may be determined using the equation in Article [4.6.2.2.1](#). Transformation of concrete and steel to a common material should be on the basis of shear modulus, G , which can be taken as $G = 0.5E/(1+\mu)$. It is recommended that the St.Venant rigidity of composite sections utilize only one-half of the effective width of the flexural section, as described above, before transformation.

2. Curved Steel Bridges

Refined methods should be used for the analysis of curved steel bridges unless the Engineer ascertains that approximate analysis methods are appropriate according to the provisions of Article [4.6.2.2.4](#).

- C Refined methods, identified in Article [4.4](#), are generally computer-based. The finite strip and finite element methods have been the most common. The finite strip method is less rigorous than the finite element method and has fallen into disuse with the advent of more powerful computers. Finite element programs may provide grid analyses using a series of beam elements connected in a plane. Refinements of the grid model may include offset elements. Frequently, the torsional warping degree of freedom is not available in beam elements. The finite element method may be applied to a three-dimensional model of the superstructure. A variety of elements may be used in this type of model. The three-dimensional model may be made capable of recognizing warping torsion by modeling each girder cross-section with a series of elements.

- C The stiffness of supports, including lateral restraint such as integral abutments or integral piers, should be recognized in the analysis. Since bearing restraint is offset from the neutral axis of the girders, large lateral forces at the bearings often occur and may create significant bending in the girders, which may lead to lower girder moments than would be computed if the restraints were not present. The Engineer should ascertain that any such benefit recognized in the design will be present throughout the useful life of the bridge.
- C Loads may be applied directly to the structural model, or applied to influence lines or influence surfaces. Only where small-deflection elastic solutions are used are influence surfaces or influence lines appropriate. The Engineer should ascertain that dead loads are applied as accurately as possible.

4.6.3.4. Cellular and Box Bridges

A refined analysis of cellular bridges may be made by any of the analytic methods specified in Article 4.4, except the yield line method, which accounts for the two dimensions seen in plan view and for the modeling of boundary conditions. Models intended to quantify torsional warping and/or transverse frame action should be fully three-dimensional.

For single box cross-sections, the superstructure may be analyzed as a spine beam for both flexural and torsional effects. A steel box should not be considered to be torsionally rigid unless internal bracing is provided to maintain the box cross-section. The transverse position of bearings shall be modeled.

4.6.3.5. Truss Bridges

A refined plane frame or space frame analysis shall include consideration for the following:

- Composite action with the deck or deck system;
- Continuity among the components;
- Force effects due to self-weight of components, change in geometry due to deformation, and axial offset at panel points; and
- In-plane and out-of-plane buckling of components including original out-of-straightness, continuity among the components and the effect axial forces present in those components.

Out-of-plane buckling of the upper chords of pony truss bridges shall be investigated. If the truss derives its lateral stability from transverse frames, of which the floor-beams are a part, the deformation of the floor-beams due to vehicular loading shall be considered.

- C Load applied to deck or floorbeams instead of to truss joints will yield results that more completely quantify out-of-plane actions.
- C Experience has shown that dead load force effects calculated using either plane frame or space frame analysis in a truss with properly cambered primary and secondary members and detailed to minimize eccentricity at joints, will be quite close to those calculated by the conventional approximations. In many cases, a complete three-dimensional frame analysis may be the only way to accurately calculate forces in secondary members, particularly live load force effects.

4.6.3.6. Arch Bridges

The provisions of Article 4.6.3.5 shall apply where applicable.

The effect of the extension of cable hangers shall be considered in the analysis of an arch tie.

Where not controlled through proper detailing, rib shortening should be investigated.

The use of large deflection analysis of arches of longer spans should be considered in lieu of the moment magnification correction as specified in Article [4.5.3.2.2.c](#).

- C Rib shortening and arch design and construction are discussed by [Nettleton \(1977\)](#).
- C Any single-step correction factor cannot be expected to accurately model deflection effects over a wide range of stiffnesses.
- C If a hinge is provided at the crown of the rib in addition to hinges at the abutment, the arch becomes statically determinate, and stresses due to change of temperature and rib shortening are essentially eliminated.
- C Arches may be analyzed, designed, and constructed as hinged under dead load or portions of dead load and as fixed at some hinged locations for the remaining design loads.

When the distribution of stresses between the top and bottom chords of trussed arches is dependent on the manner of erection, the manner of erection shall be indicated in the contract documents.

- C In trussed arches, considerable latitude is available in design for distribution of stresses between the top and bottom chords dependent on the manner of erection. In such cases, the manner of erection should be indicated in the contract documents.

4.6.3.7. Cable-Stayed Bridges

The distribution of force effects to the components of a cable-stayed bridge may be determined by either spatial or planar structural analysis if justified by consideration of tower geometry, number of planes of stays, and the torsional stiffness of the deck superstructure.

Cable-stayed bridges shall be investigated for nonlinear effects that may result from:

- The change in cable sag at all limit states,
- Deformation of deck superstructure and towers at all limit states, and
- Material nonlinearity at the extreme event limit states.

Cable sag may be investigated using an equivalent member modeled as a chord with modified modulus of elasticity given by Eq. [\(4.24\)](#) for instantaneous stiffness and Eq. [\(4.25\)](#), applied iteratively, for changing cable loads.

$$E_{MOD} = E \left[1 + \frac{EA W^2 (\cos \alpha)^5}{12H^3} \right]^{-1} \quad (4.24)$$

$$E_{MOD} = E \left[1 + \frac{(H_1 + H_2)EA W^2 (\cos \alpha)^5}{24H_1^2 H_2^2} \right]^{-1} \quad (4.25)$$

where:

- E = modulus of elasticity of the cable (MPa)
- W = total weight of cable (N)
- A = cross-sectional area of cable (mm²)
- α = angle between cable and horizontal (°)
- H, H_1, H_2 = horizontal component of cable force (N)

The change in force effects due to deflection may be investigated using any method that satisfies the provisions of Article [4.5.3.2.1](#) and accounts for the change in orientation of the ends of cable stays.

Cable-stayed bridges shall be investigated for the loss of any one cable stay.

- C Nonlinear effects on cable-stayed bridges are treated in several texts, e.g., (Podolny and Scalzi, 1986; Troitsky, 1977), and a report by the ASCE Committee on Cable Suspended Bridges (ASCE, 1991), from which the particular forms of Eqs. [\(4.24\)](#) and [\(4.25\)](#) were taken.

4.6.3.8. Suspension Bridges

Force effects in suspension bridges shall be analyzed by the large deflection theory for vertical loads. The effects of wind loads shall be analyzed, with consideration of the tension stiffening of the cables. The torsional rigidity of the deck may be neglected in assigning forces to cables, suspenders, and components of stiffening trusses.

4.6.4. Redistribution of Negative Moments in Continuous Beam Bridges

4.6.4.1. General

The Owner may permit the redistribution of force effects in multi-span, multi-beam, or girder superstructures. Inelastic behavior shall be restricted to the flexure of beams or girders, and inelastic behavior due to shear and/or uncontrolled buckling shall not be permitted. Redistribution of loads shall not be considered in the transverse direction.

The reduction of negative moments over the internal supports due to the redistribution shall be accompanied by a commensurate increase in the positive moments in the spans.

In the past, short suspension bridges have been analyzed by conventional small deflection theories.

- C Correction factor methods have been used on short- to moderate-span bridges to account for the effect of deflection, which is especially significant for calculating deck system moments. Any contemporary suspension bridge would have a span such that the large deflection theory should be used. Suitable computer programs are commercially available. Therefore, there is little rationale to use anything other than the large deflection solution.
- C For the same economic reasons, the span would probably be long enough that the influence of the torsional rigidity of the deck, combined with the relatively small effect of live load compared to dead load, will make the simple sum-of-moments technique suitable to assign loads to the cables and suspenders and usually even to the deck system, e.g., a stiffening truss.

4.6.4.2. Refined Method

The negative moments over the support, as established by linear elastic analysis, may be decreased by a redistribution process considering the moment-rotation characteristics of the cross-section or by a recognized mechanism method. The moment-rotation relationship shall be established using material characteristics, as specified herein, and/or verified by physical testing.

4.6.4.3. Approximate Procedure

In lieu of the analysis described in Article [4.6.4.2](#), simplified redistribution procedures for concrete and steel beams, as specified in Sections 5 and 6, respectively, may be used.

4.6.5. Stability

The investigation of stability shall utilize the large deflection theory.

4.6.6. Analysis for Temperature Gradient

Where determination of force effects due to vertical temperature gradient is required, the analysis should consider axial extension, flexural deformation, and internal stresses.

C For more information see Article [4.10.5](#), Appendix B4.

4.7. DYNAMIC ANALYSIS

4.7.1. Basic Requirements of Structural Dynamics

4.7.1.1. General

For analysis of the dynamic behavior of bridges, the stiffness, mass, and damping characteristics of the structural components shall be modeled.

The minimum number of degrees-of-freedom included in the analysis shall be based upon the number of natural frequencies to be obtained and the reliability of the assumed mode shapes. The model shall be compatible with the accuracy of the solution method.

Dynamic models shall include relevant aspects of the structure and the excitation. The relevant aspects of the structure may include the:

- Distribution of mass,
- Distribution of stiffness, and
- Damping characteristics.

The relevant aspects of excitation may include the:

- Frequency of the forcing function,
- Duration of application, and
- Direction of application.

- C Typically, analysis for vehicle- and wind-induced vibrations is not to be considered in bridge design.
- C Although a vehicle crossing a bridge is not a static situation, the bridge is analyzed by statically placing the vehicle at various locations along the bridge and applying a dynamic load allowance, as specified in Article 3.6.2, to account for the dynamic responses caused by the moving vehicle. However, in flexible bridges and long slender components of bridges that may be excited by bridge movement, dynamic force effects may exceed the allowance for impact given in Article 3.6.2. In most observed bridge vibration problems, the natural structural damping has been very low. Flexible continuous bridges may be especially susceptible to vibrations. These cases may require analysis for moving live load.
- C If the number of degrees-of-freedom in the model exceeds the number of dynamic degrees-of-freedom used, a standard condensation procedure may be employed.
- C Condensation procedures may be used to reduce the number of degrees-of-freedom prior to the dynamic analysis. Accuracy of the higher modes can be compromised with condensation. Thus if higher modes are required, such procedures should be used with caution.
- C The number of frequencies and mode shapes necessary to complete a dynamic analysis should be estimated in advance or determined as an early step in a multistep approach. Having determined that number, the model should be developed to have a larger number of applicable degrees-of-freedom.
- C Sufficient degrees-of-freedom should be included to represent the mode shapes relevant to the response sought. One rule-of-thumb is that there should be twice as many degrees-of-freedom as required frequencies.

- C The number of degrees-of-freedom and the associated masses should be selected in a manner that approximates the actual distributive nature of mass. The number of required frequencies also depends on the frequency content of the forcing function.

4.7.1.2. Distribution of Masses

The modeling of mass shall be made with consideration of the degree of discretization in the model and the anticipated motions.

- C The distribution of stiffness and mass should be modeled in a dynamic analysis. The discretization of the model should account for geometric and material variation in stiffness and mass.
- C The selection of the consistent or lump mass formulation is a function of the system and the response sought and is difficult to generalize. For distributive mass systems modeled with polynomial shape functions in which the mass is associated with distributive stiffness, such as a beam, a consistent mass formulation is recommended (Paz, 1985). In lieu of a consistent formulation, lumped masses may be associated at the translational degrees-of-freedom, a manner that approximates the distributive nature of the mass (Clough and Penzian, 1975).
- C For systems with distributive mass associated with larger stiffness, such as in-plane stiffness of a bridge deck, the mass may be properly modeled as lumped.
- C The rotational inertia effects should be included where significant.
- C In seismic analysis, nonlinear effects, such as inelastic deformation and cracking, which decrease the stiffness, should be considered.

4.7.1.3. Stiffness

The bridge shall be modeled to be consistent with the degrees-of-freedom chosen to represent the natural modes and frequencies of vibration. The stiffness of the elements of the model shall be defined to be consistent with the bridge being modeled.

- C In seismic analysis, nonlinear effects which decrease stiffness, such as inelastic deformation and cracking, should be considered.
- C Reinforced concrete columns and walls in Seismic category B, C and D should be analyzed using cracked section properties. For this purpose, a moment of inertia equal to one-half that of the uncracked section may be used.

4.7.1.4. Damping

Equivalent viscous damping may be used to represent energy dissipation.

Damping may be neglected in the calculation of natural frequencies and associated nodal displacements.

- C The effects of damping should be considered where a transient response is sought.
- C Suitable damping values may be obtained from field measurement of induced free vibration or by forced vibration tests. In lieu of measurements, the following values may be used for the equivalent viscous damping ratio:
 - Concrete construction: 2 percent
 - Welded and bolted steel construction: 1 percent

4.7.1.5. Natural Frequencies

For the purpose of Article 4.7.2, and unless otherwise specified by the Owner, elastic undamped natural modes and frequencies of vibration shall be used.

For the purpose of Articles 4.7.4 and 4.7.4.5, all relevant damped modes and frequencies shall be considered.

4.7.2. Elastic Dynamic Responses

4.7.2.1. Vehicle-Induced Vibration

When an analysis for dynamic interaction between bridge and the live load is required, the Owner shall specify and/or approve surface roughness, speed, and dynamic characteristics of the vehicles to be employed for the analysis. Impact shall be derived as a ratio of the extreme dynamic force effect to the corresponding static force effect.

In no case shall the dynamic load allowance used design be less than 50 percent of the dynamic load allowance specified in [Table 3.8](#), except that no reduction shall be allowed for deck joints.

- C The limitation on the dynamic load allowance reflects the fact that deck surface roughness is a major factor in vehicle/bridge interaction and that it is difficult to estimate long-term deck deterioration effects thereof at the design stage.
- C The proper application of the provision for reducing the dynamic load allowance is:

$$IM_{CALC} \geq 0.5IM_{Table} \quad (4.26)$$

- C not:

$$\left(1 + \frac{IM}{100}\right)_{CALC} \geq 0.5 \left(1 + \frac{IM}{100}\right) \quad (4.27)$$

4.7.2.2. Wind-Induced Vibration

1. Wind Velocities

For important structures, which may be expected be sensitive to wind effects, the location and magnitude of extreme pressure and suction values shall established by simulated wind tunnel tests.

2. Dynamic Effects

Wind-sensitive structures shall be analyzed for dynamic effects, such as buffeting by turbulent gusting winds, and unstable wind-structure interaction, such as galloping and flutter. Slender or torsionally flexible structures shall be analyzed for lateral buckling, excessive thrust, and divergence.

3. Design Considerations

Oscillatory deformations under wind that may lead to excessive stress levels, structural fatigue, and user inconvenience or discomfort shall be avoided. Bridge decks, cable stays, and hanger cables shall be protected against excessive vortex and wind-rain-induced oscillations. Where practical, the employment of dampers shall be considered to control excessive dynamic responses. Where dampers or shape modification are not practical, the structural system shall be changed to achieve such control.

- C Additional information on design for wind may be found in [AASHTO \(1985\)](#); [Scanlan \(1975\)](#); [Simiu and Scanlan \(1978\)](#); [Basu and Chi \(1981a\)](#); [Basu and Chi \(1981b\)](#); [ASCE \(1961\)](#); and [ASCE \(1991\)](#).

4.7.3. Inelastic Dynamic Responses

4.7.3.1. General

During a major earthquake or ship collision, energy may be dissipated by one or more of the following mechanisms:

- Elastic and inelastic deformation of the object that may collide with the structure,
- Inelastic deformation of the structure and its attachments,
- Permanent displacement of the masses of the structure and its attachments, and
- Inelastic deformation of special-purpose mechanical energy dissipators.

4.7.3.2. Plastic Hinges and Yield Lines

For the purpose of analysis, energy absorbed by inelastic deformation in a structural component may be assumed to be concentrated in plastic hinges and yield lines. The location of these sections may be established by successive approximation to obtain a lower bound solution for the energy absorbed. For these sections, moment-rotation hysteresis curves may be determined by using verified analytic material models.

4.7.4. Analysis for Earthquake Loads

4.7.4.1. General

Minimum analysis requirements for seismic effects shall be as specified in [Table 4.15](#).

For the modal methods of analysis, specified in Articles [4.7.4.3.2](#) and [4.7.4.3.3](#), the design response spectrum specified in [Figure 3.22](#) and Eqs. [\(3.11\)](#), [\(3.12\)](#) and [\(3.13\)](#) shall be used.

Bridges in Seismic Design Category A need not be analyzed for seismic loads, regardless of their importance and geometry. However, the minimum requirements, as specified in Articles [4.7.4.4](#) and [3.9.9](#), shall apply.

4.7.4.2. Single-Span Bridges

- C A single-span bridge is comprised of a superstructure unit supported by two abutments with no intermediate piers.

Seismic analysis is not required for single-span bridges, regardless of Seismic Design Categories.

Connections between the bridge superstructure and the abutments shall be designed for the minimum force requirements as specified in Article [3.9.9](#).

Minimum support length requirements shall be satisfied at each abutment as specified in Article [4.7.4.4](#).

4.7.4.3. Multi-span Bridges

1. Selection of Method

- C The selection of the method of analysis depends on seismic zone, regularity, and importance of the bridge.
- C Regularity is a function of the number of spans and the distribution of weight and stiffness. Regular bridges have less than seven spans; no abrupt or unusual changes in weight, stiffness, or geometry;

and no large changes in these parameters from span to span or support-to-support, abutments excluded. A more rigorous analysis procedure may be used in lieu of the recommended minimum.

For multi-span structures, the minimum analysis requirements shall be as specified in [Table 4.15](#) in which:

- * = no seismic analysis required
- UL = uniform load elastic method
- SM = single-mode elastic method
- MM = multimode elastic method
- TH = time history method

Table 4.15: Minimum Analysis Requirements for Seismic Effects

Seismic Design Category	Single-Span Bridges	Multispan Bridges					
		Other Bridges		Essential Bridges		Critical Bridges	
		regular	irregular	regular	irregular	regular	irregular
A	No seismic analysis required	*	*	*	*	*	*
B		SM/UL	SM	SM/UL	MM	MM	MM
C		SM/UL	MM	MM	MM	MM	TH
D		SM/UL	MM	MM	MM	TH	TH

Except as specified below, bridges satisfying the requirements of [Table 4.16](#) may be taken as “regular” bridges. Bridges not satisfying the requirements of [Table 4.16](#) shall be taken as “irregular” bridges.

Table 4.16: Regular Bridge Requirements

Parameter	Value				
Number of Spans	2	3	4	5	6
Maximum subtended angle for a curved bridge	90°	90°	90°	90°	90°
Maximum span length ratio from span to span	3	2	2	1.5	1.5
Maximum bent/pier stiffness ratio from span to span, excluding abutments	—	4	4	3	2

Curved bridges comprised of multiple simple-spans shall be considered to be “irregular” if the subtended angle in plan is greater than 20°. Such bridges shall be analyzed by either the multimode elastic method or the time-history method.

A curved continuous-girder bridge may be analyzed as if it were straight, provided all of the following requirements are satisfied:

- The bridge is “regular” as defined in [Table 4.16](#), except that for a two-span bridge the maximum span length ratio from span to span must not exceed 2;
- The subtended angle in plan is not greater than 90°; and
- The span lengths of the equivalent straight bridge are equal to the arc lengths of the curved bridge.

If these requirements are not satisfied, then curved continuous-girder bridges must be analyzed using the actual curved geometry.

2. Single-Mode Methods of Analysis

a. General

Either of the two single-mode methods of analysis specified herein may be used where appropriate.

b. Single-Mode Spectral Method

The single-mode method of spectral analysis shall be based on the fundamental mode of vibration in either the longitudinal or transverse direction. For regular bridges, the fundamental modes of vibration in the horizontal plane coincide with the longitudinal and transverse axes of the bridge structure. This mode shape may be found by applying a uniform horizontal load to the structure and calculating the corresponding deformed shape. The natural period may be calculated by equating the maximum potential and kinetic energies associated with the fundamental mode shape. The amplitude of the displaced shape may be found from the elastic seismic response coefficient, C_{sm} , specified in Article 3.9.4.2, and the corresponding spectral displacement. This amplitude shall be used to determine force effects.

C For more information see Article 4.10.6 in Appendix B4.

c. Uniform Load Method

The uniform load method shall be based on the fundamental mode of vibration in either the longitudinal or transverse direction of the base structure. The period of this mode of vibration shall be taken as that of an equivalent single mass-spring oscillator. The stiffness of this equivalent spring shall be calculated using the maximum displacement that occurs when an arbitrary uniform lateral load is applied to the bridge. The elastic seismic response coefficient, C_{sm} , specified in Article 3.9.4.2 shall be used to calculate the equivalent uniform seismic load from which seismic force effects are found.

C For more information see Article 4.10.7 in Appendix B4.

3. Multimode Spectral Method

The multimode spectral analysis method shall be used for bridges in which coupling occurs in more than one of the three coordinate directions within each mode of vibration. As a minimum, linear dynamic analysis using a three-dimensional model shall be used to represent the structure.

The number of modes included in the analysis should be at least three times the number of spans in the model. The design seismic response spectrum as specified in Article 3.9.4 shall be used for each mode.

The member forces and displacements may be estimated by combining the respective response quantities (moment, force, displacement, or relative displacement) from the individual modes by the Complete Quadratic Combination (CQC) method.

C Member forces and displacements obtained using the CQC combination methods are generally adequate for most bridge systems (Wilson et al., 1981).

C If the CQC method is not readily available, alternative methods include the square root of the sum of the squares method (SRSS), but this method is best suited for combining responses from well-

separated modes. For closely spaced modes, the absolute sum of the modal responses should be used.

4. Time-History Method

a. General

Any step-by-step time-history method of analysis used for either elastic or inelastic analysis shall satisfy the requirements of Article 4.7.

The sensitivity of the numerical solution to the size of the time step used for the analysis shall be determined. A sensitivity study shall also be carried out to investigate the effects of variations in assumed material hysteretic properties.

The time histories of input acceleration used to describe the earthquake loads shall be selected in accordance with Article 4.7.4.3.4.b.

- C Rigorous methods of analysis are required for critical structures, which are defined in Article 3.9.3 and/or those that are geometrically complex or close to active earthquake faults. Time history methods of analysis are recommended for this purpose, provided care is taken with both the modeling of the structure and the selection of the input time histories of ground acceleration.
- C Site-specific spectrum is preferred, if available.

b. Acceleration Time Histories

Developed time histories shall have characteristics that are representative of the seismic environment of the site and the local site conditions.

Response-spectrum-compatible time histories shall be used as developed from representative recorded motions. Analytical techniques used for spectrum matching shall be demonstrated to be capable of achieving seismologically realistic time series that are similar to the time series of the initial time histories selected for spectrum matching.

Where recorded time histories are used, they shall be scaled to the approximate level of the design response spectrum in the period range of significance. Each time history shall be modified to be response-spectrum compatible using the time-domain procedure.

At least three response-spectrum-compatible time histories shall be used for each component of motion in representing the design earthquake (ground motions having 2% probability of exceedance in 50 years).

All three orthogonal components (x, y, and z) of design motion shall be input simultaneously when conducting a nonlinear time-history analysis. The design actions shall be taken as the maximum response calculated for the three ground motions in each principal direction.

If a minimum of seven time histories are used for each component of motion, the design actions may be taken as the mean response calculated for each principal direction.

For near-field sites ($D < 10$ kilometers) the recorded horizontal components of motion that are selected should represent a near-field condition and should be transformed into principal components before making them response spectrum-compatible. The major principal component should then be used to represent motion in the fault-normal direction and the minor principal component should be used to represent motion in the fault-parallel direction.

- C For more information see Article 4.10.8, Appendix B4.

4.7.4.4. Minimum Support Length Requirements

Support lengths at expansion bearings without restrainers, STUs, or dampers shall either accommodate the greater of the maximum displacement calculated in accordance with the provisions of Article 4.7.4.3, except for bridges in Seismic Design Category A, or a percentage of the empirical support length, N , specified by Eq. (4.28). Otherwise, longitudinal restrainers complying with Article 3.9.9.5 shall be provided. Bearings restrained for longitudinal movement shall be designed in compliance with Article 3.9.9. The percentages of N , applicable to each Seismic Design Category, shall be as specified in Table 4.17.

The empirical support length shall be taken as:

$$N = (200 + 0.0017L + 0.0067H)(1 + 0.000125S^2) \quad (4.28)$$

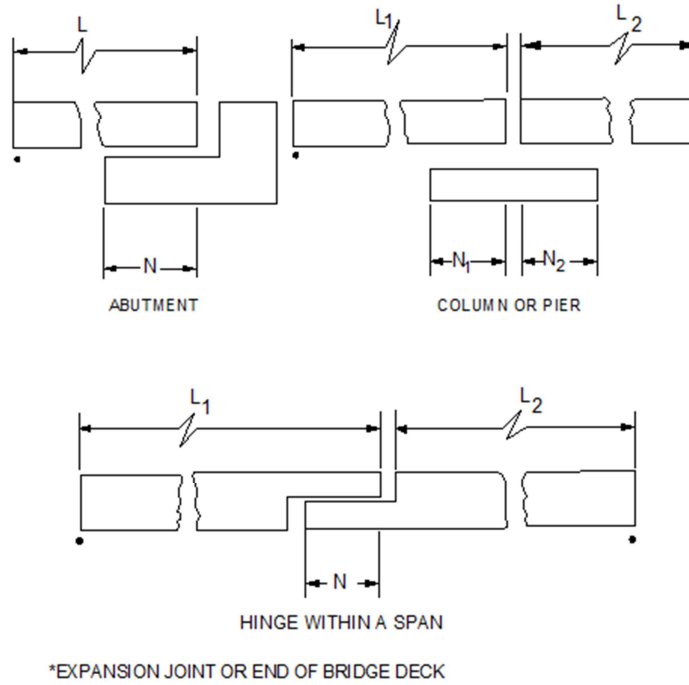
where:

- N = minimum support length measured normal to the centerline of bearing (mm).
- L = length of the bridge deck to the adjacent expansion joint, or to the end of the bridge deck; for hinges within a span, L shall be the sum of the distances to either side of the hinge; for single-span bridges, L equals the length of the bridge deck (mm).
- H = for abutments, average height of columns supporting the bridge deck to the next expansion joint (mm) for columns and/or piers, column, or pier height (mm) for hinges within a span, average height of the adjacent two columns or piers (mm) 0.0 for single-span bridges (mm).
- S = skew of support measured from line normal to span ($^{\circ}$)

Table 4.17: Percentage N by Seismic Design Category and Acceleration Coefficient, A_s , specified in Eq. (3.12)

Seismic Design Category	Acceleration Coefficient A_s ,	Percent N
A	<0.05 and ≥ 0.05	≥ 75
A	<0.05	100
B	All Applicable	150
C	All Applicable	150
D	All Applicable	150

- C Support lengths are equal to the length of the overlap between the girder and the seat as shown in Figure 4.6. To satisfy the minimum values for N in this Article, the overall seat width will be larger than N by an amount equal to movements due to prestress shortening, creep, shrinkage, and thermal expansion/contraction. The minimum value for N given in Eq. (4.28) includes an arbitrary allowance for cover concrete at the end of the girder and face of the seat. If above average cover is used at these locations, N should be increased accordingly.

Figure 4.6: Support Length. N .

4.7.4.5. P - Δ Requirements

The displacement of any column or pier in the longitudinal or transverse direction shall satisfy:

$$\Delta P_u < 0.25 \phi (12M_n) \quad (4.29)$$

in which:

$$\Delta = R_d \Delta_e \quad (4.30)$$

- If $T < 1.25T_s$, then:

$$R_d = \left(1 - \frac{1}{R}\right) \frac{1.25T_s}{T} + \frac{1}{R} \quad (4.31)$$

- If $T \geq 1.25T_s$, then:

$$R_d = 1$$

where:

- Δ = displacement of the point of contraflexure in the column or pier relative to the point of fixity for the foundation (mm)
- Δ_e = displacement calculated from elastic seismic analysis (mm)
- T = period of fundamental mode of vibration (sec.)
- T_s = reference period specified in Article [3.9.4.2](#) (sec.)
- R = R-factor specified in Article [3.9.3](#)
- P_u = axial load on column or pier (N)
- ϕ = flexural resistance factor for column specified in Article [5.15.5.1.2](#).

M_n = nominal flexural strength of column or pier calculated at the axial load on the column or pier (N-mm)

- C Bridges subject to earthquake ground motion may be susceptible to instability due to $P-\Delta$ effects.
- C Inadequate strength can result in ratcheting of structural displacements to larger and larger values causing excessive ductility demand on plastic hinges in the columns, large residual deformations, and possibly collapse. The maximum value for A given in this Article is intended to limit the displacements such that $P-\Delta$ effects will not significantly affect the response of the bridge during an earthquake.
- C $P-\Delta$ effects lead to a loss in strength once yielding occurs in the columns of a bridge. In severe cases, this can result in the force-displacement relationship having a negative slope once yield is fully developed. The value for A given by Eq. (4.29) is such that this reduction in strength is limited to 25 percent of the yield strength of the pier or bent.
- C An explicit $P-\Delta$ check was not required in the previous edition of these Specifications but has been introduced herein because two conservative provisions have been relaxed in this revised edition. These are:
 - The shape of the response spectrum Figure 3.22 has been changed from being proportional to $1/T^{2/3}$ to $1/T$. The reason for the $1/T^{2/3}$ provision in the previous edition was to give conservative estimates of force and displacement in bridges with longer periods (>1.0 secs) which, in an indirect way, provided for such effects as $P-\Delta$. With the change of the spectrum to being proportional to $1/T$, an explicit check for $P-\Delta$ is now required.
 - The flexural resistance factor, ϕ , for seismic design of columns with high axial loads has been increased from a minimum value of 0.5 to 0.9 (Article 5.15.5.1.2). Use of a low resistance factor led to additional strength being provided in heavily loaded columns that could be used to offset reductions due to $P-\Delta$, in the previous edition. ϕ now permitted in Section 5 is a second reason for requiring an explicit check for $P-\Delta$.

4.7.5. Analysis for Collision Loads

Where permitted by the provisions of Section 3, dynamic analysis for ship collision may be replaced by an equivalent static elastic analysis. Where an inelastic analysis is specified, the effect of other loads that may also be present shall be considered.

4.7.6. Analysis of Blast Effects

As a minimum, bridge components analyzed for blast forces should be designed for the dynamic effects resulting from the blast pressure on the structure. The results of an equivalent static analysis shall not be used for this purpose.

- C Localized spall and breach damage should be accounted for when designing bridge components for blast forces. Data available at the time these provisions were developed are not sufficient to develop expressions for estimating the extent of spall/breach in concrete columns; however, spall and breach damage can be estimated for other members of components using guidelines found in Department of the Army (1986).
- C Due to the uncertainties that exist when considering likely attack scenarios and associated blast loads, an appropriate equivalent static load can not be used for design. Moreover, the highly impulsive nature of blast loads warrants the consideration of inertial effects during the analysis of a structural component. Therefore, an equivalent static analysis is not acceptable for the design of any structural member. Information on designing structures to resist blast loads may be found in ASCE (1997), Department of the Army (1990), E. J. Conrath, et al. (1999), J. M. Biggs (1964), and W. Bounds (1998).

4.8. ANALYSIS BY PHYSICAL MODELS

4.8.1. Scale Model Testing

To establish and/or to verify structural behavior, the Owner may require the testing of scale models of structures and/or parts thereof. The dimensional and material properties of the structure, as well as its boundary conditions and loads, shall be modeled as accurately as possible. For dynamic analysis, inertial scaling, load/excitation, and damping functions shall be applied as appropriate. For strength limit state tests, factored dead load shall be simulated. The instrumentation shall not significantly influence the response of the model.

4.8.2. Bridge Testing

Existing bridges may be instrumented and results obtained under various conditions of traffic and/or environmental loads or load tested with special purpose vehicles to establish force effects and/or the load carrying capacity of the bridge.

- C These measured force effects may be used to project fatigue life, to serve as a basis for similar designs, to establish permissible weight limits, to aid in issuing permits, or to establish a basis of prioritizing rehabilitation or retrofit.

4.9. REFERENCES

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4.10. APPENDIX B4: COMMENTARIES ON ARTICLES

4.10.1. Commentary on Article 4.6.1.2.4.b "I-Girders"

The requirement for similar stiffness among the girders is intended to avoid large and irregular changes in stiffness which could alter transverse distribution of load. Under such conditions, a refined analysis would be appropriate. Non-composite dead load preferably is to be distributed uniformly to the girders since the cross-frames provide restoring forces that prevent the girders from deflecting independently. Certain dead loads applied to the composite bridge may be distributed uniformly to the girders as provided in Article 4.6.2.2.1.

However, heavier concentrated line loads such as parapets, sidewalks, barriers, or sound walls should not be distributed equally to the girders. Engineering judgment must be used in determining the distribution of these loads. Often the largest portion of the load on an overhang is assigned to the exterior girder, or to the exterior girder and the first interior girder. The exterior girder on the outside of the curve is often critical in curved girder bridges.

The effect of curvature on the torsional behavior of a girder must be considered regardless of the amount of curvature since stability and strength of curved girders is different from that of straight girders (Hall and Yoo, 1996).

In lieu of a refined analysis, Eq.(B4.1) may be appropriate for determining the lateral bending moment in I-girder flanges due to curvature (Richardson, Gordon, and Associates, 1976; United States Steel, 1984).

$$M_{lat} = \frac{M \ell^2}{NRD} \quad (B4.1)$$

where:

- M_{lat} = flange lateral bending moment (N-mm)
- M = major-axis bending moment (N-mm)
- ℓ = unbraced length (mm)
- R = girder radius (mm)
- D = web depth (mm)
- N = a constant taken as 10 or 12 in past practice

Although the depth to be used in computing the flange lateral moment from Eq.(B4.1) is theoretically equal to the depth, h , between the mid-thickness of the top and bottom flanges, for simplicity, the web depth, D , is conservatively used in Eq.(B4.1). The Engineer may substitute the depth, h , for D in Eq.(B4.1), if desired. Eq.(B4.1) assumes the presence of a cross-frame at the point under investigation, that the cross-frame spacing is relatively uniform, and that the major-axis bending moment, M , is constant between brace points. Therefore, at points not actually located at cross-frames, flange lateral moments from Eq.(B4.1) may not be strictly correct. The constant, N , in Eq.(B4.1) has been taken as either 10 or 12 in past practice and either value is considered acceptable depending on the level of conservatism that is desired.

Other conditions that produce torsion, such as skew, should be dealt with by other analytical means which generally involve a refined analysis.

4.10.2. Commentary on Article 4.6.2.2 "Beam-Slab Bridges Application"

The V-load method is one example of a method of curved bridge analysis which starts with straight girder distribution factors (United States Steel, 1984).

The lever rule involves summing moments about one support to find the reaction at another support by assuming that the supported component is hinged at interior supports.

When using the lever rule on a three-girder bridge, the notional model should be taken as shown in Figure 4.7. Moments should be taken about the assumed, or notional, hinge in the deck over the middle girder to find the reaction on the exterior girder.

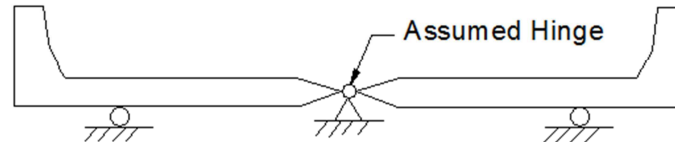


Figure 4.7: Notional Model for Applying Lever Rule to Three-Girder Bridges.

Provisions in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3 that do not appear in earlier editions of the Standard Specifications come primarily from Zokaie et al. (1991).

Correction factors for continuity have been deleted for two reasons:

- Correction factors dealing with 5 percent adjustments were thought to imply misleading levels of accuracy in an approximate method, and
- Analyses of many continuous beam-slab-type bridges indicate that the distribution coefficients for negative moments exceed those obtained for positive moments by approximately 10 percent. On the other hand, it has been observed that stresses at or near an internal bearing are reduced due to the fanning of the reaction force. This reduction is about the same magnitude as the increase in distribution factors; hence the two tend to cancel each other out, and thus are omitted from these Specifications.

In Strength Load Combination II, applying a distribution factor procedure to a loading involving a heavy permit load can be overly conservative unless lane-by-lane distribution factors are available. Use of a refined method of analysis will circumvent this situation.

A rational approach may be used to extend the provisions of this Article to bridges with splayed girders. The distribution factor for live load at any point along the span may be calculated by setting the girder spacing in the equations of this Article equal to half the sum of the center-to-center distance between the girder under consideration and the two girders to either side.

This will result in a variable distribution factor along the length of the girder. While the variable distribution factor is theoretically correct, it is not compatible with existing line girder computer programs that only allow constant distribution factor. Further simplifications may be used to allow the use of such computer programs.

One such simplification involves running the computer program a number of times equal to the number of spans in the bridge. For each run, the girder spacing is set equal to the maximum girder spacing in one span and the results from this run are applied to this span. This approach is guaranteed to result in conservative design.

In the past, some jurisdictions applied the latter approach, but used the girder spacing at the 2/3 or 3/4 points of the span; which will also be an acceptable approximation.

Most of the equations for distribution factors were derived for constant deck width and parallel beams. Past designs with moderate exceptions to these two assumptions have performed well when the S/D distribution factors were used. While the distribution factors specified herein are more representative of actual bridge behavior, common sense indicates that some exceptions are still possible, especially if the parameter S is chosen with prudent judgment, or if the factors are appropriately varied at selected locations along the span.

Whole-width design is appropriate for torsionally stiff cross-sections where load-sharing between girders is extremely high and torsional loads are hard to estimate. Prestressing force should be evenly distributed between girders. Cell width-to-height ratios should be approximately 2:1. In lieu of more refined information, the St. Venant torsional inertia, J , may be determined as:

- For thin-walled open beam:

$$J = \frac{1}{3} \sum bt^3 \quad (\text{B4.2})$$

- For stocky open sections, e.g., prestressed I-beams, T-beams, etc., and solid sections:

$$J = \frac{A^4}{40.0I_p} \quad (\text{B4.3})$$

- For closed thin-walled shapes:

$$J = \frac{4A_0^2}{\sum \frac{S}{t}} \quad (\text{B4.4})$$

where:

- b = width of plate element (mm)
- t = thickness of plate-like element (mm)
- A = area of cross-section (mm²)
- I_p = polar moment of inertia (mm⁴)
- A_0 = area enclosed by centerlines of elements (mm²)
- S = length of a side element (mm)

Eq. (B4.3) has been shown to substantially underestimate the torsional stiffness of some concrete I-beams and a more accurate, but more complex, approximation can be found in Eby et al. (1973).

The transverse post-tensioning shown for some cross-sections herein is intended to make the units act together. A minimum 1.7 MPa prestress is recommended.

For beams with variable moment of inertia, K_g may be based on average properties. For bridge types "f," "g," "h," "i," and "J," longitudinal joints between precast units of the crosssection are shown in Table 4.3. This type of construction acts as a monolithic unit if sufficiently interconnected.

In Article 5.18.4.3.3.f, a fully interconnected joint is identified as a flexural shear joint. This type of interconnection is enhanced by either transverse post-tensioning of an intensity specified above or by a reinforced structural overlay, which is also specified in Article 5.18.4.3.3.f, or both. The use of transverse mild steel rods secured by nuts or similar unstressed dowels should not be considered sufficient to achieve full transverse flexural continuity unless demonstrated by testing or experience. Generally, post-tensioning is thought to be more effective than a structural overlay if the intensity specified above is achieved.

In some cases, the lower limit of deck slab thickness, t shown in the range of applicability column in tables in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3 is less than 180 mm. The research used to develop the equations in those tables reflects the range of slab thickness shown.

Article 7.7.1.1 indicates that concrete decks less than 180 mm in thickness should not be used unless approved by the Owner. Lesser values shown in tables in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3 are not intended to override Article 7.7.2.17.7.1.1.

The load distribution factor equations for bridge type "d", cast-in-place multi-cell concrete box girders, were derived by first positioning the vehicle longitudinally, and then transversely, using an I-section of the box. While it would be more appropriate to develop an algorithm to find the peak of an influence surface, using the present factor for the interior girders multiplied by the number of girders is conservative in most cases.

Table 4.18 describes how the term L (length) may be determined for use in the live load distribution factor equations given in Articles 4.6.2.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3.

Table 4.18: L for Use in Live Load Distribution Factor Equations.

Force Effect	L (mm)
Positive Moment	The length of the span for which moment is being Calculated
Negative Moment-Near interior supports of continuous spans from point of contraflexure to point of contraflexure under a uniform load on all spans	The average length of the two adjacent spans
Negative Moment-Other than near interior supports of continuous spans	The length of the span for which moment is being Calculated
Shear	The length of the span for which shear is being Calculated
Exterior Reaction	The length of the exterior span
Interior Reaction of Continuous Span	The average length of the two adjacent spans

In the rare occasion when the continuous span arrangement is such that an interior span does not have any positive uniform load moment (i.e., no uniform load points of contra-flexure), the region of negative moment near the interior supports would be increased to the centerline of the span, and the L used in determining the live load distribution factors would be the average of the two adjacent spans.

4.10.3. Commentary on Article 4.6.2.6.1 "Effective Flange Width"

Longitudinal stresses are distributed across the deck of composite and monolithic flexural members by in-plane shear stresses. Due to the corresponding shear deformations, plane sections do not remain plane and the longitudinal stresses across

the deck are not uniform. This phenomenon is referred to as shear lag. The effective flange width is the width of the deck over which the assumed uniformly distributed longitudinal stresses result approximately in the same deck force and member moments calculated from elementary beam theory assuming plane sections remain plane, as are produced by the nonuniform stress distribution.

The provisions of Article [4.6.2.6.1](#) apply to all longitudinal flexural members composite or monolithic with a deck slab, including girders and stringers. They are based on finite element studies of various bridge types and configurations, corroborated by experimental tests, and sensitivity analysis of various candidate regression equations (Chen et al., 2005). Chen et al. (2005) found that bridges with larger L/S (ratio of span length to girder spacing) consistently exhibited an effective width b_e equal to the tributary width b_e . Non-skewed bridges with $L/S = 3.1$, the smallest value of L/S considered in the Chen et al. (2005) study, exhibited $b_e = b$ in the maximum positive bending regions and approximately $b_e = 0.9b$ in the maximum negative bending regions under service limit state conditions.

However, they exhibited $b_e = b$ in these regions in all cases at the strength limit state. Bridges with large skew angles often exhibited $b_e < b$ in both the maximum positive and negative moment regions, particularly in cases with small L/S . However, when various potential provisions were assessed using the Rating Factor (RF) as a measure of impact, the influence of using flange width $b_e = b$ was found to be minimal. Therefore, the use of the tributary width is justified in all cases within the limits specified in this Article. The Chen et al. (2005) study demonstrated that there is no significant relationship between the slab effective width and the slab thickness, as implied by previous Specifications.

These provisions are considered applicable for skew angles less than or equal to 75° , L/S greater than or equal to 2.0 and overhang widths less than or equal to $0.5S$. In unusual cases where these limits are violated, a refined analysis should be used to determine the slab effective width. Furthermore, these provisions are considered applicable for slab-beam bridges with unequal skew angles of the bearing lines, splayed girders, horizontally curved girders, cantilever spans, and various unequal span lengths of continuous spans, although these parameters have not been investigated extensively in studies to date.

These recommendations are based on the fact that the participation of the slab in these broader parametric cases is fundamentally similar to the participation of the slab in the specific parametric cases that have been studied.

The use of one-half the distance to the adjacent stringer or girder in calculating the effective width of the main girders in composite girder and/or stringer systems or the truss chords in composite deck trusses is a conservative assumption for the main structural components, since typically a larger width of the slab can be expected to participate with the main girders or truss chords. However, this tributary width assumption may lead to an underestimation of the shear connector requirements and a lack of consideration of axial forces and bending moments in the composite stringers or girders due to the global effects. To utilize a larger slab width for the main girders or truss chords, a refined analysis should be considered.

The specific cases in which a refined analysis is recommended are so listed because they are significantly beyond the conventional application of the concept of a slab effective width. These cases include tied arches where the deck slab is designed to contribute to the resistance of the tie girders and cable stayed bridges with a composite deck slab. Chen et al. (2005) provides a few case study results for simplified lower-

bound slab effective widths in composite deck systems of cable stayed bridges with certain specific characteristics.

4.10.4. Commentary on Article 4.6.2.7.1 "I-Sections"

Precast concrete plank decks and timber decks are not solid diaphragms and should not be assumed to provide horizontal diaphragm action unless evidence is available to show otherwise.

Unless a more refined analysis is made, the wind force, wind moment, horizontal force to be transmitted by diaphragms and cross-frames, and horizontal force to be transmitted by lateral bracing may be calculated as indicated below. This procedure is presented for beam bridges but may be adapted for other types of bridges.

The wind force, W , may be applied to the flanges of exterior members. For composite members and non-composite members with cast-in-place concrete or orthotropic steel decks, W need not be applied to the top flange.

where:

$$w = \frac{\eta_i \gamma P_D d}{2} \quad (\text{B4.5})$$

where:

- w = factored wind force per unit length applied to the flange (N/mm)
- P_D = design horizontal wind pressure specified in Article 3.8.1 (MPa)
- d = depth of the member (mm)
- γ = load factor specified in Table 3.1 for the particular group loading combination
- η_i = load modifier relating to ductility, redundancy, and operational importance as specified in Article 1.3.2.1

For the first two load paths, the maximum wind moment on the loaded flange may be determined as:

$$M_w = \frac{WL_b^2}{10} \quad (\text{B4.6})$$

where:

- M_w = maximum lateral moment in the flange due to the factored wind loading (N-mm)
- W = factored wind force per unit length applied to the flange (N/mm)
- L_b = spacing of brace points (mm)

For the third load path, the maximum wind moment on the loaded flange may be computed as:

$$M_w = \frac{WL_b^2}{10} + \frac{WL^2}{8N_b} \quad (\text{B4.7})$$

where:

- M_w = total lateral moment in the flange due to the factored wind loading (N-mm)
- W = factored wind force per unit length applied to the flange (N/mm)
- L_b = spacing of cross-frames or diaphragms (mm)

N_b = number of longitudinal members
 L = span length (mm)

Eq.(B4.7) is based on the assumption that cross-frames and diaphragms act as struts in distributing the wind force on the exterior flange to adjacent flanges. If there are no cross-frames or diaphragms, the first term should be taken as 0.0, and N_b should be taken as 1.0.

The horizontal wind force applied to each brace point may be calculated as:

$$P_w = WL_p \quad (\text{B4.8})$$

where:

P_w = lateral wind force applied to the brace point (N)
 W = wind force per unit length from Eq.(B4.5) (N/mm)
 L_b = spacing of diaphragms or cross-frames (mm)

Lateral bracing systems required supporting both flanges due to transfer of wind loading through diaphragms or cross-frames shall be designed for a horizontal force of $2P_w$ at each brace point.

4.10.5. Commentary on Article 4.6.6 "Analysis for Temperature Gradient"

The response of a structure to a temperature gradient can be divided into three effects as follows:

- **AXIAL EXPANSION**-This is due to the uniform component of the distribution that should be temperature considered simultaneously with the uniform temperature specified in Article 3.11.2. It may be calculated as:

$$T_{UG} = \frac{1}{A_c} \iint T_G dw dz \quad (\text{B4.9})$$

The corresponding uniform axial strain is:

$$\epsilon_u = \alpha(T_{UG} + T_u) \quad (\text{B4.10})$$

- **FLEXURAL DEFORMATION**-Because plane sections remain plane, a curvature is imposed on the superstructure to accommodate the linearly variable component of the temperature gradient. The rotation per unit length corresponding to this curvature may be determined as:

$$T_{UG} = \frac{\alpha}{I_c} \iint T_G z dw dz = \frac{1}{R} \quad (\text{B4.11})$$

If the structure is externally unrestrained, i.e., simply supported or cantilevered, no external force effects are developed due to this superimposed deformation.

The axial strain and curvature may be used in both flexibility and stiffness formulations. In the former, ϵ_u may be used in place of P/AE , and ϕ may be used in place of M/EI in traditional displacement calculations. In the latter, the fixed-end force effects for a prismatic frame element may be determined as:

$$M = EA_c \epsilon_u \quad (B4.12)$$

$$M = EI_c \phi \quad (B4.13)$$

An expanded discussion with examples may be found in [Ghali and Neville \(1989\)](#). Strains induced by other effects, such as shrinkage and creep, may be treated in a similar manner.

- INTERNAL STRESS-Using the sign convention that compression is positive, internal stresses in addition to those corresponding to the restrained axial expansion and/or rotation may be calculated as:

$$\sigma_E = E [\alpha T_G - \alpha T_{UG} - \phi z] \quad (B4.14)$$

where:

T_G	=	temperature gradient (°C)
T_{UG}	=	temperature averaged across the cross-section (°C)
T_u	=	uniform specified temperature (°C)
A_c	=	cross-section area-transformed for steel beams (mm ²)
I_c	=	inertia of cross-section-transformed for steel beams (mm ⁴)
α	=	coefficient of thermal expansion (mm/mm/°C)
E	=	modulus of elasticity (MPa)
R	=	radius of curvature (mm)
w	=	width of element in cross-section (mm)
z	=	vertical distance from center of gravity of cross-section (mm)

For example, the flexural deformation part of the gradient flexes a prismatic superstructure into a segment of a circle in the vertical plane. For a two-span structure with span length, L , in mm, the unrestrained beam would lift off from the central support by $\Delta = L^2/2R$ mm. Forcing the beam down to eliminate Δ would develop a moment whose value at the pier would be:

$$M_c = \frac{3}{2} EI_c \phi \quad (B4.15)$$

Therefore, the moment is the function of the beam rigidity and imposed flexure. As rigidity approaches 0.0 at the strength limit state, M_c tends to disappear. This behavior also indicates the need for ductility to ensure structural integrity as rigidity decreases.

4.10.6. Commentary on Article [4.7.4.3.2.b](#) "Single-Mode Spectral Method"

The single-mode spectral analysis method described in the following steps may be used for both transverse and longitudinal earthquake motions. Examples illustrating its application are given in [AASHTO \(1983\)](#) and [ATC \(1981\)](#).

Calculate the static displacements $v_s(x)$ due to an assumed uniform loading p_o as shown in [Figure 4.8](#):

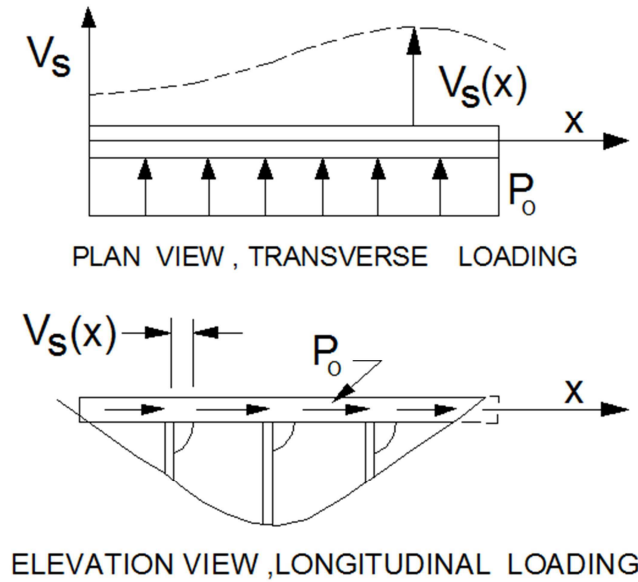


Figure 4.8: Bridge Deck Subjected to Assumed Transverse and Longitudinal Loading.

- Calculate factors α , β , and γ as:

$$\alpha = \int v_s(x) dx \quad (B4.16)$$

$$\beta = \int w(x) v_s(x) dx \quad (B4.17)$$

$$\gamma = \int w(x) v_s^2(x) dx \quad (B4.18)$$

where:

- P_o = a uniform load arbitrarily set equal to 1.0 (N/mm.)
- $v_s(x)$ = deformation corresponding to p_o (mm)
- $w(x)$ = nominal, unfactored dead load of the bridge superstructure and tributary substructure (N/mm.)

The computed factors, α , β , and γ have units of (mm^2), (N-mm.), and (N-mm²), respectively.

- Calculate the period of the bridge as:

$$T_m = \frac{2\pi}{31.623} \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{P_o g \alpha}} \quad (B4.19)$$

where:

- P_o = a uniform load arbitrarily set equal to 1.0 (N/mm.)
- g = acceleration of gravity (m./sec^2)
- T_m = period of bridge (sec.)
- γ = computed factor (N-mm²)
- α = computed factor (mm^2)

- Using T_m and Eqs. (3.11) and (3.14) or Eq. (3.15), calculate C_{sm} .
- Calculate the equivalent static earthquake loading $p_e(x)$ as:

$$P_e(x) = \frac{\beta C_{sm}}{\gamma} w(x) v_s(x) \quad (B4.20)$$

where:

- β = computed factor (N-mm)
- C_{sm} = the dimensionless elastic seismic response coefficient given by Eqs. (3.11) and (3.14) or Eq. (3.15).
- $P_e(x)$ = the intensity of the equivalent static seismic loading applied to represent the primary mode of vibration (N/mm.)
- $v_s(x)$ = deformation corresponding to p_o (mm)
- $w(x)$ = nominal, unfactored dead load of the bridge superstructure and tributary substructure (N/mm.)

- Apply loading $P_e(x)$ to the structure, and determine the resulting member force effects.

4.10.7. Commentary on Article 4.7.4.3.2.c "Uniform Load Method"

The uniform load method, described in the following steps, may be used for both transverse and longitudinal earthquake motions. It is essentially an equivalent static method of analysis that uses a uniform lateral load to approximate the effect of seismic loads. The method is suitable for regular bridges that respond principally in their fundamental mode of vibration. Whereas all displacements and most member forces are calculated with good accuracy, the method is known to overestimate the transverse shears at the abutments by up to 100 percent. If such conservatism is undesirable, then the single-mode spectral analysis method specified in Article 4.7.4.3.2.b is recommended.

- Calculate the static displacements $v_s(x)$ due to an assumed uniform load p_o , as shown in Figure 4.8. The uniform loading p_o is applied over the length of the bridge; it has units of force per unit length and may be arbitrarily set equal to 1.0. The static displacement $v_s(x)$ have units of length.
- Calculate the bridge lateral stiffness, K , and total weight, W , from the following expressions:

$$K = \frac{P_o L}{v_{s, \max}} \quad (B4.21)$$

$$w = \int w(x) dx \quad (B4.22)$$

where:

- P_o = a uniform load arbitrarily set equal to 1.0 (N/mm.)
- L = total length of the bridge (mm)
- $v_{s, \max}$ = maximum value of $v_s(x)$ (mm)
- $w(x)$ = nominal, unfactored dead load of the bridge superstructure and tributary substructure (N/mm.)

The weight should take into account structural elements and other relevant loads including, but not limited to, pier caps, abutments, columns, and footings. Other loads, such as live loads, may be included. Generally, the inertia effects of live loads are not included in the analysis; however, the probability of a large live load being on the bridge during an earthquake should be considered when designing bridges with high live-to-dead load ratios that are located in metropolitan areas where traffic congestion is likely to occur.

- Calculate the period of the bridge, T_m , using the expression:

$$T_m = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{W}{gK}} \quad (\text{B4.23})$$

where:

- W = bridge total weight (N)
- g = acceleration of gravity (mm/sec²)
- K = bridge lateral stiffness (N/mm)

- Calculate the equivalent static earthquake loading p_e from the expression:

$$P_e = \frac{C_{sm} W}{L} \quad (\text{B4.24})$$

where:

- C_{sm} = the dimensionless elastic seismic response coefficient given by Eqs. (3.11) and (3.14) or Eq. (3.15).
- W = bridge total weight (N)
- L = total length of the bridge (mm)
- P_e = equivalent uniform static seismic loading per unit length of bridge applied to represent the primary mode of vibration (N/mm.)

- Calculate the displacements and member forces for use in design either by applying p_e to the structure and performing a second static analysis or by scaling the results of the first step above by the ratio p_e/p_o .

4.10.8. Commentary on Article 4.7.4.3.4.b "Acceleration Time Histories"

Characteristics of the seismic environment to be considered in selecting time histories include:

- Tectonic environment (ex., subduction zone; shallow crustal faults),
- Earthquake magnitude,
- Type of faulting (ex., strike-slip; reverse; normal),
- Seismic-source-to-site distance,
- Local site conditions, and
- Design or expected ground-motion characteristics (eg., design response spectrum, duration of strong shaking, and special ground motion characteristics such as near-fault characteristics).

Dominant earthquake magnitudes and distances, which contribute principally to the probabilistic design response spectra at a site, as determined from national ground motion maps.

It is desirable to select time histories that have been recorded under conditions similar to the seismic conditions at the site listed above, but compromises are usually required because of the multiple attributes of the seismic environment and the limited data bank of recorded time histories. Selection of time histories having similar earthquake magnitudes and distances, within reasonable ranges, are especially important parameters because they have a strong influence on response spectral content, response spectral shape, duration of strong shaking, and near-source ground-motion characteristics. It is desirable that selected recorded motions be somewhat similar in overall ground motion level and spectral shape to the design spectrum to avoid using very large scaling factors with recorded motions and very large changes in spectral content in the spectrum-matching approach. If the site is located within 10 Km of an active fault, then intermediate-to-long-period ground-motion pulses that are characteristic of near-source time histories should be included if these measures of ground motion characteristics could significantly influence structural response.

Similarly, the high short-period spectral content of near source vertical ground motions should be considered.

Ground motion modeling methods of strong motion seismology are being increasingly used to supplement the recorded ground motion database. These methods are especially useful for seismic settings for which relatively few actual strong motion recording are available. Through analytical simulation of the earthquake rupture and wave propagation process, these methods can produce seismologically reasonable time series.

Response spectrum matching approaches include methods in which time series adjustments are made in the time domain (Lilhanand and Tsena. 1988; Abrahamson. 1992) and those in which the adjustments are made in the frequency domain (Gasparini and Vanmarcke. 1976; Silva and Lee, 1987; Bolt and Gregor. 1993). Both of these approaches can be used to modify existing time histories to achieve a close match to the design response spectrum while maintaining fairly well the basic time domain character of the recorded or simulated time histories. To minimize changes to the time domain characteristics, it is desirable that the overall shape of the spectrum of the recorded time history not be greatly different from the shape of the design response spectrum and that the time history initially be scaled so that its spectrum is at the approximate level of the design spectrum before spectrum matching.

Where three-component sets of time histories are developed by simple scaling rather than spectrum matching, it is difficult to achieve a comparable aggregate match to the design spectra for each component of motion when using a single scaling factor for each time history set. It is desirable, however, to use a single scaling factor to preserve the relationship between the components. Approaches for dealing with this scaling issue include:

- use of a higher scaling factor to meet the minimum aggregate match requirement for one component while exceeding it for the other two.
- use of a scaling factor to meet the aggregate match for the most critical component with the match somewhat deficient for other components, and
- Compromising on the scaling by using different factors as required for different components of a time-history set.

While the second approach is acceptable, it requires careful examination and interpretation of the results and possibly dual analyses for application of the higher horizontal component in each principal horizontal direction.

The requirements for the number of time histories to be used in nonlinear inelastic dynamic analysis and for the interpretation of the results take into account the dependence of response on the time domain character of the time histories (duration, pulse shape, pulse sequencing) in addition to their response spectral content.

Additional guidance on developing acceleration time histories for dynamic analysis may be found in publications by the [Caltrans Seismic Advisory Board Adhoc Committee \(CSABAC\) on Soil-Foundation- Structure Interaction \(1999\)](#) and the [U.S. Army Corps of Engineers \(2000\)](#). [CSABAC \(1999\)](#) also provides detailed guidance on modeling the spatial variation of ground motion between bridge piers and the conduct of seismic soil-foundation-structure interaction (SFSI) analyses. Both spatial variations of ground motion and SFSI may significantly affect bridge response. Spatial variations include differences between seismic wave arrival times at bridge piers (wave passage effect), ground motion incoherence due to seismic wave scattering, and differential site response due to different soil profiles at different bridge piers. For long bridges, all forms of spatial variations may be important. For short bridges, limited information appears to indicate that wave passage effects and incoherence are, in general, relatively unimportant in comparison to effects of differential site response ([Shinozuka et al., 1999](#); [Martin, 1998](#)). [Somerville et al. \(1999\)](#) provide guidance on the characteristics of pulses of ground motion that occur in time histories in the near-fault region.

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SECTION 5. CONCRETE STRUCTURES

5.1. SCOPE

The provisions in this section apply to the design of bridge and retaining wall components constructed of normal density or low-density concrete and reinforced with steel bars, welded wire reinforcement, and/or prestressing strands, bars, or wires. The provisions are based on concrete with strengths varying from 28 to 70 MPa, higher strengths are allowed if quality assurance is implemented within the production of such concrete as well as the properties of such concrete is known. The provisions of this section combine and unify the requirements for reinforced, prestressed, and partially prestressed concrete. Provisions for seismic design and design of segmentally constructed concrete bridges and bridges made from precast concrete elements have been added.

5.2. DEFINITIONS

- Anchorage* : In post-tensioning, a mechanical device used to anchor the tendon to the concrete; in pretensioning, a device used to anchor the tendon until the concrete has reached a predetermined strength, and the prestressing force has been transferred to the concrete; for reinforcing bars, a length of reinforcement, or a mechanical anchor or hook, or combination thereof at the end of a bar needed to transfer the force carried by the bar into the concrete.
- Anchorage Blister* : A build-out area in the web, flange, or flange-web junction for the incorporation of tendon anchorage fittings.
- Anchorage Zone* : The portion of the structure in which the prestressing force is transferred from the anchorage device onto the local zone of the concrete, and then distributed more widely into the general zone of the structure.
- At Jacking* : At the time of tensioning, the prestressing tendons.
- At Loading* : The maturity of the concrete when loads are applied. Such loads include prestressing forces and permanent loads but generally not live loads.
- At Transfer* : Immediately after the transfer of prestressing force to the concrete.
- Blanketed Strand* : See Partially De-bonded Strand.
- Bonded Tendon* : A tendon that is bonded to the concrete, either directly or by means of grouting.
- Bursting Force* : Tensile forces in the concrete in the vicinity of the transfer or anchorage of prestressing forces.

<i>Cast-in-Place Concrete</i>	: Concrete placed in its final location in the structure while still in a plastic state.
<i>Closely Spaced Anchorages</i>	: Anchorage devices are defined as closely spaced if their center-to-center spacing does not exceed 1.5 times the width of the anchorage devices in the direction considered.
<i>Closure</i>	: A placement of cast-in-place concrete used to connect two or more previously cast portions of a structure.
<i>Composite Construction</i>	: Concrete components or concrete and steel components interconnected to respond to force effects as a unit.
<i>Compression-Controlled Section</i>	: A cross-section in which the net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel at nominal resistance is less than or equal to the compression-controlled strain limit.
<i>Compression-Controlled Strain Limit</i>	: The net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel at balanced strain conditions. See Article 5.7.2.1 .
<i>Concrete Cover</i>	: The specified minimum distance between the surface of the reinforcing bars, strands, post-tensioning ducts, anchorages, or other embedded items, and the surface of the concrete.
<i>Confinement</i>	: A condition where the disintegration of the concrete under compression is prevented by the development of lateral and/or circumferential forces such as may be provided by appropriate reinforcing, steel or composite tubes, or similar devices.
<i>Confinement Anchorage</i>	: Anchorage for a post-tensioning tendon that functions on the basis of containment of the concrete in the local anchorage zone by special reinforcement.
<i>Creep</i>	: Time-dependent deformation of concrete under permanent load.
<i>Curvature Friction</i>	: Friction resulting from the tendon moving against the duct when tensioned due to the curvature of the duct.
<i>Deck Slab</i>	: A solid concrete slab resisting and distributing wheel loads to the supporting components.
<i>Decompression</i>	: The stage at which the compressive stresses, induced by prestress, are overcome by the tensile stresses.
<i>Deep Component</i>	: Components in which the distance from the point of 0.0 shear to the face of the support is less than $2d$ or components in which a load causing more than one-third of the shear at a support is closer than $2d$ from the face of the support.

<i>Deviation Saddle</i>	: A concrete block build-out in a web, flange, or web-flange junction used to control the geometry of, or to provide a means for changing direction of, external tendons.
<i>Development Length</i>	: The distance required to develop the specified strength of a reinforcing bar or prestressing strand.
<i>Direct Loading/Supporting</i>	: Application of a load or use of a support external to the member, as in the case of point or uniform loads applied directly to the deck surface, simply-supported girder ends, bent (pier) cap supported on pinned columns.
<i>Edge Distance</i>	: The minimum distance between the centerline of reinforcement or other embedded elements and the edge of the concrete.
<i>Effective Depth</i>	: The depth of a component effective in resisting flexural or shear forces.
<i>Effective Prestress</i>	: The stress or forces remaining in the prestressing steel after all losses have occurred.
<i>Embedment Length</i>	: The length of reinforcement or anchor provided beyond a critical section over which transfer of force between concrete and reinforcement may occur.
<i>External Tendon</i>	: A post-tensioning tendon placed outside of the body of concrete, usually inside a box girder.
<i>Extreme Tension Steel</i>	: The reinforcement (prestressed or non-prestressed) that is farthest from the extreme compression fiber.
<i>Fully Prestressed Component</i>	: Prestressed concrete component in which stresses satisfy the tensile stress limits at Service Limit State specified herein. Such components are assumed to remain un-cracked at the Service Limit State.
<i>General Zone</i>	: Region adjacent to a post-tensioned anchorage within which the prestressing force spreads out to an essentially linear stress distribution over the cross-section of the component.
<i>Intermediate Anchorage</i>	: Anchorage not located at the end surface of a member or segment for tendons that do not extend over the entire length of the member or segment; usually in the form of embedded anchors, blisters, ribs, or recess pockets.
<i>Indirect Loading/Supporting</i>	: Application of a load or use of a support internally such as girders framing into an integral bent (pier) cap, dapped or spliced-girders where load transfer is between the top and bottom face of the member, or utility loads hung from the web of a girder.
<i>Internal Tendon</i>	: A post-tensioning tendon placed within the body of concrete.

<i>Isotropic Reinforcement</i>	: An arrangement of reinforcement in which the bars are orthogonal, and the reinforcement ratios in the two directions are equal.
<i>Jacking Force</i>	: The force exerted by the device that introduces tension into the tendons.
<i>Launching Bearing</i>	: Temporary bearings with low friction characteristics used for construction of bridges by the incremental launching method.
<i>Launching Nose</i>	: Temporary steel assembly attached to the front of an incrementally launched bridge to reduce superstructure force effects during launching.
<i>Low-Density Concrete</i>	: Concrete containing low-density aggregate and having an air-dry density not exceeding 1925 kg/m ³ , as determined by ASTM C 567. Low-density concrete without natural sand is termed “all-low-density concrete” and low-density concrete in which all of the fine aggregate consists of normal density sand is termed “sand-low-density concrete.”
<i>Local Zone</i>	: The volume of concrete that surrounds and is immediately ahead of the anchorage device and that is subjected to high compressive stresses.
<i>Low Relaxation Steel</i>	: Prestressing strand in which the steel relaxation losses have been substantially reduced by stretching at an elevated temperature.
<i>Net Tensile Strain</i>	: The tensile strain at nominal resistance exclusive of strains due to effective prestress, creep, shrinkage, and temperature.
<i>Normal-Density Concrete</i>	: Concrete having a density between 2150 and 2500 kg/m ³ .
<i>Partially De-bonded Strand</i>	: A pretensioned prestressing strand that is bonded for a portion of its length and intentionally de-bonded elsewhere through the use of mechanical or chemical means. Also called shielded or blanketed strand.
<i>Partially Prestressed component</i>	: See Partially Prestressed Concrete.
<i>Partially Prestressed Concrete</i>	: Concrete with a combination of prestressing strands and reinforcing bars.
<i>Post-Tensioning</i>	: A method of prestressing in which the tendons are tensioned after the concrete has reached a predetermined strength.

<i>Post-Tensioning Duct</i>	: A form device used to provide a path for post-tensioning tendons or bars in hardened concrete. The following types are in general use:
<i>Rigid Duct</i>	: Seamless tubing stiff enough to limit the deflection of a 6 m length supported at its ends to not more than 25 mm.
<i>Semi-Rigid Duct</i>	: A corrugated duct of metal or plastic sufficiently stiff to be regarded as not coilable into conventional shipping coils without damage.
<i>Flexible Duct</i>	: A loosely interlocked duct that can be coiled into a 1.2 m diameter without damage.
<i>Precast Members</i>	: Concrete elements cast in a location other than their final position.
<i>Precompressed Tensile Zone</i>	: Any region of a prestressed component in which prestressing causes compressive stresses and service load effects cause tensile stresses.
<i>Prestressed Concrete</i>	: Concrete components in which stresses and deformations are introduced by application of prestressing forces.
<i>Pretensioning</i>	: A method of prestressing in which the strands are tensioned before the concrete is placed.
<i>Reinforced Concrete</i>	: Structural concrete containing no less than the minimum amounts of prestressing tendons or non-prestressed reinforcement specified herein.
<i>Reinforcement</i>	: Reinforcing bars and/or prestressing steel.
<i>Relaxation</i>	: The time-dependent reduction of stress in prestressing tendons.
<i>Segmental Construction</i>	: The fabrication and erection of a structural element (superstructure and/or substructure) using individual elements, which may be either precast or cast-in-place. The completed structural element acts as a monolithic unit under some or all design loads. Post-tensioning is typically used to connect the individual elements. For superstructures, the individual elements are typically short (with respect to the span length), box-shaped segments with monolithic flanges that comprise the full width of the structure. (See Article 5.18.2 .)
<i>Seismic Hoop</i>	: A cylindrical non-continuously wound tie with closure made using a butt weld or a mechanical coupler.
<i>Shielded Strand</i>	: See Partially De-bonded Strand.
<i>Slab</i>	: A component having a width of at least four times its effective depth.

<i>Special Anchorage Device</i>	: Anchorage device whose adequacy should be proven in a standardized acceptance test. Most multi-plane anchorages and all bond anchorages are special anchorage devices.
<i>Specified Strength of Concrete</i>	: The nominal compressive strength of concrete specified for the work and assumed for design and analysis of new structures.
<i>Spiral</i>	: Continuously wound bar or wire in the form of a cylindrical helix.
<i>Spliced Precast Girder</i>	: A type of superstructure in which precast concrete beam-type elements are joined longitudinally, typically using post-tensioning, to form the completed girder. The bridge cross-section is typically a conventional structure consisting of multiple precast girders. This type of construction is not considered to be segmental construction for the purposes of these Specifications. (See Article 5.18.1.3 .)
<i>Splitting Tensile Strength</i>	: The tensile strength of concrete that is determined by a splitting test made in accordance with AASHTO T 198 (ASTM C 496) .
<i>Stress Range</i>	: The algebraic difference between the maximum and minimum stresses due to transient loads.
<i>Structural Concrete</i>	: All concrete used for structural purposes.
<i>Structural Mass Concrete</i>	: Any large volume of concrete where special materials or procedures are required to cope with the generation of heat of hydration and attendant volume change to minimize cracking.
<i>Strut-and-Tie Model</i>	: A model used principally in regions of concentrated forces and geometric discontinuities to determine concrete proportions and reinforcement quantities and patterns based on assumed compression struts in the concrete, tensile ties in the reinforcement, and the geometry of nodes at their points of intersection.
<i>Temperature Gradient</i>	: Variation of temperature of the concrete over the cross-section.
<i>Tendon</i>	: A high-strength steel element used to prestress the concrete.
<i>Tension-Controlled Section</i>	: A cross-section in which the net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel at nominal resistance is greater than or equal to 0.005.
<i>Transfer</i>	: The operation of imparting the force in a pretensioning anchoring device to the concrete.

<i>Transfer Length</i>	: The length over which the pretensioning force is transferred to the concrete by bond and friction in a pretensioned member.
<i>Transverse Reinforcement</i>	: Reinforcement used to resist shear, torsion, and lateral forces or to confine concrete in a structural member. The terms “stirrups” and “web reinforcement” are usually applied to transverse reinforcement in flexural members and the terms “ties,” “hoops,” and “spirals” are applied to transverse reinforcement in compression members.
<i>Wobble Friction</i>	: The friction caused by the deviation of a tendon duct or sheath from its specified profile.
<i>Yield Strength</i>	: The specified yield strength of reinforcement.

5.3. NOTATION

A	= the maximum area of the portion of the supporting surface that is similar to the loaded area and concentric with it and that does not overlap similar areas for adjacent anchorage devices (mm^2); for segmental construction: static weight of precast segment being handled (N)
A_b	= area of an individual bar (mm^2); effective bearing area (mm^2); net area of a bearing plate (mm^2)
A_C	= area of core of spirally reinforced compression member measured to the outside diameter of the spiral (mm^2); gross area of concrete deck slab (mm^2)
A_{cb}	= the area of the continuing cross-section within the extensions of the sides of the anchor plate or blister, i.e., the area of the blister or rib shall not be taken as part of the cross-section (mm^2)
A_{cp}	= area enclosed by outside perimeter of concrete cross-section, including area of holes, if any (mm^2)
A_{cs}	= cross-sectional area of a concrete strut in strut-and-tie model (mm^2)
A_{cv}	= area of concrete section resisting shear transfer (mm^2)
A_d	= area of deck concrete (mm^2)
A_g	= gross area of section (mm^2); gross area of bearing plate (mm^2)
A_h	= area of shear reinforcement parallel to flexural tension reinforcement (mm^2)
A_{hr}	= area of one leg of hanger reinforcement in beam ledges and inverted T-beams (mm^2)
AI	= for segmental construction: dynamic response due to accidental release or application of a precast segment (N)

A_ℓ	=	area of longitudinal torsion reinforcement in the exterior web of the box girder (mm ²)
A_n	=	area of reinforcement in bracket or corbel resisting tensile force N_{uc} (mm ²)
A_o	=	area enclosed by shear flow path, including area of holes, if any (mm ²)
A_{oh}	=	area enclosed by centerline of exterior closed transverse torsion reinforcement, including area of holes, if any (mm ²)
A_{ps}	=	area of prestressing steel (mm ²)
A_{psb}	=	area of bonded prestressing steel (mm ²)
A_{psu}	=	area of un-bonded prestressing steel (mm ²)
A_s	=	area of non-prestressed tension reinforcement (mm ²); total area of longitudinal deck reinforcement (mm ²)
A'_s	=	Area of compression reinforcement (mm ²)
A_{sh}	=	cross-sectional area of column tie reinforcements (mm ²)
A_{sk}	=	area of skin reinforcement per unit height in one side face (mm ²)
A_{sp1}	=	cross-sectional area of a tendon in the larger group (mm ²)
A_{sp2}	=	cross-sectional area of a tendon in the smaller group (mm ²)
A_{ss}	=	area of reinforcement in an assumed strut of a strut-and-tie model (mm ²)
A_{st}	=	total area of longitudinal reinforcing bars (mm ²)
A_{s-BW}	=	area of steel in the footing band width (mm ²)
A_{s-SD}	=	total area of steel in short direction of a footing (mm ²)
A_t	=	area of one leg of closed transverse torsion reinforcement (mm ²)
A_{tr}	=	area of concrete deck slab with transformed longitudinal deck reinforcement (mm ²)
A_v	=	area of a transverse reinforcement within distances (mm ²)
A_{vf}	=	area of shear-friction reinforcement (mm ²); area of reinforcement for interface shear between concretes of slab and beam (mm ² /mm); total area of reinforcement, including flexural reinforcement (mm ²)
A_w	=	area of an individual wire to be developed or spliced (mm ²)
A_l	=	loaded area (mm ²)

A_2	=	area of the lower base of the largest frustum of a pyramid, cone, or tapered wedge contained wholly within the support and having for its upper base the loaded area and having side slopes of 1 vertical to 2 horizontal (mm^2)
a	=	depth of equivalent rectangular stress block (mm); the anchor plate width (mm); the lateral dimension of the anchorage device measured parallel to the larger dimension of the cross-section (mm)
a_{eff}	=	lateral dimension of the effective bearing area measured parallel to the larger dimension of the cross-section (mm)
a_f	=	distance between concentrated load and reinforcement parallel to load (mm)
a_v	=	shear span: distance between concentrated load and face of support (mm)
b	=	width of the compression face of the member (mm); least width of component section (mm); the lateral dimension of the anchorage device measured parallel to the smaller dimension of the cross-section (mm)
b_e	=	effective width of the shear flow path (mm)
b_{eff}	=	lateral dimension of the effective bearing area measured parallel to the smaller dimension of the cross-section (mm)
b_o	=	perimeter of critical section for slabs and footings (mm)
b_v	=	width of web adjusted for the presence of ducts (mm); width of the interface (mm)
b_w	=	web width or diameter of a circular section (mm)
CE	=	for segmental construction: specialized construction equipment (N)
CLE	=	for segmental construction: longitudinal construction equipment load (N)
CLL	=	for segmental construction: distributed construction live load (MPa)
CR	=	loss of prestress due to creep of concrete (MPa)
c	=	distance from the extreme compression fiber to the neutral axis (mm); cohesion factor (MPa); required concrete cover over the reinforcing steel (mm); spacing from centerline of bearing to end of beam (mm)
D	=	external diameter of the circular member (mm)
DC	=	weight of supported structure (N)
$DIFF$	=	for segmental construction: differential load (N)
D_r	=	diameter of the circle passing through the centers of the longitudinal reinforcement (mm)
DW	=	superimposed dead load (N) or (N/mm)

d	= distance from compression face to centroid of tension reinforcement (mm)
d_b	= nominal diameter of a reinforcing bar, wire, or prestressing strand (mm)
d_{burst}	= distance from anchorage device to the centroid of the bursting force, T_{burst} (mm)
d_c	= thickness of concrete cover measured from extreme tension fiber to center of bar or wire located closest thereto (mm); minimum concrete cover over the tendon duct, plus one-half of the duct diameter (mm)
d_e	= effective depth from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the tensile force in the tensile reinforcement (mm)
d_f	= distance from top of ledge to compression reinforcement (mm)
d_p	= distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the prestressing tendons (mm)
d_s	= distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the non-prestressed tensile reinforcement (mm)
d'_s	= distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of compression reinforcement (mm)
d_t	= distance from extreme compression fiber to centroid of extreme tension steel (mm)
d_v	= effective shear depth (mm)
E_b	= modulus of elasticity of the bearing plate material (MPa)
E_c	= modulus of elasticity of concrete (MPa)
E_{cd}	= modulus of elasticity of deck concrete (MPa)
$E_{c\ deck}$	= modulus of elasticity of deck concrete (MPa)
E_{ci}	= modulus of elasticity of concrete at transfer (MPa)
E_{ct}	= modulus of elasticity of concrete at transfer or time of load application n (MPa)
E_{eff}	= effective modulus of elasticity (MPa)
EI	= flexural stiffness (N.mm ²)
E_p	= modulus of elasticity of prestressing tendons (MPa)
E_s	= modulus of elasticity of reinforcing bars (MPa)

e	= base of Napierian logarithms; eccentricity of the anchorage device or group of devices with respect to the centroid of the cross-section; always taken as positive (mm); minimum edge distance for anchorage devices as specified by the supplier (mm)
e_d	= eccentricity of deck with respect to the transformed composite section, taken as negative in common construction (mm)
e_m	= average eccentricity at midspan (mm)
e_{pc}	= eccentricity of strands with respect to centroid of composite section (mm)
e_{pg}	= eccentricity of strands with respect to centroid of girder (mm)
F	= force effect calculated using instantaneous modulus of elasticity at time loading is applied (N)
F'	= reduced force resultant accounting for creep in time corresponding to the ϕ used (N)
F_ϵ	= reduction factor
F_{u-in}	= in-plane deviation force effect per unit length of tendon (N/mm)
F_{u-out}	= out-of-plane force effect per unit length of tendon (N/mm)
f_b	= stress in anchor plate at a section taken at the edge of the wedge hole or holes (MPa)
f'_c	= specified compressive strength of concrete for use in design (MPa)
f_{ca}	= concrete compressive stress ahead of the anchorage devices (MPa)
f_{cb}	= Un-factored dead load compressive stress in the region behind the anchor (MPa)
f_{cgp}	= concrete stress at the center of gravity of prestressing tendons, that results from the prestressing force at either transfer or jacking and the self-weight of the member at sections of maximum moment (MPa)
f'_{ci}	= specified compressive strength of concrete at time of initial loading or prestressing (MPa); nominal concrete strength at time of application of tendon force (MPa)
f_{cpe}	= compressive stress in concrete due to effective prestress forces only (after allowance for all prestress losses) at extreme fiber of section where tensile stress is caused by externally applied loads (MPa)
f_{ct}	= average splitting tensile strength of low-density aggregate concrete (MPa)
f_{cu}	= limiting concrete compressive stress for design by strut-and-tie model (MPa)

f_f	=	permissible fatigue stress range (MPa)
f_{min}	=	algebraic minimum stress level (MPa)
f_n	=	nominal concrete bearing stress (MPa)
f_{pbt}	=	stress in prestressing steel immediately prior to transfer (MPa)
f_{pc}	=	compressive stress in concrete after all prestress losses have occurred either at the centroid of the cross-section resisting live load or at the junction of the web and flange when the centroid lies in the flange (MPa); in a composite section, f_{pc} is the resultant compressive stress at the centroid of the composite section or at the junction of the web and flange when the centroid lies within the flange, that results from both prestress and the bending moments resisted by the precast member acting alone (MPa)
f_{pe}	=	effective stress in the prestressing steel after losses (MPa)
f_{pj}	=	stress in the prestressing steel at jacking (MPa)
f_{po}	=	a parameter taken as modulus of elasticity of prestressing tendons multiplied by the locked-in difference in strain between the prestressing tendons and the surrounding concrete (MPa)
f_{ps}	=	average stress in prestressing steel at the time for which the nominal resistance of member is required (MPa)
f_{psl}	=	stress in the strand at the Service limit state. Cracked section shall be assumed (MPa)
f_{pt}	=	stress in prestressing steel immediately after transfer (MPa)
f_{pu}	=	specified tensile strength of prestressing steel (MPa)
f_{pul}	=	stress in the strand at the Strength limit state (MPa)
f_{px}	=	design stress in pretensioned strand at nominal flexural strength at section of member under consideration (MPa)
f_{py}	=	yield strength of prestressing steel (MPa)
f_r	=	modulus of rupture of concrete (MPa)
f_s	=	tensile stress in reinforcing bars at nominal flexural resistance (MPa)
f'_s	=	compression stress in reinforcing bars at nominal flexural resistance (MPa)
f_{ss}	=	tensile stress in reinforcing bars at the service limit state (MPa)
f_y	=	specified yield strength of reinforcing bars ≤ 500 MPa
f'_y	=	specified minimum yield strength of compression reinforcement (MPa)

f_{yh}	=	specified yield strength of transverse reinforcement (MPa)
H	=	average annual ambient mean relative humidity (percent)
h	=	overall thickness or depth of a member (mm); least thickness of component section (mm); lateral dimension of the cross-section in the direction considered (mm)
h_c	=	core dimension of tied column in direction under consideration (mm)
h_f	=	compression flange depth (mm)
h_1	=	largest lateral dimension of member (mm)
h_2	=	least lateral dimension of member (mm)
I_c	=	moment of inertia of section calculated using the net concrete section properties of the girder and the deck and the deck-to-girder modular ratio at service (mm^4)
I_{cr}	=	moment of inertia of the cracked section, transformed to concrete (mm^4)
IE	=	for segmental construction: dynamic load from equipment (N)
I_e	=	effective moment of inertia (mm^4)
I_g	=	moment of inertia of the gross concrete section about the centroidal axis, neglecting the reinforcement (mm^4)
I_s	=	moment of inertia of the reinforcing taken about the centroid of the column (mm^4)
K	=	effective length factor for compression members; stress variable used in calculating torsional cracking moment; wobble friction coefficient (per mm of tendon)
K_{df}	=	transformed section coefficient that accounts for time-dependent interaction between concrete and bonded steel in the section being considered for time period between deck placement and final time
K_{id}	=	transformed section coefficient that accounts for time-dependent interaction between concrete and bonded steel in the section being considered for time period between transfer and deck placement
K_L	=	factor accounting for type of steel taken as 30 for low relaxation strands and 7 for other prestressing steel, unless more accurate manufacturer's data are available
K'_L	=	factor accounting for type of steel
K_I	=	correction factor for source of aggregate

k_c	=	factor for the effect of the volume-to-surface ratio
k_f	=	factor for the effect of concrete strength
k_{hc}	=	humidity factor for creep
k_{hs}	=	humidity factor for shrinkage
k_s	=	factor for the effect of the volume-to-surface ratio
k_{td}	=	time development factor
k_{vs}	=	factor for the effect of the volume-to-surface ratio of the component
L	=	span length (mm); length of bearing plate or pad (mm)
ℓ_a	=	additional embedment length at support or at point of inflection (mm)
ℓ_c	=	longitudinal extent of confining reinforcement of the local zone but not more than the larger of $1.15 a_{eff}$ or $1.15 b_{eff}$ (mm); length of lap for compression lap splices (mm)
ℓ_d	=	development length (mm)
ℓ_{db}	=	basic development length for straight reinforcement to which modification factors are applied to determine ℓ_d (mm)
ℓ_{dh}	=	development length of standard hook in tension as measured from critical section to outside end of hook (mm)
ℓ_{dsh}	=	total length of extended strand (mm)
ℓ_e	=	effective tendon length (mm); embedment length beyond standard stirrup hook (mm)
ℓ_{hb}	=	basic development length of standard hook in tension (mm)
ℓ_{hd}	=	development length for deformed wire fabric (mm)
ℓ_i	=	length of tendon between anchorages (mm)
ℓ_{px}	=	distance from free end of pretensioned strand to section of member under consideration (mm)
ℓ_u	=	unsupported length of a compression member (mm)
M_a	=	maximum moment in a member at the stage for which deformation is computed (N-mm)
M_c	=	magnified moment used for proportioning slender compression members (N-mm)
M_{cr}	=	cracking moment (N-mm)

M_{dnc}	=	total un-factored dead load moment acting on the monolithic or non-composite section (N-mm)
M_g	=	Mid-span moment due to member self-weight (N-mm)
M_n	=	nominal flexural resistance (N-mm)
M_r	=	factored flexural resistance of a section in bending (N-mm)
M_{rx}	=	uniaxial factored flexural resistance of a section in the direction of the x-axis (N-mm)
M_{ry}	=	uniaxial factored flexural resistance of a section in the direction of the y-axis (N-mm)
M_u	=	factored moment at the section (N-mm)
M_{ux}	=	component of moment due to factored load in the direction of the x-axis (N-mm)
M_{uy}	=	component of moment due to factored load in the direction of the y-axis (N-mm)
M_1	=	smaller end moment at the strength limit state due to factored load acting on a compression member; positive if the member is bent in single curvature and negative if bent in double curvature (N-mm)
M_2	=	larger end moment at the strength limit state due to factored load acting on a compression member; always positive (N-mm)
m	=	modification factor
N	=	the number of identical prestressing tendons
N_R	=	factored tensile resistance of transverse pair of reinforcing bars (N)
N_s	=	number of support hinges crossed by the tendon between anchorages or discretely bonded points
N_u	=	applied factored axial force taken as positive if tensile (N)
N_{uc}	=	factored axial force normal to the cross-section, occurring simultaneously with V_u ; taken to be positive for tension and negative for compression; includes effects of tension due to creep and shrinkage (N)
N_1	=	number of tendons in the larger group.
N_2	=	number of tendons in the smaller group.
n	=	modular ratio = E_s/E_c or E_p/E_c ; number of anchorages in a row; projection of base plate beyond the wedge hole or wedge plate, as appropriate (mm); modular ratio between deck concrete and reinforcement

P_c	= permanent net compressive force (N)
P_n	= nominal axial resistance of a section (N); nominal axial resistance of strut or tie (N); nominal bearing resistance (N)
P_o	= nominal axial resistance of a section at 0.0 eccentricity (N)
PPR	= partial prestressing ratio.
P_r	= factored axial resistance of strut or tie (N); factored bearing resistance of anchorages (N); factored bursting resistance of pretensioned anchorage zone provided by transverse reinforcement (N)
P_{rx}	= factored axial resistance corresponding to M_{rx} (N)
P_{rxy}	= factored axial resistance with biaxial loading (N)
P_{ry}	= factored axial resistance corresponding to M_{ry} (N)
P_s	= maximum un-factored anchorage stressing force (N)
P_u	= factored axial force effect or factored tendon force (N); factored tendon load on an individual anchor (N)
p_c	= length of outside perimeter of the concrete section (mm)
p_h	= perimeter of the centerline of the closed transverse torsion reinforcement (mm); perimeter of the polygon defined by the centroids of the longitudinal chords of the space truss resisting torsion (mm)
Q	= force effect in associated units.
R	= radius of curvature of the tendon at the considered location (mm)
r	= radius of gyration of gross cross-section (mm)
r/h	= ratio of base radius to height of rolled-on transverse deformations
S	= center-to-center spacing of bearing along a beam ledge (mm)
S_c	= section modulus for the extreme fiber of the composite section where tensile stress is caused by externally applied loads (mm ³)
SH	= Shrinkage.
S_{nc}	= section modulus for the extreme fiber of the monolithic or non-composite section where tensile stress is caused by externally applied loads (mm ³)
s	= average spacing of reinforcing bars in layer closest to tension face (mm); spacing of reinforcing bars (mm); spacing of rows of ties (mm); anchorage spacing (mm); center-to-center spacing of anchorages (mm); spacing of hanger reinforcing bars (mm)

s_{max}	=	maximum permitted spacing of transverse reinforcement (mm)
s_w	=	spacing of wires to be developed or spliced (mm)
s_x	=	crack spacing parameter (mm)
T_{burst}	=	tensile force in the anchorage zone acting ahead of the anchorage device and transverse to the tendon axis (N)
T_{cr}	=	torsional cracking resistance (N-mm)
T_{ia}	=	tie-back tension force at the intermediate anchorage (N)
T_n	=	nominal torsion resistance (N-mm)
T_r	=	factored torsional resistance provided by circulatory shear flow (N-mm)
T_u	=	factored torsional moment (N-mm)
T_l	=	edge tension force (N)
T_2	=	bursting force (N)
t	=	time (day); thickness of wall (mm); thickness of the section (mm); average thickness of bearing plate (mm)
t_d	=	age at deck placement (day)
t_f	=	final age (day)
t_i	=	age of concrete when load is initially applied (day)
U	=	for segmental construction: segment unbalance (N)
V_c	=	nominal shear resistance provided by tensile stresses in the concrete (N)
V_n	=	nominal shear resistance of the section considered (N)
V_p	=	component in the direction of the applied shear of the effective prestressing force; positive if resisting the applied shear (N)
V_r	=	factored shear resistance (N)
V/S	=	volume-to-surface ratio.
V_s	=	shear resistance provided by shear reinforcement (N)
V_u	=	factored shear force at section (N)
v_u	=	average factored shear stress on the concrete (MPa)
W	=	width of bearing plate measured along the length of a corbel, bracket, or beam ledge (mm)

W/C	=	water cement ratio.
WE	=	for segmental construction: horizontal wind load on equipment (N)
WUP	=	for segmental construction: wind uplift on cantilever (MPa)
X_u	=	clear length of the constant thickness portion of a wall between other walls or fillers between walls (mm)
x	=	Length of a prestressing tendon from the jacking end to any point under consideration (mm)
y_t	=	distance from the neutral axis to the extreme tension fiber (mm)
α	=	angle of inclination of transverse reinforcement to longitudinal axis ($^{\circ}$); total angular change of prestressing steel path from jacking end to a point under investigation (rad.); the angle of inclination of a tendon force with respect to the centerline of the member ($^{\circ}$)
α_h	=	total horizontal angular change of prestressing steel path from jacking end to a point under investigation (rad.)
α_s	=	angle between compressive strut and adjoining tension tie ($^{\circ}$)
α_v	=	total vertical angular change of prestressing steel path from jacking end to a point under investigation (rad.)
β	=	factor relating effect of longitudinal strain on the shear capacity of concrete, as indicated by the ability of diagonally cracked concrete to transmit tension; ratio of long side to short side of footing.
β_b	=	ratio of the area of reinforcement cut off to the total area of tension reinforcement at the section.
β_c	=	ratio of the long side to the short side of the concentrated load or reaction area
β_d	=	ratio of maximum factored dead load moments to maximum factored total load moment; always positive.
β_l	=	ratio of the depth of the equivalent uniformly stressed compression zone assumed in the strength limit state to the depth of the actual compression zone
β_s	=	ratio of flexural strain at the extreme tension face to the strain at the centroid of the reinforcement layer nearest the tension face.
γ	=	load factor.
γ_c	=	density of concrete (kg/m^3)
γ_e	=	crack control exposure condition factor

Δf_{cd}	= change in concrete stress at centroid of prestressing strands due to long-term losses between transfer and deck placement, combined with deck weight and superimposed loads (MPa)
Δf_{cdf}	= change in concrete stress at centroid of prestressing strands due to shrinkage of deck concrete (MPa)
Δf_{cdp}	= change in concrete stress at c.g. of prestressing steel due to all dead loads, except dead load acting at the time the prestressing force is applied (MPa)
Δf_{pA}	= loss in prestressing steel stress due to anchorage set (MPa)
Δf_{pCD}	= prestress loss due to creep of girder concrete between time of deck placement and final time (MPa)
Δf_{pCR}	= prestress loss due to creep of girder concrete between transfer and deck placement (MPa)
Δf_{pES}	= loss in prestressing steel stress due to elastic shortening (MPa)
Δf_{pF}	= loss in prestressing steel stress due to friction (MPa)
Δf_{pR1}	= prestress loss due to relaxation of prestressing strands between transfer and deck placement (MPa)
Δf_{pR2}	= prestress loss due to relaxation of prestressing strands in composite section between time of deck placement and final time (MPa)
Δf_{pSD}	= prestress loss due to shrinkage of girder concrete between time of deck placement and final time (MPa)
Δf_{pSR}	= prestress loss due to shrinkage of girder concrete between transfer and deck placement (MPa)
Δf_{pSS}	= prestress loss due to shrinkage of deck composite section (MPa)
Δf_{pT}	= total loss in prestressing steel stress (MPa)
ϵ_{bdf}	= shrinkage strain of girder between time of deck placement and final time (mm/mm)
ϵ_{bid}	= concrete shrinkage strain of girder between transfer and deck placement (mm/mm)
ϵ_{cu}	= failure strain of concrete in compression (mm/mm)
ϵ_{ddf}	= shrinkage strain of deck concrete between placement and final time (mm/mm)
$\epsilon_{effective}$	= effective concrete shrinkage strain (mm/mm)
ϵ_s	= tensile strain in cracked concrete in direction of tension tie (mm/mm)

ε_{sh}	= concrete shrinkage strain at a given time (mm/mm); unrestrained shrinkage strain for deck concrete (mm/mm)
ε_t	= net tensile strain in extreme tension steel at nominal resistance
ε_x	= longitudinal strain in the web reinforcement on the flexural tension side of the member (mm/mm)
ε_l	= principal tensile strain in cracked concrete due to factored loads (mm/mm)
θ	= angle of inclination of diagonal compressive stresses (°)
θ_s	= angle between compression strut and longitudinal axis of the member in a shear truss model of a beam (°)
κ	= correction factor for closely spaced anchorages; multiplier for strand development length.
λ	= parameter used to determine friction coefficient μ .
λ_w	= wall slenderness ratio for hollow columns.
μ	= coefficient of friction.
ϕ	= resistance factor.
ϕ_w	= hollow column reduction factor.
ρ_h	= ratio of area of horizontal shear reinforcement to area of gross concrete area of a vertical section.
ρ_{min}	= minimum ratio of tension reinforcement to effective concrete area.
ρ_s	= ratio of spiral reinforcement to total volume of column core.
ρ_v	= ratio of area of vertical shear reinforcement to area of gross concrete area of a horizontal section.
$\Psi(t, t_i)$	= creep coefficient—the ratio of the creep strain that exists t days after casting to the elastic strain caused when load p_i is applied t_i days after casting.
$\Psi_b(t_d, t_i)$	= girder creep coefficient at time of deck placement due to loading introduced at transfer.
$\Psi_b(t_f, t_d)$	= girder creep coefficient at final time due to loading at deck placement; creep coefficient of deck concrete at final time due to loading introduced shortly after deck placement (i.e., overlays, barriers, etc.).
$\Psi_b(t_f, t_i)$	= girder creep coefficient at final time due to loading introduced at transfer.

5.4. MATERIAL PROPERTIES

5.4.1. General

Designs should be based on the material properties cited herein and on the use of materials that conform to the standards for the grades of construction materials as specified in **MA-100-C-V1/1**.

When other grades or types of materials are used, their properties, including statistical variability, shall be established prior to design. The minimum acceptable properties and test procedures for such materials shall be specified in the contract documents.

The contract documents shall define the grades or properties of all materials to be used.

5.4.2. Normal Weight and Structural Low-Density Concrete

5.4.2.1. Compressive Strength

For each component, the specified compressive strength, f'_c , or the class of concrete shall be shown in the contract documents.

Design concrete strengths above 70 MPa shall be used only when allowed by specific Articles or when physical tests are made to establish the relationships between the concrete strength and other properties. Specified concrete with strengths below 28 MPa should not be used in structural applications.

For low-density structural concrete, air dry density, strength and any other properties required for the application shall be specified in the contract documents.

For concrete Classes A and P used in or over saltwater, the W/C ratio shall be specified not to exceed 0.45.

The sum of Portland cement and other cementitious materials shall be specified not to exceed 475 kg/m³, except for Class P (HPC) concrete where the sum of Portland cement and other cementitious materials shall be specified not to exceed 600 kg/m³.

Table 5.1: Concrete Mix Characteristics by Class

Class of Concrete	28-Day Compressive Strength (MPa)	Case of Use
A & B	28	- For all elements of structures, except when another class is more appropriate, and specifically for concrete exposed to saltwater. - For footings, pedestals, massive pier shafts, and gravity walls.
C	28	- For thin sections, such as reinforced railings less than 100 mm thick, for filler in steel grid floors, etc.

P P(HPC)	As specified in the contract document	- For prestressed concrete, consideration should be given to limiting the nominal aggregate size to 20 mm.
S	-	- For concrete deposited underwater in cofferdams to seal out water.

5.4.2.2. Coefficient of Thermal Expansion

The coefficient of thermal expansion should be determined by the laboratory tests on the specific mix to be used.

In the absence of more precise data, the thermal coefficient of expansion may be taken from [Table 3.28](#).

5.4.2.3. Shrinkage and Creep

1. General

Values of shrinkage and creep specified herein and in Articles [5.9.5.3](#) and [5.9.5.4](#), shall be used to determine the effects of shrinkage and creep on the loss of prestressing force in bridges other than segmentally constructed ones. These values in conjunction with the moment of inertia, as specified in Article [5.7.3.6.2](#), may be used to determine the effects of shrinkage and creep on deflections.

These provisions shall be applicable for specified concrete strengths up to 70 MPa. In the absence of more accurate data, the shrinkage coefficients may be assumed to be 0.0002 after 28 days and 0.0005 after one year of drying.

When mix-specific data are not available, estimates of shrinkage and creep may be made using the provisions of:

- Articles [5.4.2.3.2](#) and [5.4.2.3.3](#),
- The CEB-FIP model code, or
- ACI 209.

For segmentally constructed bridges, a more precise estimate shall be made, including the effect of:

- Specific materials,
- Structural dimensions,
- Site conditions
- Construction methods, and
- Concrete age at various stages of erection.

2. Creep

The creep coefficient may be taken as:

$$\psi(t, t_i) = 1.9 k_{vs} k_{hc} k_f k_{id} t_i^{-0.118} \quad (5.1)$$

for which

$$k_{vs} = 1.45 - 0.0051 \left(\frac{V}{S} \right) \geq 1.0 \quad (5.2)$$

$$k_{hc} = 1.56 - 0.008H \quad (5.3)$$

$$k_f = \frac{35}{7 + f'_{ci}} \quad (5.4)$$

$$k_{td} = \left(\frac{t}{61 - 0.58f'_{ci} + t} \right) \quad (5.5)$$

where:

- H = relative humidity (%)
- k_{vs} = factor for the effect of the volume-to-surface ratio of the component
- k_f = factor for the effect of concrete strength
- k_{hc} = humidity factor for creep
- k_{td} = time development factor
- t = maturity of concrete (day), defined as age of concrete between time of loading for creep calculations, or end of curing for shrinkage calculations, and time being considered for analysis of creep or shrinkage effects
- t_i = age of concrete at time of load application (day)
- V/S = volume-to-surface ratio (mm)
- f'_{ci} = specified compressive strength of concrete at time of prestressing for Pretensioned members and at time of initial loading for non-prestressed members. If concrete age at time of initial loading is unknown at design time, f'_{ci} may be taken as $0.80 f'_c$ (MPa).

The surface area used in determining the volume-to-surface ratio should include only the area that is exposed to atmospheric drying. For poorly ventilated enclosed cells, only 50 percent (50%) of the interior perimeter should be used in calculating the surface area. For precast members with cast-in-place topping, the total precast surface should be used. For pretensioned stemmed members (I-beams, T-beams, and box beams), with an average web thickness of 150 to 200 mm, the value of k_{vs} may be taken as 1.00.

3. Shrinkage

For concretes devoid of shrinkage-prone aggregates, the strain due to shrinkage, ϵ_{sh} , at time, t , may be taken as:

$$\epsilon_{sh} = k_{vs} k_{hs} k_f k_{td} 0.48 \times 10^{-3} \quad (5.6)$$

in which:

$$k_{hs} = (2.00 - 0.014 H) \quad (5.7)$$

where k_{hs} is a humidity factor for shrinkage

If the concrete is exposed to drying before five days of curing have elapsed, the shrinkage as determined in Eq. (5.6) Should be increased by 20 percent.

Large concrete members may undergo substantially less shrinkage than that measured by laboratory testing of small specimens of the same concrete. The

constraining effects of reinforcement and composite actions with other elements of the bridge tend to reduce the dimensional changes in some components.

5.4.2.4. Modulus of Elasticity

In the absence of measured data, the modulus of elasticity, E_c , for concretes with unit densities between 1440 and 2500 kg/m³ and specified compressive strengths up to 70 MPa may be taken as:

$$E_c = \left(3000 \sqrt{f'_c} + 6900 \right) \left(\frac{\gamma_c}{2300} \right)^{1.5} \quad (5.8)$$

where:

γ_c = unit density of concrete (kg/m³); refer to [Table 3.4](#).

f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete (MPa).

5.4.2.5. Poisson's Ratio

Unless determined by physical tests, Poisson's ratio may be assumed as 0.2. For components expected to be subject to cracking, the effect of Poisson's ratio may be neglected.

5.4.2.6. Modulus of Rupture

Unless determined by physical tests, the modulus of rupture, f_r in MPa, for specified concrete strengths up to 70 MPa, may be taken as:

- For normal-density concrete:

When used to calculate the cracking moment of a member in
Articles [5.7.3.4](#) and [5.7.3.6.2](#), and [Section 6](#).

..... 0.63 $\sqrt{f'_c}$

When used to calculate the cracking moment of a member in
Article [5.7.3.3.2](#)

..... 0.97 $\sqrt{f'_c}$

When used to calculate the cracking moment of a member in
Article [5.8.2.5.1.b](#)

..... 0.52 $\sqrt{f'_c}$

- For low-density concrete:

For sand-low-density concrete

..... 0.52 $\sqrt{f'_c}$

For all-low-density concrete

..... 0.45 $\sqrt{f'_c}$

When physical tests are used to determine modulus of rupture, the tests shall be performed in accordance with [AASHTO T 97](#) and shall be performed on concrete using the same proportions and materials as specified for the structure.

5.4.2.7. Tensile Strength

Direct tensile strength may be determined by either using **ASTM C 900**, or the split tensile strength method in accordance with **AASHTO T 198 (ASTM C 496)**.

For normal weight concrete, the direct tensile strength may be estimated as:

$$f_r = 0.25\sqrt{f'_c} \quad (5.9)$$

5.4.3. Reinforcing Steel

5.4.3.1. Specification

Reinforcing bars, deformed wire, cold-drawn wire, welded plain wire fabric, and welded deformed wire fabric shall conform to the material standards as specified in Article 11.2 “Materials” of the MA-100-C-V1/1.

Reinforcement shall be deformed, except that plain bars or plain wire may be used for spirals, hoops, and wire fabric.

5.4.3.2. Yield strength

The specified yield strength, f_y , of reinforcing bars shall be between 300 and 500 MPa and shall be shown on the Plans.

Where ductility is to be assured or where welding is required, steel conforming to the requirements of **ASTM A 706M**, “**Low Alloy Steel Deformed Bars for Concrete Reinforcement**,” should be specified⁽¹⁾.

5.4.3.3. Modulus of Elasticity

The modulus of elasticity, E_s , of reinforcing steel shall be assumed as 200 000 MPa.

5.4.3.4. Special Applications

Reinforcement to be welded shall be indicated in the contract documents, and the welding procedure to be used shall be specified.

Locations where epoxy-coated reinforcement is to be used shall be identified in the contract documents.

5.4.4. Prestressing Steel

5.4.4.1. General

Steel for prestressing shall conform to one of the following specifications:

Table 5.2: Prestressing Steel Specifications

Prestressing Steel			Required Specifications		
Uncoated strands	seven-wire	stress-relieved	AASHTO M203	or	ASTM A416
Uncoated stress-relieved steel wire			AASHTO M204	or	ASTM A421
Uncoated bars	plain or deformed	high-strength	AASHTO M275	or	ASTM A722

⁽¹⁾ A 706M reinforcement should be considered for seismic design because of the greater quality control by which unanticipated overstrength is limited.

The properties for prestressing steel are shown in [Table 5.3](#).

Low relaxation strand shall be regarded as the standard type. Stress-relieved (normal relaxation) strand will not be furnished unless specifically ordered, or by arrangement between purchaser and supplier.

Table 5.3: Properties of Prestressing Strand, wire and Bar

Material	Grade or Type	Diameter (mm)	Tensile Strength, f_{pu} (MPa)	Yield Strength, f_{py} (MPa)
Strand	1725 MPa (Grade 250)	6.35 to 15.24	1725	85% of f_{pu} , except 90% of f_{pu} for low-relaxation strand
	1860 MPa (Grade 270)	9.53 to 15.24	1860	
Bar	Type 1, Plain	19 to 35	1035	85% of f_{pu}
	Type 2, Deformed	16 to 65	1035	80% of f_{pu}

5.4.4.2. Modulus of Elasticity

The modulus of elasticity for prestressing steels, based on nominal cross-sectional area, may be taken as:

For strand: $E_p = 197\,000$ MPa

For bar: $E_p = 207\,000$ MPa

5.4.5. Post-Tensioning Anchorages and Couplers

Anchorages and tendon couplers shall conform to the requirements of Article 12.4.1.2 “Post-Tensioning Anchorage and Couplers” of MA-100-C-V1/1.

Corrosion protection shall be provided for tendons, anchorages, end fittings, and couplers.

5.4.6. Ducts

5.4.6.1. General

Ducts for tendons shall be rigid or semi-rigid either galvanized ferrous metal or polyethylene, or they shall be formed in the concrete with removable cores.

The radius of curvature of tendon ducts shall not be less than 6 m, except in the anchorage areas where 3.6 m may be permitted. Polyethylene ducts shall not be used when the radius of curvature of the tendon is less than 9 m. Where polyethylene ducts are used and the tendons are to be bonded, the bonding characteristics of polyethylene ducts to the concrete and the grout should be investigated. The effects of grouting pressure on the ducts and the surrounding concrete shall be investigated. The maximum support interval for the ducts during construction shall be indicated in the contract documents and shall conform to Article 13.5.3.2 “Bolted Connections” of the MA-100-C-V1/1.

5.4.6.2. Size of Ducts

The inside diameter of ducts shall be at least 6 mm larger than the nominal diameter of single bar or strand tendons. For multiple bar or strand tendons, the inside cross-sectional area of the duct shall be at least 2.0 times the net area of the prestressing steel

with one exception where tendons are to be placed by the pull-through method, the duct area shall be at least 2.5 times the net area of the prestressing steel.

The size of ducts shall not exceed 0.4 times the least gross concrete thickness at the duct.

5.4.6.3. Ducts at Deviation Saddles

Ducts at deviation saddles shall be galvanized steel pipe conforming to the requirements of ASTM A 53M, Type E, Grade B. The nominal wall thickness of the pipe shall be not less than 3 mm.

5.5. LIMIT STATES

5.5.1. General

Structural components shall be proportioned to satisfy the requirements at all appropriate service, fatigue, strength, and extreme event limit states.

Prestressed and partially prestressed concrete structural components shall be investigated for stresses and deformations for each stage that may be critical during construction, stressing, handling, transportation, and erection as well as during the service life of the structure of which they are part.

Stress concentrations due to prestressing or other loads and to restraints or imposed deformations shall be considered.

5.5.2. Service Limit State

Actions to be considered at the service limit state shall be cracking, deformations, and concrete stresses, as specified in Articles [5.7.3.4](#), [5.7.3.6](#), and [5.9.4](#), respectively. The cracking stress shall be taken as the modulus of rupture specified in Article [5.4.2.6](#).

5.5.3. Fatigue Limit State

5.5.3.1. General

Fatigue need not be investigated for concrete deck slabs in multi-girder applications.

In regions of compressive stress due to permanent loads and prestress in reinforced and partially prestressed concrete components, fatigue shall be considered only if this compressive stress is less than twice the maximum tensile live load stress resulting from the fatigue load combination as specified in [Table 3.1](#) in combination with the provisions of Article [3.6.1.4](#).

Fatigue of the reinforcement need not be checked for fully prestressed components designed to have extreme fiber tensile stress due to Service III Limit State within the tensile stress limit specified in [Table 5.11](#).

The section properties for fatigue investigations shall be based on cracked sections where the sum of stresses, due to unfactored permanent loads and prestress, and 1.5 times the fatigue load is tensile and exceeds $0.25 \sqrt{f'_c}$.

5.5.3.2. Reinforcing Bars

The stress range in straight reinforcement and welded wire reinforcement without a cross weld in the high-stress region resulting from the fatigue load combination, specified in [Table 3.1](#), shall satisfy:

$$f_f \leq 166 - 0.33 f_{min} \quad (5.10)$$

The stress range in straight welded wire reinforcement with a cross weld in the high-stress region resulting from the fatigue load combination, specified in [Table 3.1](#), shall satisfy:

$$f_f \leq 110 - 0.33 f_{min} \quad (5.11)$$

where:

f_f = stress range (MPa)

f_{min} = minimum live-load stress resulting from the fatigue load, combined with the more severe stress from either the permanent loads or the permanent loads, shrinkage, and creep-induced external loads; positive if tension, negative if compression (MPa)

The definition of the high-stress region for application of Eqs. [\(5.10\)](#) and [\(5.11\)](#), for flexural reinforcement, shall be taken as one-third of the span on each side of the section of maximum moment.

5.5.3.3. Prestressing Tendons

The stress range (f_f) in prestressing tendons shall not exceed:

- 125 MPa for radii of curvature in excess of 9 m, and
- 70 MPa for radii of curvature not exceeding 3.6 m.

A linear interpolation may be used for radii between 3.6 and 9 m.

5.5.3.4. Welded or Mechanical Splices of Reinforcement

For welded or mechanical connections that are subject to repetitive loads, the range of stress, f_f , shall not exceed the nominal fatigue resistance given in [Table 5.4](#).

Table 5.4: Nominal Fatigue Resistance of Splices.

Type of Splice	f_f for greater than 1,000,000 cycles
Grout-filled sleeve, with or without epoxy coated bar	126 MPa
Cold-swaged coupling sleeves without threaded ends and with or without epoxy-coated bar; Integrally-forged coupler with upset NC threads; Steel sleeve with a wedge; One-piece taper-threaded coupler; and Single V-groove direct butt weld	84 MPa
All other types of splices	28 MPa

Where the total cycles of loading, N_{cyc} , are less than 1 million, f_f may be increased by the quantity $168 (6 - \log N_{cyc})$ in MPa to a total not greater than the value of f_f given by Eq. [\(5.10\)](#) in Article [5.5.3.2](#). Higher values of f_f , up to the value given by Eq. [\(5.10\)](#),

may be used if justified by fatigue test data on splices that are the same as those that will be placed in service.

5.5.4. Strength Limit State

5.5.4.1. General

The strength limit state issues to be considered shall be those of strength and stability.

Factored resistance shall be the product of nominal resistance as determined in accordance with the applicable provisions of Articles 5.6, 5.7, 5.8, 5.9, 5.10, 5.17, and 5.18, unless another limit state is specifically identified, and the resistance factor is as specified in Article 5.5.4.2.

5.5.4.2. Resistance Factors

1. Conventional Construction

Resistance factor ϕ shall be taken as:

• For tension-controlled reinforced concrete sections as defined in Article 5.7.2.1.....	0.90
• For tension-controlled prestressed concrete sections as defined in Article 5.7.2.1.....	1.00
• For shear and torsion:	
Normal weight concrete	
.....	0.75
Lightweight concrete	
.....	0.70
• For compression-controlled sections with spirals, as defined in Article 5.7.2.1, except as specified in Article 5.15.4 and 5.15.5.1.2 for Seismic Design Categories B, C and D at the extreme event limit state.....	0.70
• For compression-controlled sections with ties, as defined in Article 5.7.2.1, except as specified in Article 5.15.4 and 5.15.5.1.2 for Seismic Design Categories B, C and D at the extreme event limit state	0.65
• For bearing on concrete	
.....	0.70
• For compression in strut-and-tie models	
.....	0.70
• For compression in anchorage zones:	
Normal weight concrete	
.....	0.80

Lightweight concrete	0.65
.....	
• For tension in steel in anchorage zones	1.00
.....	
• For resistance during pile driving	1.00
.....	

For sections in which the net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel at nominal resistance is between the limits for compression-controlled and tension-controlled sections, ϕ may be linearly increased from 0.75 to that for tension-controlled sections as the net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel increases from the compression-controlled strain limit to 0.005.

This variation in, ϕ may be computed for prestressed members such that:

$$0.75 \leq \phi = 0.583 + 0.25 \left(\frac{d_t}{c} - 1 \right) \leq 1.0 \quad (5.12)$$

and for non-prestressed members such that:

$$0.75 \leq \phi = 0.65 + 0.15 \left(\frac{d_t}{c} - 1 \right) \leq 0.9 \quad (5.13)$$

where:

- c = distance from the extreme compression fiber to the neutral axis (mm)
 d_t = distance from the extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the extreme tension steel element (mm)

For tension-controlled partially prestressed components in flexure, the values of ϕ may be taken as:

$$\phi = 0.9 + 0.10(PPR) \quad (5.14)$$

in which:

$$PPR = \frac{A_{ps}f_{py}}{A_{ps}f_{py} + A_s f_y} \quad (5.15)$$

where:

- PPR = partial prestress ratio
 A_s = area of non-prestressed tension reinforcement (mm²)
 A_{ps} = area of prestressing steel (mm²)
 f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcing bars (Mpa)
 f_{py} = yield strength of prestressing steel (Mpa)

Resistance factors shall not be applied to the development and splice lengths of reinforcement as specified in Article [5.16](#).

2. Segmental Construction

Resistance factors for the strength limit state shall be taken as provided in [Table 5.5](#) for the conditions indicated and in Article [5.5.4.2.1](#) for conditions not covered in [Table 5.5](#).

In selecting resistance factors for flexure, ϕ_f , and shear and torsion, ϕ_v , the degree of bonding of the post-tensioning system shall be considered. In order for a tendon to be considered as fully bonded at a section, it should be fully developed at that section for a development length not less than that required by Article [5.16.4](#). Shorter embedment lengths may be permitted if demonstrated by full-size tests and approved by the Engineer.

Where the post-tensioning is a combination of fully bonded tendons and unbonded or partially bonded tendons, the resistance factor at any section shall be based upon the bonding conditions for the tendons providing the majority of the prestressing force at the section.

Joints between precast units shall be either cast-in-place closures or match cast and epoxied joints.

Table 5.5: Resistance Factor for Joints in Segmental Construction.

	ϕ_f Flexure	ϕ_v Shear
Normal Weight Concrete		
Fully Bonded Tendons	0.95	0.90
Un-bonded or Partially Bonded Tendons	0.90	0.85
Sand-Light-weight Concrete		
Fully Bonded Tendons	0.90	0.70
Un-bonded or Partially Bonded Tendons	0.85	0.65

3. Special Requirements for Seismic Design Categories B, C and D

Modified resistance factor for columns in Seismic Design Categories B, C and D shall be taken as specified in Article [5.15.4](#) and [5.15.5.1.2](#).

5.5.4.3. Stability

The structure as a whole and its components shall be designed to resist sliding, overturning, uplift and buckling. Effects of eccentricity of loads shall be considered in the analysis and design.

Buckling of precast members during handling, transportation, and erection shall be investigated.

5.5.5. Extreme Event Limit State

The structure as a whole and its components shall be proportioned to resist collapse due to extreme events, specified in [Table 3.1](#), as may be appropriate to its site and use.

5.6. DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

5.6.1. General

Components and connections shall be designed to resist load combinations, as specified in [Section 3](#), at all stages during the life of the structure, including those during construction. Load factors shall be as specified in [Section 3](#).

As specified in [Section 4](#), equilibrium and strain compatibility shall be maintained in the analysis.

5.6.2. Effects of Imposed Deformation

The effects of imposed deformations due to shrinkage, temperature change, creep, prestressing, and movements of supports shall be investigated.

5.7. DESIGN FOR FLEXURAL AND AXIAL FORCE EFFECTS

5.7.1. Assumptions for Service and Fatigue Limit States

Prestressing is treated as part of resistance, except for anchorages and similar details, where the design is totally a function of the tendon force and for which a load factor is specified in Article [3.4.2.1](#). External reactions caused by prestressing induce force effects that normally are taken to be part of the loads side of Eq. [\(1.1\)](#). This represents a philosophical dichotomy. In lieu of more precise information, in these specifications the load factor for these induced force effects should be taken as that for the permanent loads.

Examples of components for which the assumption of linearly varying strains may not be suitable include deep components such as deep beams, corbels, and brackets.

The following assumptions may be used in the design of reinforced, prestressed, and partially prestressed concrete components for all compressive strength levels:

- Prestressed concrete resists tension at sections that are un-cracked, except as specified in Article [5.7.6](#).
- The strains in the concrete vary linearly, except in components or regions of components for which conventional strength of materials is inappropriate.
- The modular ratio, n , is rounded to the nearest integer number.
- The modular ratio is calculated as follows:
 E_s/E_c for reinforcing bars
 E_p/E_c for prestressing tendons
- An effective modular ratio of $2n$ is applicable to permanent loads and prestress.

5.7.2. Assumptions for Strength and Extreme Event Limit States

5.7.2.1. General

Factored resistance of concrete components shall be based on the conditions of equilibrium and strain compatibility, the resistance factors as specified in Article [5.5.4.2](#), and the following assumptions:

1. In components with fully bonded reinforcement or prestressing, or in the bonded length of locally de-bonded or shielded strands, strain is directly proportional to the distance from the neutral axis, except for deep members that shall satisfy the requirements of Article [5.17.2](#), and for other disturbed regions.

2. In components with fully un-bonded or partially un-bonded prestressing tendons, i.e., not locally de-bonded or shielded strands, the difference in strain between the tendons and the concrete section and the effect of deflections on tendon geometry are included in the determination of the stress in the tendons.
3. The maximum usable strain at the extreme concrete compression fiber is taken as 0.003.
4. If the concrete is confined, a maximum usable strain exceeding 0.003 in the confined core may be utilized if verified. Calculation of the factored resistance shall consider that the concrete cover may be lost at strains compatible with those in the confined concrete core.
5. Except for the strut-and-tie model, the stress in the reinforcement is based on a stress-strain curve representative of the steel or on an approved mathematical representation, including development of reinforcing and prestressing elements and transfer of pretensioning.
6. The tensile strength of the concrete is neglected.
7. The concrete compressive stress-strain distribution is assumed to be rectangular, parabolic, or any other shape that results in a prediction of strength in substantial agreement with the test results.
8. The development of reinforcing and prestressing elements and transfer of pretensioning are considered.
9. Balanced strain conditions exist at a cross-section when tension reinforcement reaches the strain corresponding to its specified yield strength f_y just as the concrete in compression reaches its assumed ultimate strain of 0.003. The net tensile strain ϵ_t is the tensile strain in the extreme tension steel at nominal strength, exclusive of strains due to prestress, creep, shrinkage, and temperature. The net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel is determined from a linear strain distribution at nominal strength, as shown in [Figure 5.1](#), using similar triangles.

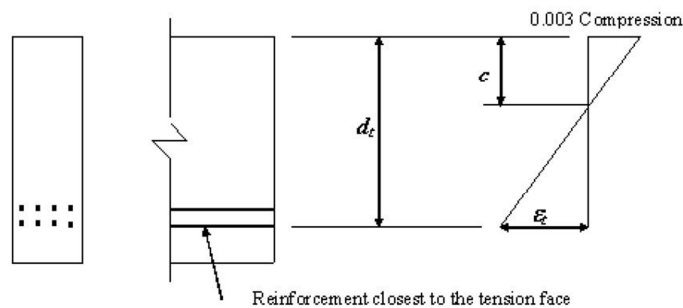


Figure 5.1: Strain Distribution and Net Tensile Strain.

10. Sections are compression-controlled when the net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel is equal to or less than the compression-controlled strain limit at the time the concrete in compression reaches its assumed strain limit of 0.003. The compression-controlled strain limit is the net tensile strain in the reinforcement at balanced strain conditions. For **Grade 420** reinforcement, and for all prestressed reinforcement, the compression-controlled strain limit may be set equal to 0.002.

11. Sections are tension-controlled when the net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel is equal to or greater than 0.005 just as the concrete in compression reaches its assumed strain limit of 0.003. Sections with net tensile strain in the extreme tension steel between the compression-controlled strain limit and 0.005 constitute a transition region between compression-controlled and tension-controlled sections.
12. The use of compression reinforcement in conjunction with additional tension reinforcement is permitted to increase the strength of flexural members.
13. In the approximate flexural resistance equations of Articles 5.7.3.1 and 5.7.3.2, f_y and f'_y may replace f_s and f'_s , respectively, subject to the following conditions:
 - f_y may replace f_s when, using f_y in the calculation, the resulting ratio c/d_s does not exceed 0.6. If c/d_s exceed 0.6, strain compatibility shall be used to determine the stress in the tension stress in reinforcing bars.
 - f'_y may replace f'_s when, using f'_y in the calculation, $c \geq 3d'_s$. If $c < 3d'_s$, strain compatibility shall be used to determine the compression stress in the reinforcing bars. The compression reinforcement shall be conservatively ignored, i.e., $A'_s = 0$.

Additional limitations on the maximum usable extreme concrete compressive strain in hollow rectangular compression members shall be investigated as specified in Article 5.7.4.7.

5.7.2.2. Rectangular Stress Distribution

The natural relationship between concrete stress and strain may be considered satisfied by an equivalent rectangular concrete compressive stress block of $0.85f'_c$ over a zone bounded by the edges of the cross-section and a straight line located parallel to the neutral axis at the distance $a = \beta_1 c$ from the extreme compression fiber (cf. Figure 5.2). The distance c shall be measured perpendicular to the neutral axis.

The concrete stress factor, β_1 can be calculated as:

$$\beta_1 = \begin{cases} 0.85 & \text{for } f'_c \leq 28 \text{ MPa} \\ 0.85 - 0.05 \left(\frac{f'_c - 28}{7} \right) & \text{for } 28 \leq f'_c \leq 56 \text{ MPa} \\ 0.65 & \text{for } f'_c \geq 56 \text{ MPa} \end{cases}$$

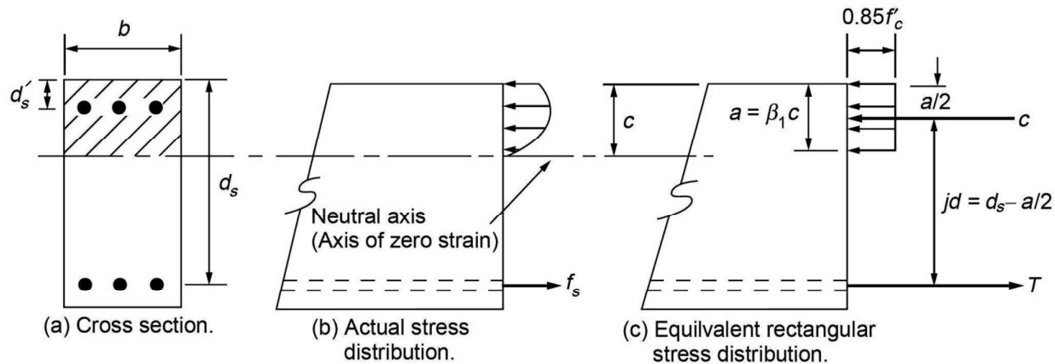


Figure 5.2: Stresses and forces in a rectangular section.

Additional limitations on the use of the rectangular stress block when applied to hollow rectangular compression members shall be investigated as specified in Article 5.7.4.7.

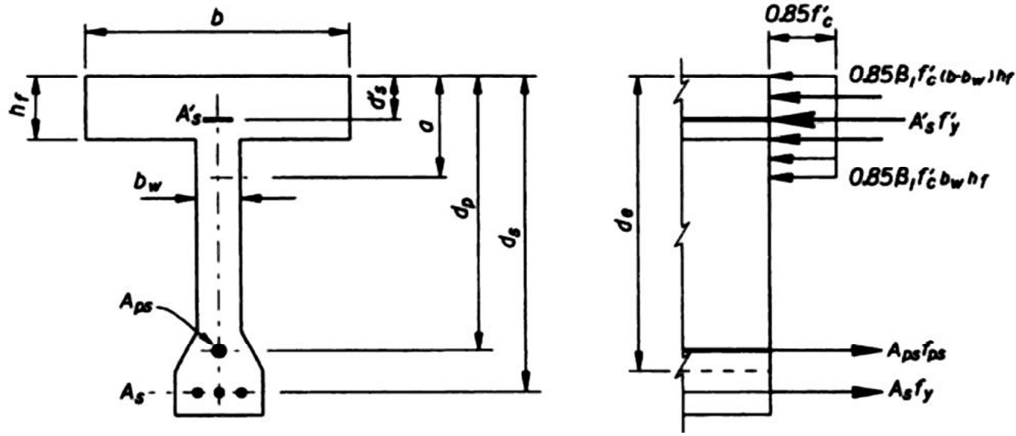


Figure 5.3: A flanged section at nominal moment capacity state

5.7.3. Flexural Members

5.7.3.1. Stress in Prestressing Steel at Nominal Flexural Resistance

1. Components with Bonded Tendons

For rectangular or flanged sections subjected to flexure about one axis where the approximate stress distribution specified in Article 5.7.2.2 is used and for which f_{pe} is not less than $0.5 f_{pu}$, the average stress in prestressing steel, f_{ps} , may be taken as:

$$f_{ps} = f_{pu} \left(1 - k \frac{c}{d_p} \right) \leq f_{py} \quad (5.16)$$

in which:

$$k = 2 \left(1.04 - \frac{f_{py}}{f_{pu}} \right) \quad (5.17)$$

for T-section behavior:

$$c = \frac{A_{ps} f_{pu} + A_s f_s - A_s' f_s' - 0.85 f_c' (b - b_w) h_f}{0.85 f_c' \beta_1 b_w + k A_{ps} \frac{f_{pu}}{d_p}} \quad (5.18)$$

for rectangular section behavior:

$$c = \frac{A_{ps} f_{pu} + A_s f_s - A_s' f_s'}{0.85 f_c' \beta_1 b + k A_{ps} \frac{f_{pu}}{d_p}} \quad (5.19)$$

where:

A_{ps} = area of prestressing steel (mm²)

f_{pu} = specified tensile strength of prestressing steel (MPa)

- f_{py} = yield strength of prestressing steel (MPa)
 A_s = area of reinforcing bars (tension reinforcement) (mm²)
 A'_s = area of compression reinforcement (mm²)
 f_s = tension stress in the reinforcing bars nominal flexural resistance (MPa), as specified in Article 5.7.2.1
 f'_s = compression stress in the reinforcing bars at nominal flexural resistance (MPa), as specified in Article 5.7.2.1
 b = width of the compression face of the member; for a flange section in compression, the effective width of the flange as specified in Article 4.6.2.6 (mm)
 b_w = width of web (mm)
 h_f = depth of compression flange (mm)
 d_p = distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the prestressing tendons (mm)
 c = distance between the neutral axis and the compressive face (mm)
 β_1 = stress block factor specified in Article 5.7.2.2

Values of (f_{py}/f_{pu}) are defined in Table 5.6. Therefore, the values of k from Eq. (5.17) depend only on the type of tendon used.

Table 5.6: Values of k .

Type of Tendon	f_{py}/f_{pu}	k
Low relaxation strand	0.9	0.28
Stress-relieved strand and Type 1 high-strength bar	0.85	0.38
Type 2 high-strength bar	0.80	0.48

2. Components with Unbonded Tendons

For rectangular or flanged sections subjected to flexure about one axis and for biaxial flexure with axial load as specified in Article 5.7.4.5, where the approximate stress distribution specified in Article 5.7.2.2 is used, the average stress in unbonded prestressing steel may be taken as:

$$f_{ps} = f_{pe} + 6300 \left(\frac{d_p - c}{\ell_e} \right) \leq f_{py} \quad (5.20)$$

in which

$$\ell_e = \left(\frac{2\ell_i}{2 + N_s} \right) \quad (5.21)$$

for T-section behavior:

$$c = \frac{A_{ps}f_{ps} + A_s f_s - A'_s f'_s - 0.85f'_c (b - b_w) h_f}{0.85f'_c \beta_1 b_w} \quad (5.22)$$

for rectangular section behavior:

$$c = \frac{A_{ps}f_{ps} + A_s f_s - A'_s f'_s}{0.85f'_c \beta_1 b} \quad (5.23)$$

where:

- c = distance from extreme compression fiber to the neutral axis assuming the tendon prestressing steel has yielded, given by Eqs. (5.22) and (5.23) for T section behavior and rectangular section behavior, respectively (mm)
- ℓ_e = effective tendon length (mm)
- ℓ_i = length of tendon between anchorages (mm)
- N_s = number of support hinges crossed by the tendon between anchorages or discretely bonded points
- f_{py} = yield strength of prestressing steel (MPa)
- f_{pe} = effective stress in prestressing steel at section under consideration after all losses (MPa)

A first estimate of the average stress in unbonded prestressing steel may be made as:

$$f_{ps} = f_{pe} + 103 \text{ (MPa)} \quad (5.24)$$

In order to solve for the value of f_{ps} in Eq. (5.20), the equation of force equilibrium at ultimate is needed. Thus, two equations with two unknowns (f_{ps} and c) need to be solved simultaneously to achieve a closed-form solution.

3. Components with both Bonded and Unbonded Tendons

a. Detailed Analysis

Except as specified in Article 5.7.3.1.3.b, for components with both bonded and unbonded tendons, the stress in the prestressing steel shall be computed by detailed analysis. This analysis shall take into account the strain compatibility between the section and the bonded prestressing steel. The stress in the un-bonded prestressing steel shall take into account the global displacement compatibility between bonded sections of tendons located within the span. Bonded sections of unbonded tendons may be anchorage points and any bonded section, such as deviators. Consideration of the possible slip at deviators shall be taken into consideration. The nominal flexural strength should be computed directly from the stresses resulting from this analysis.

b. Simplified Analysis

In lieu of the detailed analysis described in Article 5.7.3.1.3.a, the stress in the unbonded tendons may be conservatively taken as the effective stress in the prestressing steel after losses, f_{pe} . In this case, the stress in the bonded prestressing steel shall be computed using Eqs. (5.16) through (5.19), with the term $A_{ps}f_{pu}$ in Eqs. (5.18) and (5.19) replaced with the term $A_{psb}f_{pu} + A_{psu}f_{pe}$.

where:

A_{psb} = area of bonded prestressing steel (mm²)

A_{psu} = area of unbonded prestressing steel (mm²)

When computing the nominal flexural resistance using Eq. (5.26), the average stress in the prestressing steel shall be taken as the weighted average of the stress in the bonded and un-bonded prestressing steel, and the total area of bonded and unbonded prestressing shall be used.

5.7.3.2. Flexural Resistance

1. Factored Flexural Resistance

The factored resistance M_r shall be taken as:

$$M_r = \phi M_n \quad (5.25)$$

where:

M_n = nominal resistance (N. mm)

ϕ = resistance factor as specified in Article 5.5.4.2

2. Flanged Sections

For flanged sections subjected to flexure about one axis and for biaxial flexure with axial load as specified in Article 5.7.4.5, where the approximate stress distribution specified in Article 5.7.2.2 is used and where the compression flange depth is less than $a = \beta_1 c$, as determined in accordance with Eqs. (5.18), (5.19), (5.22), or (5.23), the nominal flexural resistance may be taken as:

$$M_n = A_{ps} f_{ps} \left(d_p - \frac{a}{2} \right) + A_s f_s \left(d_s - \frac{a}{2} \right) - A'_s f'_s \left(d'_s - \frac{a}{2} \right) + 0.85 f'_c (b - b_w) h_f \left(\frac{a}{2} - \frac{h_f}{2} \right) \quad (5.26)$$

where:

A_{ps} = area of prestressing steel (mm²)

f_{ps} = average stress in prestressing steel at nominal bending resistance specified in Eq. (5.16) (MPa)

d_p = distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of prestressing tendons (mm)

A_s = area of non-prestressed tension reinforcement (mm²)

f_s = tension stress in reinforcing bars at nominal flexural resistance (MPa), as specified in Article 5.7.2.1

d_s = distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of non-prestressed tensile reinforcement (mm)

A'_s = area of compression reinforcement (mm²)

- f'_s = compression stress in the reinforcing bars at nominal flexural resistance (MPa), as specified in Article 5.7.2.1
 d'_s = distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of compression reinforcement (mm)
 f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)
 b = width of the flange (compression face) of the member (mm)
 b_w = web width or diameter of a circular section (mm)
 β_1 = stress block factor specified in Article 5.7.2.2
 h_f = compression flange depth of an I or T member (mm)
 a = depth of the equivalent stress block (mm)

3. Rectangular Sections

For rectangular sections subjected to flexure about one axis and for biaxial flexure with axial load as specified in Article 5.7.4.5, where the approximate stress distribution specified in Article 5.7.2.2 is used and where the compression rectangle depth is not less than $a = \beta_1 c$ as determined in accordance with Eqs. (5.19) or (5.23), the nominal flexural resistance M_n may be determined by using Eqs. (5.16) through (5.26), in which case b_w shall be taken as b . Eq. (5.26) can be rewritten as:

$$M_n = A_{ps} f_{ps} \left(d_p - \frac{a}{2} \right) + A_s f_s \left(d_s - \frac{a}{2} \right) - A'_s f'_s \left(d'_s - \frac{a}{2} \right) \quad (5.27)$$

4. Other Cross-Sections

For cross-sections other than flanged or essentially rectangular sections with vertical axis of symmetry or for sections subjected to biaxial flexure without axial load, the nominal flexural resistance, M_n , shall be determined by an analysis based on the assumptions specified in Article 5.7.2. The requirements of Article 5.7.3.3 shall apply.

5. Strain Compatibility Approach

Alternatively, the strain compatibility approach may be used if more precise calculations are required. The appropriate provisions of Article 5.7.2.1 shall apply.

The stress and corresponding strain in any given layer of reinforcement may be taken from any representative stress-strain formula or graph for reinforcing bars and prestressing strands.

5.7.3.3. Limits for Reinforcement

1. Maximum Reinforcement

The maximum amount of prestressed and non-prestressed reinforcement shall be such that:

$$\frac{c}{d_e} \leq 0.42 \quad (5.28)$$

in which:

$$d_e = \frac{A_{ps}f_{ps}d_p + A_s f_y d_s}{A_{ps}f_{ps} + A_s f_y} \quad (5.29)$$

where:

- c = the distance from the extreme compression fiber to the neutral axis (mm)
- d_e = the corresponding effective depth from the extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the tensile force in the tensile reinforcement (mm)

If Eq.(5.28) is not satisfied, the section shall be considered overreinforced. Overreinforced sections may be used in prestressed and partially prestressed members only if it is shown by analysis and experimentation that sufficient ductility of the structure can be achieved. Overreinforced reinforced concrete sections shall not be permitted. For the purpose of this provision, components shall be considered reinforced concrete if the partial prestressing ratio (PPR), specified in Article 5.5.4.2.1, is less than 50 percent.

2. Minimum Reinforcement

a. Minimum Prestressed and Non-prestressed Reinforcement in One Flexural Member

Unless otherwise specified, at any section of a flexural component, the amount of prestressed and non-prestressed tensile reinforcement shall be adequate to develop a factored flexural resistance, M_r , at least:

$$M_r = 1.2M_{cre} \quad (5.30)$$

where M_{cr} may be taken as:

$$M_{cre} = S_c (f_r + f_{cpe}) - M_{dnc} \left(\frac{S_c}{S_{nc}} - 1 \right) \geq S_c f_r \quad (5.31)$$

where:

- M_{cre} = moment causing flexural cracking at section due to externally applied loads (N-mm)
- f_r = modulus of rupture of concrete specified in Article 5.4.2.6
- f_{cpe} = compressive stress in concrete due to effective prestress forces only (after allowance for all prestress losses) at extreme fiber of section where tensile stress is caused by externally applied loads (MPa)

$$= \frac{P_{se}}{A} + \frac{P_{se}e_c}{S_{nc}}$$
- P_{se} = effective prestress forces (after allowance for all prestress losses) (N)
- A = area of cross section of beam (mm²)
- e_c = distance from the centroid of prestressing steel to the neutral axis of the non-composite beam (mm)

- M_{dnc} = total un-factored dead load moment acting on the monolithic or non-composite section (N-mm)
 S_c = section modulus for the extreme fiber of the composite section where tensile stress is caused by externally applied loads (mm³)
 S_{nc} = section modulus for the extreme fiber of the monolithic or non-composite section where tensile stress is caused by externally applied loads (mm³)
 M_u = factored moment required by the applicable strength load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#).

This provision shall be permitted to be waived for:

- Two-way, unbonded post-tensioned slabs; and
- Flexural members with shear and flexural strength at least twice that required.

Appropriate values for M_{dnc} and S_{nc} shall be used for any intermediate composite sections. Where the beams are designed for the monolithic or non-composite section to resist all loads, substitute S_{nc} for S_c in the above equation for the calculation of M_{cre} .

b. Minimum of Non-prestressed Reinforcement

For non-prestressed reinforced concrete flexural members, the minimum reinforcement could be checked by using [ACI-318-05 equation in Article 10.5.1](#) as follows:

$$A_{s,min} = \frac{0.25\sqrt{f'_c}}{f_y} b_w d \geq \frac{1.4b_w d}{f_y} \quad (5.32)$$

The provisions of [Article 5.10.6](#) shall apply.

c. Minimum of Bonded Reinforcement

A minimum area of bonded reinforcement shall be provided in all flexural members with unbonded tendons.

Except for two-way flat slab systems, minimum area of bonded reinforcement shall be computed by:

$$A_s = 0.004 A_{ct} \quad (5.33)$$

Bonded reinforcement required by Eq. [\(5.33\)](#) shall be uniformly distributed over pre-compressed tensile zone as close as practicable to extreme tension fiber.

Bonded reinforcement shall be required regardless of service load stress conditions.

For two-way flat slab systems, minimum area and distribution of bonded reinforcement shall be as follows:

- Bonded reinforcement shall not be required in positive moment areas where f_t , the extreme fiber stress in tension in the pre-compressed tensile zone at service loads, (after allowance for all prestress losses) does not exceed $0.17\sqrt{f'_c}$.

- In positive moment areas where computed tensile stress in concrete at service load exceeds $0.17\sqrt{f'_c}$, minimum area of bonded reinforcement shall be computed by:

$$A_{s,\min} = \frac{2N_c}{f_y} \quad (5.34)$$

where the value of f_y shall not exceed 420 MPa. Bonded reinforcement shall be uniformly distributed over pre-compressed tensile zone as close as practicable to the extreme tension fiber.

- In negative moment areas at column supports, the minimum area of bonded reinforcement $A_{s,\min}$ in the top of the slab in each direction shall be computed by:

$$A_s = 0.00075 A_{cf} \quad (5.35)$$

Bonded reinforcement required by Eq. (5.35) shall be distributed between lines that are $1.5h$ outside opposite faces of the column support. At least four bars or wires shall be provided in each direction. Spacing of bonded reinforcement shall not exceed 300 mm.

5.7.3.4. Control of Cracking by Distribution of Reinforcement

The provisions specified herein shall apply to the reinforcement of all concrete components, except that of deck slabs designed in accordance with Article 7.7.2, in which tension in the cross-section exceeds 80 percent (80%) of the modulus of rupture, specified in Article 5.4.2.6, at applicable service limit state load combination specified in Table 3.1.

The spacing s of reinforcing bars in the layer closest to the tension face shall satisfy the following:

$$s \leq \frac{123000\gamma_e}{\beta_s f_{ss}} - 2d_c \quad (5.36)$$

in which:

$$\beta_s = 1 + \frac{d_c}{0.7(h - d_c)}$$

where:

- γ_e = exposure factor
 - = 1.00 for Class 1 exposure condition
 - = 0.75 for Class 2 exposure condition
- d_c = thickness of concrete cover measured from extreme tension fiber to center of the flexural reinforcement located closest thereto (mm)
- f_{ss} = tensile stress in steel reinforcement at the service limit state (MPa)
- h = overall thickness or depth of the component (mm)

Class 1 exposure condition applies when cracks can be tolerated due to reduced concerns of appearance and/or corrosion. Class 2 exposure condition applies to

transverse design of segmental concrete box girders for any loads applied prior to attaining full nominal concrete strength and when there is increased concern of appearance and/or corrosion.

In the computation of d_c , the actual concrete cover thickness is to be used.

When computing the actual stress in the steel reinforcement, axial tension effects shall be considered, while axial compression effects may be considered.

The minimum and maximum spacing of reinforcement shall also comply with the provisions of Articles 5.10.3.1 and 5.10.3.1.2, respectively.

The effects of bonded prestressing steel may be considered, in which case the value of f_{ss} used in Eq. (5.36), for the bonded prestressing steel, shall be the stress that develops beyond the decompression state calculated on the basis of a cracked section or strain compatibility analysis.

1. T-Girders

Where flanges of reinforced concrete T-girders and box girders are in tension at the service limit state, the flexural tension reinforcement shall be distributed over the lesser of:

- The effective flange width, specified in Article 4.6.2.6, or
- A width equal to 1/10 of the average of adjacent spans between bearings.

If the effective flange width exceeds 1/10 the span, additional longitudinal reinforcement, with area not less than 0.4 percent (0.4%) of the excess slab area, shall be provided in the outer portions of the flange. Where members are exposed to aggressive exposure or corrosive environments, additional protection beyond that provided by satisfying Eq. (5.36) may be provided by decreasing the permeability of the concrete and/or waterproofing the exposed surface.

Cracks in segmental concrete box girders may result from stresses due to handling and storing segments for precast construction and to stripping forms and supports from cast-in-place construction before attainment of the nominal f'_c .

The β_s factor, which is a geometric relationship between the crack width at the tension face versus the crack width at the reinforcement level, has been incorporated into the basic crack control equation in order to provide uniformity of application for flexural member depths ranging from thin slabs in box culverts to deep pier caps and thick footings. The theoretical definition of β_s may be used in lieu of the approximate expression provided.

Distribution of the negative reinforcement for control of cracking in T-girders should be made in the context of the following considerations:

- Wide spacing of the reinforcement across the full effective width of flange may cause some wide cracks to form in the slab near the web.
- Close spacing near the web leaves the outer regions of the flange unprotected.

The 1/10 of the span limitation is to guard against an excessive spacing of bars, with additional reinforcement required to protect the outer portions of the flange.

2. Skin Reinforcement in Deep Members

If the effective depth, d_e , of non-prestressed or partially prestressed concrete members exceeds 900 mm, longitudinal skin reinforcement shall be uniformly

distributed along both side faces of the component for a distance $d_e/2$ nearest the flexural tension reinforcement.

The area of skin reinforcement A_{sk} in mm^2/mm of height on each side face shall satisfy:

$$A_{sk} \geq 0.001(d_e - 760) \leq \frac{A_s + A_{ps}}{1200} \quad (5.37)$$

where:

A_{sk} = area of skin reinforcement per unit height in one side face (mm^2)

A_{ps} = area of prestressing steel (mm^2)

A_s = area of tensile reinforcement (mm^2)

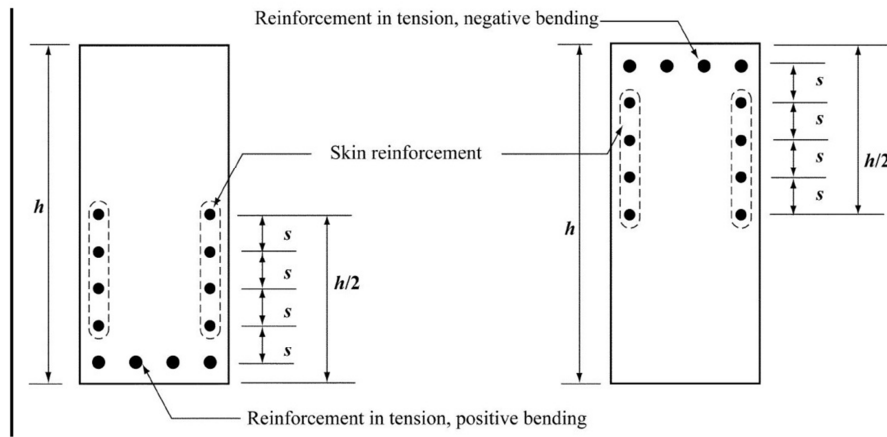


Figure 5.4: Skin reinforcement for beams and joists with $h > 900$ mm.

The requirements for skin reinforcement are based upon **ACI 318 Sec. 10.7**. For relatively deep flexural members, some reinforcement should be placed near the vertical faces in the tension zone to control cracking in the web.

Without such auxiliary steel, the width of the cracks in the web may greatly exceed the crack widths at the level of the flexural tension reinforcement.

However, the total area of longitudinal skin reinforcement (per face) need not exceed one-fourth of the required flexural tensile reinforcement $A_s + A_{ps}$.

The maximum spacing of the skin reinforcement shall not exceed either $d_e/6$ or 300 mm.

Such reinforcement may be included in strength computations if a strain compatibility analysis is made to determine stresses in the individual bars or wires.

5.7.3.5. Moment Redistribution

In lieu of more refined analysis, where bonded reinforcement that satisfies the provisions of Article [5.16](#) is provided at the internal supports of continuous reinforced concrete beams, negative moments determined by elastic theory at strength limit states may be increased or decreased by not more than $1000 \times \epsilon_t$ percent, with a maximum of 20 percent (20%). Redistribution of negative moments shall be made only when $\epsilon_t \geq$

0.0075 at the section at which moment is reduced (ϵ_t is the net tensile strain in extreme tension steel at nominal resistance).

Positive moments shall be adjusted to account for the changes in negative moments to maintain equilibrium of loads and force effects.

5.7.3.6. Deformations

1. General

The provisions of Article 2.6.2.6 shall be considered.

Deck joints and bearings shall accommodate the dimensional changes caused by loads, creep, shrinkage, thermal changes, settlement, and prestressing.

2. Deflection and Rotation

Deflection and rotation calculations shall consider dead load, live load, prestressing, erection loads, concrete creep and shrinkage, and steel relaxation.

For determining deflection and rotation, the provisions of Articles 4.5.2.1, 4.5.2.2 and 5.9.5.5 shall apply.

In the absence of a more comprehensive analysis, instantaneous deflections and rotation may be computed using the modulus of elasticity for concrete as specified in Article 5.4.2.4 and the effective moment of inertia, I_e , given by Eq. (5.38), but not greater than I_g .

$$I_e = \left(\frac{M_{cr}}{M_a} \right)^3 I_g + \left[1 - \left(\frac{M_{cr}}{M_a} \right)^3 \right] I_{cr} \leq I_g \quad (5.38)$$

in which:

$$M_{cr} = f_r \frac{I_g}{y_t} \quad (5.39)$$

where:

M_{cr} = cracking moment (N-mm)

f_r = modulus of rupture of concrete as specified in Article 5.4.2.6 (MPa)

y_t = distance from the neutral axis to the extreme tension fiber (mm)

M_a = maximum moment in a component at the stage for which deformation is computed (N-mm)

I_g = gross moment of inertia of concrete section (mm⁴)

For prismatic members, effective moment of inertia may be taken as the value obtained from Eq. (5.38) at mid-span for simple or continuous spans, and at support for cantilevers. For continuous non-prismatic members, the effective moment of inertia may be taken as the average of the values obtained from Eq. (5.38) for the critical positive and negative moment sections.

a. Long-term Effects

Unless a more exact determination is made, the long-time deflection may be taken as the instantaneous deflection multiplied by the following factor K :

- For uncracked section where $I_e = I_g$ (instantaneous deflection is based on I_g):

$$K = 4.0 \quad (5.40)$$

- For cracked section where $I_e < I_g$ (instantaneous deflection is based on I_e):

$$K = 3.0 - 1.2(A'_s/A_s) \geq 1.6 \quad (5.41)$$

where:

A'_s = area of compression reinforcement (mm^2)

A_s = area of non-prestressed tension reinforcement (mm^2)

b. Deflection Limitations

The provisions of Article 2.6.2.6.2 shall be applied.

The contract documents shall require that deflections of segmentally constructed bridges shall be calculated prior to casting of segments based on the anticipated casting and erection schedules and that they shall be used as a guide against which actual deflection measurements are checked.

3. Axial Deformation

Instantaneous shortening or expansion due to loads shall be determined using the modulus of elasticity of the materials at the time of loading.

Instantaneous shortening or expansion due to temperature shall be determined in accordance with Articles 3.11.2, 3.11.3, and 5.4.2.2.

Long-term shortening due to shrinkage and creep shall be determined as specified in Article 5.4.2.3.

5.7.4. Compression Members

5.7.4.1. General

Unless otherwise permitted, compression members shall be analyzed with consideration of the effects of:

- Eccentricity,
- Axial loads,
- Variable moments of inertia,
- Degree of end fixity,
- Deflections,
- Duration of loads, and
- Prestressing.

In lieu of a refined procedure, non-prestressed columns with the slenderness ratio, $K\ell_u/r < 100$, may be designed by the approximate procedure specified in Article 5.7.4.3.

where:

K = effective length factor specified in Article 4.6.2.5

$$\begin{aligned}
\ell_u &= \text{unbraced length (mm)} \\
r &= \text{radius of gyration (mm)} \\
&= \sqrt{I/A}
\end{aligned}$$

The requirements of this Article shall be supplemented and modified for structures in Seismic Design Categories B, C, and D, as specified in Article 5.15.

Provisions shall be made to transfer all force effects from compression components, adjusted for second-order moment magnification, to adjacent components.

Where the connection to an adjacent component is by a concrete hinge, longitudinal reinforcement shall be centralized within the hinge to minimize flexural resistance and shall be developed on both sides of the hinge.

5.7.4.2. Limits for Reinforcement

Additional limits on reinforcement for compression members in Seismic Design Categories B, C and D shall be considered as specified in Article 5.10.3 and 5.15.5.1.1.

The maximum area of prestressed and non-prestressed longitudinal reinforcement for non-composite compression components shall be such that:

$$\frac{A_s}{A_g} + \frac{A_{ps}f_{pu}}{A_g f_y} \leq 0.08 \quad (5.42)$$

and

$$\frac{A_{ps}f_{pe}}{A_g f'_c} \leq 0.30 \quad (5.43)$$

The minimum area of prestressed and non-prestressed longitudinal reinforcement for non-composite compression components shall be such that:

$$\frac{A_s f_y}{A_g f'_c} + \frac{A_{ps} f_{pu}}{A_g f'_c} \geq 0.135 \quad (5.44)$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned}
A_s &= \text{area of non-prestressed tension steel (mm}^2\text{)} \\
A_g &= \text{gross area of section (mm}^2\text{)} \\
A_{ps} &= \text{area of prestressing steel (mm}^2\text{)} \\
f_{pu} &= \text{specified tensile strength of prestressing steel (MPa)} \\
f_y &= \text{specified yield strength of reinforcing bars (MPa)} \\
f'_c &= \text{specified compressive strength of concrete (MPa)} \\
f_{pe} &= \text{effective prestress (MPa)}
\end{aligned}$$

The minimum number of longitudinal reinforcing bars in the body of a column shall be six in a circular arrangement and four in a rectangular arrangement. The minimum size of bar shall be 16 mm Dia. Where columns are pinned to their foundations, a small number of central bars have sometimes been used as a connection between footing and column.

For bridges in Seismic Design Category A, a reduced effective area may be used when the cross-section is larger than that required to resist the applied loading.

The minimum percentage of total (prestressed and non-prestressed) longitudinal reinforcement of the reduced effective area is to be the greater of 1 percent or the value obtained from Eq.(5.44). Both the reduced effective area and the gross area must be capable of resisting all applicable load combinations from Table 3.1.

5.7.4.3. Approximate Evaluation of Slenderness Effects

For members not braced against sidesway, the effects of slenderness may be neglected where the slenderness ratio, $K\ell_u/r < 22$.

For members braced against sidesway, the effects of slenderness may be neglected where:

$$\frac{K\ell_u}{r} \leq 34 - 12(M_1/M_2) \quad (5.45)$$

In which M_1 and M_2 are the smaller and larger end moments, respectively, and the term (M_1/M_2) is positive for single curvature flexure.

The following approximate procedure may be used for the design of non-prestressed compression members with $K\ell_u/r$ less than 100:

- The design is based on a factored axial load, P_u , determined by elastic analysis and a magnified factored moment, M_c , as specified in Article 4.5.3.2.2.b.
- The unsupported length, ℓ_u , of a compression member is taken as the clear distance between components capable of providing lateral support for the compression components. Where haunches are present, the unsupported length is taken to the extremity of any haunches in the plane considered.
- The radius of gyration, r , is computed for the gross concrete section.
- For members braced against sidesway, the effective length factor, K , is taken as 1.0, unless it is shown by analysis that a lower value may be used.
- For members not braced against sidesway, K is determined with due consideration for the effects of cracking and reinforcement on relative stiffness and is taken as not less than 1.0.

In lieu of a more precise calculation, EI for use in determining P_e , as specified in Eq.(4.5), shall be taken as the greater of:

$$EI = \frac{0.2E_c I_g + E_s I_s}{1 + \beta_d} \quad (5.46)$$

$$EI = \frac{0.4E_c I_g}{1 + \beta_d} \quad (5.47)$$

where:

E_c = modulus of elasticity of concrete (MPa)

I_g = moment of inertia of the gross concrete section about the centroidal axis (mm^4)

E_s = modulus of elasticity of longitudinal steel (MPa)

I_s = moment of inertia of longitudinal steel about the centroidal axis (mm^4)

β_d = ratio of maximum factored permanent load moments to maximum factored total load moment; always positive

These procedures were developed for reinforced concrete columns but are currently used for prestressed concrete columns as well.

For eccentrically prestressed members, consideration shall be given to the effect of lateral deflection due to prestressing in determining the magnified moment.

For members in structures, which undergo appreciable lateral deflections resulting from combinations of vertical load or combinations of vertical and lateral loads, force effects should be determined using a second-order analysis.

5.7.4.4. Factored Axial Resistance

The factored axial resistance of concrete compressive components, symmetrical about both principal axes, shall be taken as:

$$P_r = \phi P_n \quad (5.48)$$

in which:

- For members with spiral reinforcement:

$$P_n = 0.85 \left[0.85 f'_c (A_g - A_{st} - A_{ps}) + f_y A_{st} - A_{ps} (f_{pe} - E_p \epsilon_{cu}) \right] \quad (5.49)$$

- For members with tie reinforcement:

$$P_n = 0.8 \left[0.85 f'_c (A_g - A_{st} - A_{ps}) + f_y A_{st} - A_{ps} (f_{pe} - E_p \epsilon_{cu}) \right] \quad (5.50)$$

where:

- P_r = factored axial resistance, with or without flexure (N)
- P_n = nominal axial resistance, with or without flexure (N)
- f'_c = specified strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)
- A_g = gross area of section (mm²)
- A_{st} = total area of longitudinal reinforcement (mm²)
- f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcement (MPa)
- ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article [5.5.4.2](#)
- A_{ps} = area of prestressing steel (mm²)
- E_p = modulus of elasticity of prestressing tendons (MPa)
- f_{pe} = effective stress in prestressing steel after losses (MPa)
- ϵ_{cu} = failure strain of concrete in compression (mm/mm)

5.7.4.5. Biaxial Bending

In lieu of an analysis based on equilibrium and strain compatibility for biaxial bending, noncircular members subjected to biaxial bending and compression may be proportioned using the following approximate expressions:

- If the factored axial load is not less than $0.10 \phi f'_c A_g$:

$$\frac{1}{P_{rxy}} = \frac{1}{P_{rx}} + \frac{1}{P_{ry}} - \frac{1}{\phi P_o} \quad (5.51)$$

in which:

$$P_o = 0.85f'_c (A_g - A_{st} - A_{ps}) + f_y A_{st} - A_{ps} (f_{pe} - E_p \epsilon_{cu}) \quad (5.52)$$

- If the factored axial load is less than $0.10 \phi f'_c A_g$:

$$\frac{M_{ux}}{M_{rx}} + \frac{M_{uy}}{M_{ry}} \leq 1.0 \quad (5.53)$$

where:

- ϕ = resistance factor for members in axial compression
- P_{rxy} = factored axial resistance in biaxial flexure (N)
- P_{rx} = factored axial resistance determined on the basis that only eccentricity e_y is present (N)
- P_{ry} = factored axial resistance determined on the basis that only eccentricity e_x is present (N)
- P_u = factored applied axial force (N)
- M_{ux} = factored applied moment about the X-axis (N-mm)
- M_{uy} = factored applied moment about the Y-axis (N-mm)
- e_x = eccentricity of the applied factored axial force in the X direction, i.e., = M_{uy}/P_u (mm)
- e_y = eccentricity of the applied factored axial force in the Y direction, i.e., = M_{ux}/P_u (mm)
- P_o = nominal axial resistance of a section at 0.0 eccentricity

The factored axial resistance P_{rx} and P_{ry} shall not be taken to be greater than the product of the resistance factor, ϕ , and the maximum nominal compressive resistance given by either Eq (5.49) or Eq. (5.50), as appropriate.

5.7.4.6. Spirals and Ties

The area of steel for spirals and ties in bridges in Seismic Design Categories B, C, or D shall comply with the requirements specified in Article 5.15.

Where the area of spiral and tie reinforcement is not controlled by:

- Seismic requirements,
- Shear or torsion as specified in Article 5.8, or
- Minimum requirements as specified in Article 5.10.4,

The ratio of spiral reinforcement to total volume of concrete core, measured out-to-out of spirals, shall satisfy:

$$\rho_s \geq 0.45 \left(\frac{A_g}{A_c} - 1 \right) \frac{f'_c}{f_{yh}} \quad (5.54)$$

where:

- A_g = gross area of concrete section (mm²)
- A_c = area of core measured to the outside diameter of the spiral (mm²)
- f'_c = specified strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)
- f_{yh} = specified yield strength of spiral reinforcement (MPa)

Other details of spiral and tie reinforcement shall conform to the provisions of Articles [5.10.4](#) and [5.15](#).

5.7.4.7. Hollow Rectangular Compression Members

1. Wall Slenderness Ratio

The wall slenderness ratio of a hollow rectangular cross-section shall be taken as:

$$\lambda_w = \frac{X_u}{t} \quad (5.55)$$

where:

- X_u = the clear length of the constant thickness portion of a wall between other walls or fillets between walls (mm)
- t = thickness of wall (mm)
- λ_w = wall slenderness ratio for hollow columns

Wall slenderness greater than 35 may be used only when the behavior and resistance of the wall is documented by analytic and experimental evidence acceptable to the owner.

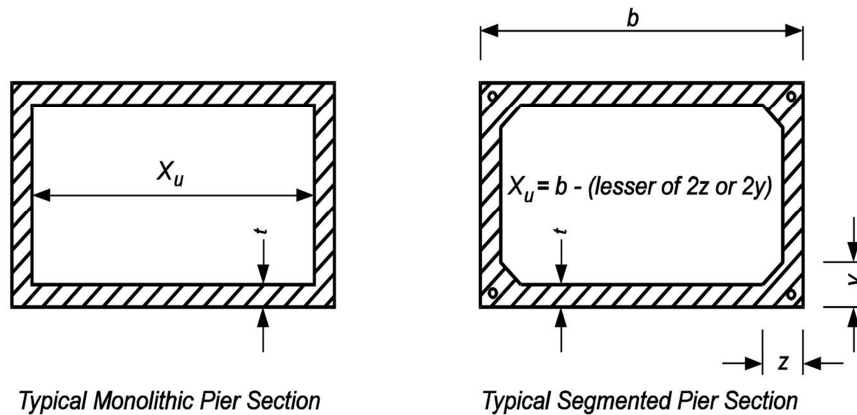


Figure 5.5: Illustration of X_u .

2. Limitations on the Use of the Rectangular Stress Block Method

a. General

Except as specified in Article 5.7.4.7.2.c, the equivalent rectangular stress block method shall not be employed in the design of hollow rectangular compression members with a wall slenderness ratio $\lambda_w \geq 15$.

Where the wall slenderness ratio is less than 15, the rectangular stress block method may be used based on a compressive strain of 0.003.

b. Refined Method for Adjusting Maximum Usable Strain Limit

Where the wall slenderness ratio is 15 or greater, the maximum usable strain at the extreme concrete compression fiber is equal to the lesser of the computed local buckling strain of the widest flange of the cross-section, or 0.003.

The local buckling strain of the widest flange of the cross-section may be computed assuming simply supported boundary conditions on all four edges of the flange. Nonlinear material behavior shall be considered by incorporating the tangent material moduli of the concrete and reinforcing steel in computations of the local buckling strain.

Discontinuous, non-post-tensioned reinforcement in segmentally constructed hollow rectangular compression members shall be neglected in computations of member strength.

Flexural resistance shall be calculated using the principles of Article 5.7.3 applied with anticipated stress-strain curves for the types of material to be used.

c. Approximate Method for Adjusting Factored Resistance

The provisions of this Article and the rectangular stress block method may be used in lieu of the provisions of Articles 5.7.4.7.2.a and 5.7.4.7.2.b where the wall slenderness is $\lambda_w \leq 35$.

The factored resistance of a hollow column, determined using a maximum usable strain of 0.003, and the resistance factors specified in Article 5.5.4.2 shall be further reduced by a factor ϕ_w taken as:

- If $\lambda_w \leq 15$, then:

$$\phi_w = 1.0 \quad (5.56)$$

- If $15 \leq \lambda_w \leq 25$, then

$$\phi_w = 1 - 0.025(\lambda_w - 15) \quad (5.57)$$

- If $25 \leq \lambda_w \leq 35$, then

$$\phi_w = 0.75 \quad (5.58)$$

5.7.5. Bearing

In the absence of confinement reinforcement in the concrete supporting the bearing device, the factored bearing resistance shall be taken as:

$$P_r = \phi P_n \quad (5.59)$$

in which:

$$P_n = 0.85 f'_c A_l m \quad (5.60)$$

where:

- P_n = nominal bearing resistance (N)
- A_1 = area under bearing device (mm^2)
- m = modification factor
- A_2 = a notional area defined herein (mm^2)
- ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article [5.5.4.2](#)

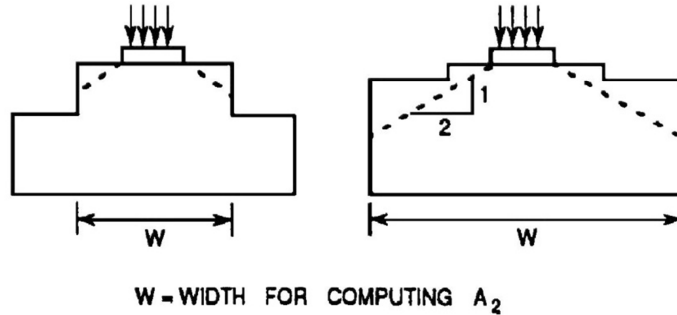


Figure 5.6: Determination of A_2 for a Stepped Support.

The modification factor may be determined as follows:

- Where the supporting surface is wider on all sides than the loaded area:

$$m = \sqrt{A_2/A_1} \leq 2.0 \quad (5.61)$$

- Where the loaded area is subjected to non-uniformly distributed bearing stresses:

$$m = 0.75\sqrt{A_2/A_1} \leq 1.50 \quad (5.62)$$

Where the supporting surface is sloped or stepped, A_2 may be taken as the area of the lower base of the largest frustum of a right pyramid, cone, or tapered wedge contained wholly within the support and having for its upper base the loaded area, as well as side slopes of 1.0 vertical to 2.0 horizontal.

Where the factored applied load exceeds the factored resistance, as specified herein, provisions shall be made to resist the bursting and spalling forces in accordance with Article [5.13](#).

5.7.6. Tension Members

5.7.6.1. Factored Tension Resistance

Members in which the factored loads induce tensile stresses throughout the cross-section shall be regarded as tension members, and the axial force shall be assumed to be resisted only by the steel elements. The provisions of Article [5.16.5.4](#) shall apply.

The factored resistance to uniform tension shall be taken as:

$$P_r = \phi P_n \quad (5.63)$$

where:

P_n = nominal tension resistance specified.

ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article [5.5.4.2](#)

5.7.6.2. Resistance to Combinations of Tension and Flexure

Members subjected to eccentric tension loading, which induces both tensile and compressive stresses in the cross-section, shall be proportioned in accordance with the provisions of Article [5.7.2](#).

5.8. SHEAR AND TORSION

5.8.1. General

In lieu of the methods specified herein, the resistance of members in shear or in shear combined with torsion may be determined by satisfying the conditions of equilibrium and compatibility of strains and by using experimentally verified stress-strain relationships for reinforcement and for diagonally cracked concrete.

Components in which the distance from the point of zero shear to the face of the support is less than $2d$, or components in which a load causing more than 1/2 (1/3 in case of segmental box girders) of the shear at a support is closer than $2d$ from the face of the support, may be considered to be deep components for which detailing requirements of Article [5.17.2.3](#) apply.

The values of $\sqrt{f'_c}$ used in this chapter shall not exceed 8.3 MPa except as follows:

- Values of $\sqrt{f'_c}$ greater than 8.3 MPa shall be permitted in computing V_c , V_{ci} , and V_{cw} for reinforced or prestressed concrete beams and concrete joist construction having minimum web reinforcement.

5.8.1.1. Modifications for Lightweight Concrete

When lightweight aggregate concretes are used, the following modifications shall apply in determining resistance to torsion and shear:

The term $\sqrt{f'_c}$ in the expressions for shear and torsion calculations shall be replaced by:

$$\lambda f_{ct} \leq \sqrt{f'_c} \quad (5.64)$$

where:

f'_c = specified strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)

f_{ct} = splitting tensile strength of lightweight concrete (MPa)

λ = Modification factor for lightweight concrete

= 1.80 (if the average splitting tensile strength of lightweight concrete is specified)

= 0.75 (if the average splitting tensile strength of lightweight concrete is not specified)

= 0.85 (for sand low-density concrete)

5.8.1.2. Design Yield Strength of Transverse Reinforcement

The design yield strength of non-prestressed transverse reinforcement shall be taken equal to the specified yield strength when the latter does not exceed 420 MPa.

The design yield strength of prestressed transverse reinforcement shall be taken as the effective stress, after allowance for all prestress losses, plus 420 MPa, but not greater than f_{py} .

Components of inclined flexural compression and/or flexural tension in variable depth members shall be considered when calculating shear resistance.

5.8.1.3. Sections near Supports

Where the reaction force introduces compression into the end region of a component, the critical for shear near the support shall be located at a distance of d_v from the face of the support.

Otherwise, the design section shall be taken at the internal face of the support. Where the beam-type element extends on both sides of the reaction area, the design section on each side of the reaction shall be determined separately based upon the loads on each side of the reaction and whether their respective contribution to the total reaction introduces tension or compression into the end region.

For post-tensioned beams, anchorage zone reinforcement shall be provided as specified in Article 5.13. For pretensioned beams, a reinforcement cage confining the ends of strands shall be provided as specified in Article 5.14. For non-prestressed beams supported on bearings that introduce compression into the member: only minimal transverse reinforcement may be provided between the inside edge of the bearing plate or pad and the end of the beam.

5.8.1.4. Regions near Discontinuities

Regions near force discontinuities arising from concentrated forces or reactions, and regions near geometric discontinuities, such as abrupt changes in cross section, these regions shall follow the provisions of Article 5.17.2.

5.8.1.5. Slabs and Footings

Slab-type regions shall be designed for shear in accordance with the provisions of Article 5.17.3.6.

5.8.1.6. Transfer and Development Lengths

The provisions of Article 5.16.4 shall be considered.

5.8.1.7. Types of Transverse Reinforcement

Shear reinforcement consisting of the following shall be permitted:

- Stirrups perpendicular to axis of member;
- Welded wire reinforcement with wires located perpendicular to axis of member;
- Spirals, circular ties, or hoops.

For non-prestressed members, shear reinforcement shall be permitted to also consist of:

- Stirrups making an angle of 45 deg or more with longitudinal tension reinforcement;
- Longitudinal reinforcement with bent portion making an angle of 30 deg or more with the longitudinal tension reinforcement;
- Combinations of stirrups and bent longitudinal reinforcement.

The values of f_y and f_{yt} used in design of shear reinforcement shall not exceed 420 MPa, except the value shall not exceed 550 MPa for welded deformed wire reinforcement.

Transverse reinforcement shall be detailed such that the shear force between different elements or zones of a member are effectively transferred.

Torsional reinforcement shall consist of both transverse and longitudinal reinforcement. Longitudinal reinforcement shall consist of bars and/or tendons.

Transverse torsion reinforcement shall be made fully continuous and shall be anchored by 135° standard hooks around longitudinal reinforcement.

5.8.2. Design of Sections Subjected to Shear

5.8.2.1. Consideration of Shear

Except for solid slabs, walls, and footings, transverse reinforcement shall be provided in all regions where:

$$V_u > 0.5 \phi (V_c + V_p) \quad (5.65)$$

where:

V_u = factored shear force (N)

V_c = nominal shear resistance of the concrete (N)

V_p = component of prestressing force in direction of the shear force; $V_p = 0$ when the simplified method of Article 5.8.2.5.1.b is used (N)

ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article 5.5.4.2

5.8.2.2. Factored Shear Resistance

The factored shear resistance, V_r , shall be taken as:

$$V_r = \phi V_n \quad (5.66)$$

where:

V_n = nominal shear resistance specified in Article 5.8.2.5 (N)

ϕ = resistance factor as specified in Article 5.5.4.2

5.8.2.3. Required Shear Resistance

Components subjected to shear shall be proportioned so that:

$$V_r \geq V_u \quad (5.67)$$

where $V_r = \phi V_n$

5.8.2.4. Shear Stress on Concrete due to Shear Forces

The shear stress on the concrete shall be determined as:

$$v_u = \frac{|V_u - \phi V_p|}{\phi b_v d_v} \quad (5.68)$$

where:

- V_u = factored shear force (N)
- V_p = component of prestressing force in direction of the shear force; $V = 0$ when the simplified method of Article 5.8.2.5.1.b is used (N)
- ϕ = resistance factor for shear specified in Article 5.5.4.2
- b_v = effective web width taken as the minimum web width, measured parallel to the neutral axis, between the resultants of the tensile and compressive forces due to flexure, or for circular sections, the diameter of the section, modified for the presence of ducts where applicable (mm)
- d_v = effective shear depth taken as the distance, measured perpendicular to the neutral axis, between the resultants of the tensile and compressive forces due to flexure; it need not be taken to be less than the greater of $0.9 d_e$ or $0.72h$ (mm)

$$d_v = \frac{M_n}{A_s f_y + A_{ps} f_{ps}} \quad (5.69)$$

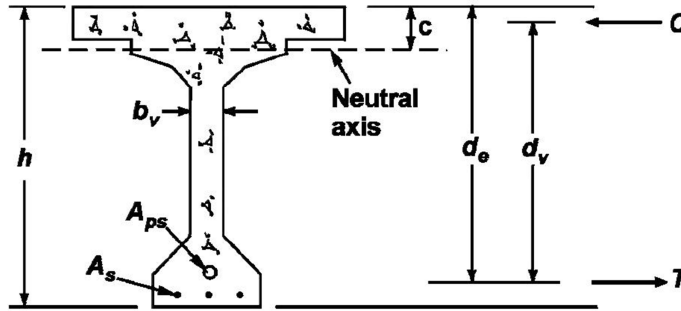


Figure 5.7: Illustration of the Terms b_v and d_v .

in which:

$$d_e = \frac{A_{ps} f_{ps} d_p + A_s f_y d_s}{A_{ps} f_{ps} + A_s f_y} \quad (5.70)$$

where:

- d_e = effective depth from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the tensile force in the tensile reinforcement (mm)
- d_p = distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the prestressing tendons (mm)
- d_s = distance from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the non-prestressed tensile reinforcement (mm)

- A_s = area of non-prestressed tension reinforcement (mm^2); total area of longitudinal deck reinforcement (mm^2)
 A_{ps} = area of prestressing steel (mm^2)
 f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcing bars ≤ 500 MPa
 f_{ps} = average stress in prestressing steel at the time for which the nominal resistance of member is required (MPa)

In determining the web width at a particular level, one-half the diameters of ungrouted ducts or one-quarter the diameter of grouted ducts at that level shall be subtracted from the web width.

For circular members, such as reinforced concrete columns or prestressed concrete piles, d_v can be determined from Eq. (5.69) provided that M_n is calculated ignoring the effects of axial load and that the reinforcement areas, A_s and A_{ps} , are taken as the reinforcement in one-half of the section. Alternatively, d_v can be taken as $0.9d_e$, where:

$$d_e = \frac{D}{2} + \frac{D_r}{\pi} \quad (5.71)$$

where:

- D = external diameter of the circular member (mm)
 D_r = diameter of the circle passing through the centers of the longitudinal reinforcement (mm)

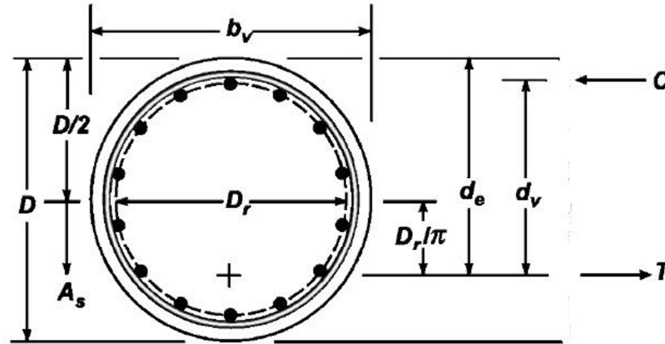


Figure 5.8: Illustration of Terms b_v , d_v and d_e for Circular Sections

Circular members usually have the longitudinal reinforcement uniformly distributed around the perimeter of the section. When the member cracks, the highest shear stresses typically occur near the mid-depth of the section. This is also true when the section is not cracked. It is for this reason that the effective web width can be taken as the diameter of the section.

5.8.2.5. Nominal Shear Resistance V_n

The nominal shear resistance, V_n , shall be determined as:

$$V_n = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_c + V_s + V_p \\ 0.66\sqrt{f'_c}b_vd_v + V_p \end{array} \right. \quad (5.72)$$

where:

- V_c = shear resistance provided by concrete (N), according to Article 5.8.2.5.1
- V_s = shear resistance provided by shear reinforcement (N), according to Article 5.8.2.5.2.
- V_p = component in the direction of the applied shear of the effective prestressing force; positive if resisting the applied shear (N); $V_p = 0$ if Article 5.8.2.5.1.b is applied.
- f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
- b_v = effective web width taken as the minimum web width within the depth d_v as determined in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)
- d_v = effective shear depth as determined in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)

The limit of $V_n = 0.66\sqrt{f'_c} b_v d_v + V_p$ given by Eq. (5.72), is intended to ensure that the concrete in the web of the beam will not crush prior to yield of the transverse reinforcement.

1. Determination of V_c

Shear resistance provided by concrete may be determined by one of the following procedures:

- if the procedure of Articles 5.8.2.5.1.a1 or 5.8.2.5.1.a2 are used:

$$V_c = \frac{1}{12} \beta \sqrt{f'_c} b_v d_v \quad (5.73)$$

or:

- if the procedure of Articles 5.8.2.5.1.b are used:

$$V_c = \min \left\{ \begin{matrix} V_{ci} \\ V_{cw} \end{matrix} \right\} \quad (5.74)$$

where:

- f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
- b_v = effective web width taken as the minimum web width within the depth d_v as determined in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)
- d_v = effective shear depth as determined in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)
- β = factor indicating ability of diagonally cracked concrete to transmit tension as specified in Article 5.8.2.5.1.a

a. Determination of V_c by β and θ

a1. Simplified Method for Non-prestressed Sections

For concrete footings in which the distance from point of zero shear to the face of the column, pier or wall is less than $3d_v$ with or without transverse reinforcement, and for other non-prestressed concrete sections not subjected to axial tension and containing

at least the minimum amount of transverse reinforcement specified in Article 5.8.5.1, or having an overall depth of less than 400 mm, the following values may be used:

$$\beta = 2.0$$

$$\theta = 45^\circ \text{ (angle between a strut and the longitudinal axis of a member)}$$

a2. General Method

For sections containing at least the minimum amount of transverse reinforcement specified in Article 5.8.5.1, the value of β may be determined by Eq. (5.75):

$$\beta = \frac{4.8}{(1 + 750\varepsilon_s)} \quad (5.75)$$

When sections do not contain at least the minimum amount of shear reinforcement, the value of β may be as specified in Eq. (5.76):

$$\beta = \frac{4.8}{(1 + 750\varepsilon_s)} \frac{1300}{(1000 + s_{xe})} \quad (5.76)$$

Where s_{xe} is the crack spacing parameter, it is given by Eq. (5.79).

The value of θ in both cases may be as specified in Eq. (5.77):

$$\theta = 29 + 3500\varepsilon_s \quad (5.77)$$

In Eqs. (5.75), (5.76), (5.77), ε_s is the strain in non-prestressed longitudinal tension reinforcement as shown in Figure 5.9 and Figure 5.10. In lieu of more involved procedures, ε_s may be determined as follows:

$$\varepsilon_s = \frac{M_u/d_v + V_u - V_p + 0.5N_u - A_{ps}f_{po}}{(E_s A_s + E_p A_{ps})} \quad (5.78)$$

If the value of ε_s is negative, it shall be taken as zero or recalculated with the denominator replaced by $2(E_s A_s + E_p A_{ps} + E_c A_c)$. However, ε_s shall not be less than (-0.20×10^{-3}) .

The crack spacing parameter, s_{xe} , shall be determined as:

$$s_{xe} = s_x \frac{35}{a_g + 16} \quad (5.79)$$

where:

$$300 \text{ mm} \leq s_{xe} \leq 2000 \text{ mm}$$

where:

$$A_c = \text{area of concrete on the flexural tension side of the member as shown in Figure 5.9 (mm}^2\text{)}$$

$$A_{ps} = \text{area of prestressing steel on the flexural tension side of the member, as shown in Figure 5.9 (mm}^2\text{)}$$

- A_s = area of non-prestressed steel on the flexural tension side of the member at the section under consideration, as shown in [Figure 5.9](#). In calculating A_s for use in this equation, bars which are terminated at a distance less than their development length from the section under consideration shall be ignored (mm^2)
- a_g = maximum aggregate size (mm).
- f_{po} = a parameter taken as modulus of elasticity of prestressing tendons multiplied by the locked-in difference in strain between the prestressing tendons and the surrounding concrete (MPa). For the usual levels of prestressing, a value of $0.7 f_{pu}$ will be appropriate for both pretensioned and post-tensioned members.
- N_u = factored axial force, taken as positive if tensile and negative if compressive (N)
- M_u = factored moment, not to be taken less than $(V_u - V_p)d_v$ (N-mm)
- s_x = the lesser of either d_v or the maximum distance between layers of longitudinal crack control reinforcement, where the area of the reinforcement in each layer is not less than $0.003b_v s_x$ as shown in [Figure 5.11](#) (mm)
- V_u = factored shear force (N)

Within the transfer length, f_{po} shall be increased linearly from zero at the location where the bond between the strands and concrete commences to its full value at the end of the transfer length.

The flexural tension side of the member shall be taken as the half-depth containing the flexural tension zone, as illustrated in [Figure 5.9](#).

In the use of Eqs. [\(5.75\)](#) through [\(5.79\)](#), the following, should be considered:

- M_u should not be taken less than $(V_u - V_p)d_v$.
- In calculating A_s and A_{ps} the area of bars or tendons terminated less than their development length from the section under consideration should be reduced in proportion to their lack of full development.
- If the value of ϵ_s calculated from Eq. [\(5.78\)](#) is negative, it should be taken as zero or the value should be recalculated with the denominator of Eq. [\(5.78\)](#) replaced by $(E_s A_s + E_p A_p + E_c A_c)$. However, ϵ_s should not be taken as less than -0.40×10^{-3} .
- For sections closer than d_v to the face of the support, the value of ϵ_s calculated at d_v from the face of the support may be used in evaluating β and θ .
- If the axial tension is large enough to crack the flexural compression face of the section, the value calculated from Eq. [\(5.78\)](#) should be doubled.
- It is permissible to determine β and θ from Eqs. [\(5.75\)](#) through [\(5.77\)](#) using a value of ϵ_s which is greater than that calculated from Eq. [\(5.78\)](#). However ϵ_s should not be taken greater than 6.0×10^{-3} .

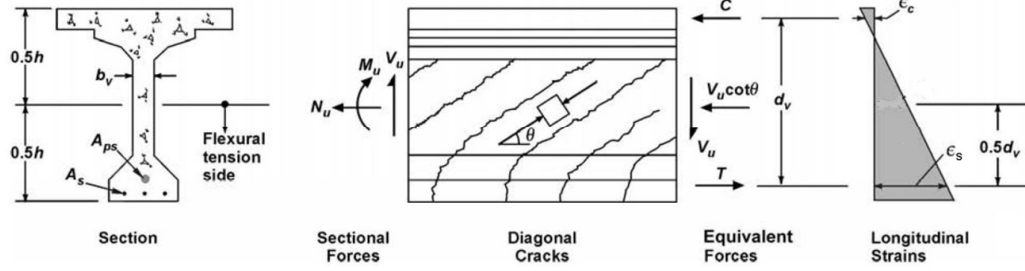


Figure 5.9: Illustration of Shear Parameters for Section Containing at Least the Minimum Amount of Transverse Reinforcement, $V_p = 0$.

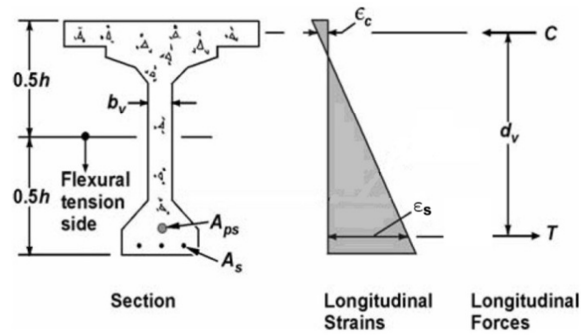


Figure 5.10: Longitudinal Strain, ϵ_s for Sections Containing Less than the Minimum Amount of Transverse Reinforcement.

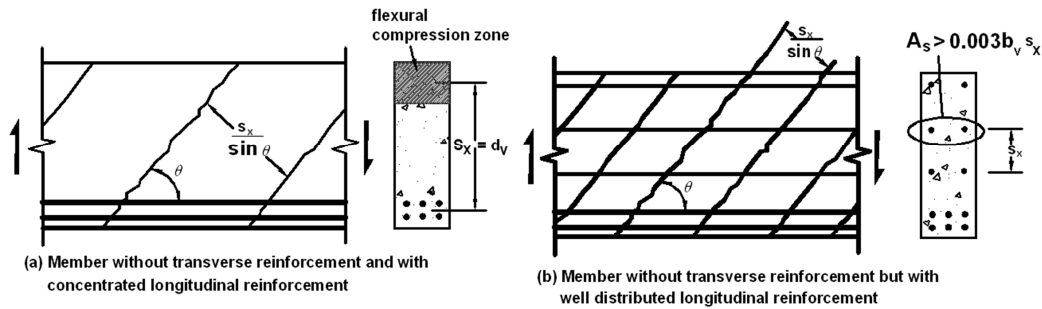


Figure 5.11: Definition of Crack Spacing Parameter s_x .

b. Determination of V_c by V_{ci} and V_{cw}

For concrete beams not subject to significant axial tension, prestressed and non-prestressed, and containing at least the minimum amount of transverse reinforcement specified in Article 5.8.5.1, V_n in Article 5.8.2.5 may be determined with V_p taken as zero and V_c taken as the lesser of V_{ci} and V_{cw} ,

where:

V_{ci} = nominal shear resistance provided by concrete when inclined cracking results from combined shear and moment (N)

V_{cw} = nominal shear resistance provided by concrete when inclined cracking results from excessive principal tensions in web (N)

V_{ci} shall be determined as:

$$V_{ci} = 0.0525\sqrt{f'_c}b_v d_v + V_d + \frac{V_i M_{cre}}{M_{max}} \geq 0.16\sqrt{f'_c}b_v d_v \quad (5.80)$$

where:

V_d = shear force at section due to unfactored dead load and includes both DC and DW (N)

V_i = factored shear force at section due to externally applied loads occurring simultaneously with M_{max} (N)

M_{cre} = moment causing flexural cracking at section due to externally applied loads (see Eq. (5.31) in which f_r shall be taken as $f_r = 0.52\sqrt{f'_c}$)

M_{max} = maximum factored moment at section due to externally applied loads (N-mm)

In Eq. (5.80), M_{max} and V_i shall be determined from the load combination causing maximum moment at the section.

V_{cw} shall be determined as:

$$V_{cw} = (0.16\sqrt{f'_c} + 0.30f_{pc})b_v d_v + V_p \quad (5.81)$$

where:

f_{pc} = compressive stress in concrete (after allowance for all prestress losses) at centroid of cross section resisting externally applied loads or at junction of web and flange when the centroid lies within the flange (MPa). In a composite member, f_{pc} is the resultant compressive stress at the centroid of the composite section, or at junction of web and flange, due to both prestress and moments resisted by precast member acting alone.

V_s shall be determined using Eq. (5.84) with $\cot \theta$ taken as follows:

- if $V_{ci} < V_{cw}$:

$$\cot \theta = 1.0 \quad (5.82)$$

- if $V_{ci} > V_{cw}$:

$$\cot \theta = 1.0 + 1.14 \left(\frac{f_{pc}}{\sqrt{f'_c}} \right) \leq 1.8 \quad (5.83)$$

2. Determination of V_s

Shear resistance provided by shear reinforcement can be determined as follows:

$$V_s = \frac{A_v f_{yt} d_v}{s} (\cot \theta + \cot \alpha) \sin \alpha \quad (5.84)$$

where:

- d_v = effective shear depth as determined in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)
- A_v = area of shear reinforcement within a distance s (mm^2)
- f_{yt} = yield strength of transverse reinforcement (MPa)
- θ = angle of inclination of diagonal compressive stresses as determined in Article 5.8.2.5.1.a ($^\circ$); if the procedures of Article 5.8.2.5.1.b are used, $\cot \theta$ is defined therein
- α = angle of inclination of transverse reinforcement to longitudinal axis ($^\circ$)
- s = spacing of stirrups (mm)

5.8.3. Design of Sections Subjected to Torsion

5.8.3.1. Consideration of Torsion

For normal density concrete, torsional effects shall be investigated where:

$$T_u > 1/4 \phi T_{cr} \quad (5.85)$$

where:

$$T_{cr} = \frac{1}{3} K \sqrt{f'_c} \frac{A_{cp}^2}{p_{cp}} \quad (5.86)$$

in which:

$$K = \left(1 + 3 \frac{f_{pc}}{\sqrt{f'_c}} \right)^{0.5}$$

where:

- T_u = factored torsional moment (N-mm)
- T_{cr} = torsional cracking moment (N-mm)
- f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
- A_{cp} = total area enclosed by outside perimeter of concrete cross-section (mm^2)
- p_{cp} = the length of the outside perimeter of the concrete section (mm)
- f_{pc} = compressive stress in concrete after prestress losses have occurred either at the centroid of the cross-section resisting transient loads or at the junction of the web and flange where the centroid lies in the flange (MPa)
- ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article 5.5.4.2

For cellular structures the term (A_{cp}^2/p_{cp}) , in Eq. (5.86), shall be limited as per Eq. (5.87):

$$\frac{A_{cp}^2}{p_{cp}} \leq 2 A_o b_w \quad (5.87)$$

where:

A_o = area enclosed by the shear flow path, including any area of holes therein (mm^2)

b_v = width of web adjusted for the presence of ducts as specified in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)

The area (A_o) enclosed by the shear flow path can be determined as follows:

a) In box sections (Cellular Structures) :

The area (A_o) is the area enclosed by the line passing by the mid thickness of web (see Figure 5.12)

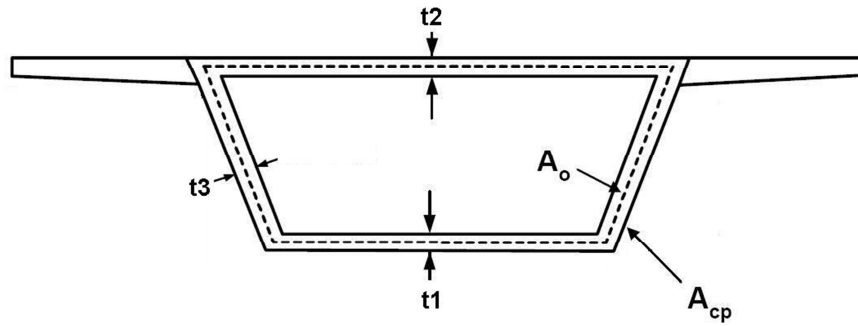


Figure 5.12: Sketch Showing Data Used in Sample Calculation for A_o

b) In reinforced solid sections:

The area (A_o) is 85 percent of the the area (A_{oh}) enclosed by the line passing by the centerline of stirrup in the cross-section (see Figure 5.12).

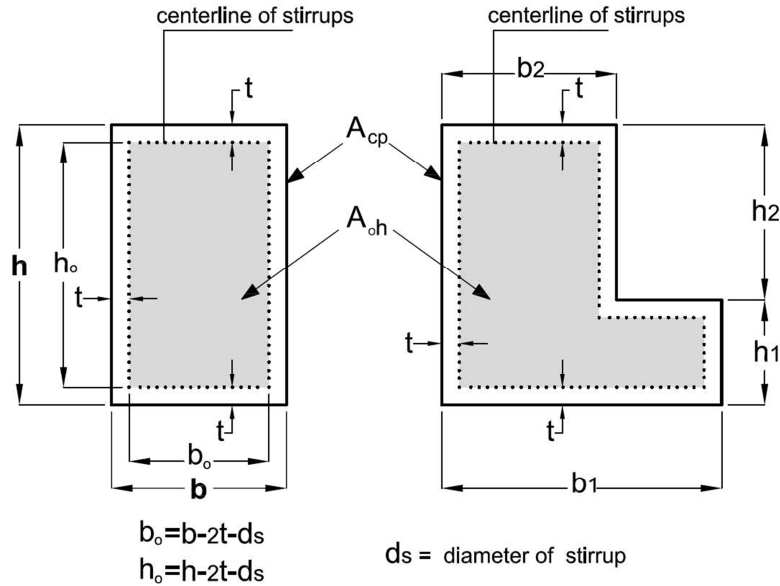


Figure 5.13: Sketch Showing Data Used in Sample Calculation for A_{oh} in concrete solid sections

5.8.3.2. Factored Torsional Resistance

The factored torsional resistance, T_r , shall be taken as:

$$T_r = \phi T_n \quad (5.88)$$

where:

T_n = nominal torsional resistance specified in Article 5.8.3.4 (N-mm)

ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article 5.5.4.2

5.8.3.3. Required Torsional Resistance

Components subjected to torsion shall be proportioned so that:

$$T_r \geq T_u \quad (5.89)$$

where $T_r = \phi T_n$

5.8.3.4. Shear Stress on Concrete due to Torque Moments

The shear stress on the concrete due to torque moments shall be determined as:

$$q = \frac{T_u p_h}{1.7 A_o} \quad (5.90)$$

where:

q = shear stress on the concrete due to torque moments (N/mm²)

A_o = area enclosed by the shear flow path, including any area of holes therein (mm²)

T_u = factored torsional moment (N-mm)

p_h = perimeter of the centerline of the closed transverse torsion reinforcement (mm)

5.8.3.5. Nominal Torsional Resistance

The nominal torsional resistance shall be taken as:

$$T_n = 2 A_o \frac{A_t f_{yt}}{s} \cot \theta \quad (5.91)$$

where:

A_o = area enclosed by the shear flow path, including any area of holes therein (mm²)

A_t = area of one leg of closed transverse torsion reinforcement in solid members, or total area of transverse torsion reinforcement in the exterior web of cellular members (mm²)

f_{yt} = yield strength of transverse torsion reinforcement (MPa)

s = spacing of stirrups (mm)

θ = angle of crack as determined in accordance with the provisions of Article 5.8.2.5.1.a (°)

1. Longitudinal Reinforcement

The additional area of longitudinal reinforcement to resist torsion, A_t , shall not be less than:

$$A_t = \frac{A_t}{s} p_h \left(\frac{f_{yt}}{f_y} \right) \cot^2 \theta \quad (5.92)$$

5.8.4. Design of Sections Subjected to Combined Shear and Torsion

For sections subjected to combined shear and torsion, the transverse reinforcement provided shall be at least equal to the sum of that required for shear and that required for the coexisting torsion.

The cross-sectional dimensions shall be such that:

- For solid sections:

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{V_u}{b_v d_v} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{T_u p_h}{1.7 A_o} \right)^2} \leq \phi \left(\frac{V_c}{b_v d_v} + 0.66 \sqrt{f'_c} \right) \quad (5.93)$$

- For box (hollow) sections:

$$\left(\frac{V_u}{b_v d_v} \right) + \left(\frac{T_u p_h}{1.7 A_o} \right) \leq \phi \left(\frac{V_c}{b_v d_v} + 0.66 \sqrt{f'_c} \right) \quad (5.94)$$

where:

- V_u = factored shear force (N)
- V_c = shear resistance provided by concrete
- p_h = perimeter of the centerline of the closed transverse torsion reinforcement (mm)
- T_u = factored torsion moment (N.mm)
- A_o = area enclosed by the shear flow path, including any area of holes therein (mm²)
- ϕ = resistance factor taken from Article [5.5.4.2](#).
- b_v = effective web width taken as the minimum web width within the depth d_v as determined in Article [5.8.2.4](#) (mm)
- d_v = effective shear depth as determined in Article [5.8.2.4](#) (mm)

If the wall thickness is less than A_o/p_h , the second term in Eq. [\(5.93\)](#) shall be taken as:

$$\left(\frac{T_u}{1.7 A_o t} \right) \quad (5.95)$$

where t is the thickness of the wall of the hollow section at the location where the stresses are being checked.

The values of f_y and f_{yt} used for design of torsional reinforcement shall not exceed 420 MPa.

5.8.5. Proportioning of Transverse Reinforcement

Near locations where the spacing, s , of the transverse reinforcement changes, the quantity A_v/s may be assumed to vary linearly over a length, h , centred on the location where the spacing changes.

5.8.5.1. Minimum Amount of Transverse Reinforcement

A minimum area of shear reinforcement, $A_{v,min}$, shall be provided in all reinforced concrete flexural members (prestressed and non-prestressed) where V_u exceeds $0.5\phi V_c$, except:

- (a) Slabs and footings;
- (b) Concrete joist construction;
- (c) Beams with h not greater than the largest of 250 mm, 2.5 times thickness of flange, or 0.5 the width of web.

Where transverse shear reinforcement is required, as specified in Article 5.8.2.1, the minimum area of steel (prestressed and non-prestressed) shall satisfy:

$$A_{v,min} = \frac{1}{12} \sqrt{f_c} \frac{b_v s}{f_{yt}} \geq 0.35 \frac{b_v s}{f_{yt}} \quad (5.96)$$

where:

- $A_{v,min}$ = area of a transverse shear reinforcement within distance s (mm^2)
- b_v = width of web adjusted for the presence of ducts as specified in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)
- s = spacing of transverse reinforcement (mm)
- f_{yt} = yield strength of transverse reinforcement (MPa)

For prestressed members with an effective prestress force not less than 40 percent of the tensile strength of the flexural reinforcement, $A_{v,min}$ shall not be less than the smaller value from Eq. (5.96) and Eq. (5.97).

$$A_{v,min} = \frac{A_{ps} f_{pu} s}{80 f_{yt} d} \sqrt{\frac{d_t}{b_v}} \quad (5.97)$$

where:

- A_{ps} = area of prestressing steel (mm^2)
- f_{pu} = specified tensile strength of prestressing steel (MPa)
- s = spacing of transverse reinforcement (mm)
- f_{yt} = yield strength of transverse reinforcement (MPa)
- d_t = distance from extreme compression fiber to centroid of extreme tension steel (mm)

b_v = width of web adjusted for the presence of ducts as specified in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)

5.8.5.2. Maximum Spacing of Transverse Shear Reinforcement

Except for segmental post-tensioned concrete box girder bridges, the spacing of the transverse shear reinforcement shall not exceed the maximum permitted spacing, s_{max} , determined as:

- If $v_u < 0.125 f'_c$, then:

- For non-prestressed concrete:

$$s_{max} = 0.5 d_v \leq 600 \text{ mm} \quad (5.98)$$

- For prestressed concrete:

$$s_{max} = 0.8 d_v \leq 600 \text{ mm} \quad (5.99)$$

- If $v_u \geq 0.125 f'_c$, then:

- For non-prestressed concrete:

$$s_{max} = 0.25 d_v \leq 300 \text{ mm} \quad (5.100)$$

- For prestressed concrete:

$$s_{max} = 0.4 d_v \leq 300 \text{ mm} \quad (5.101)$$

where:

v_u = the shear stress calculated in accordance with Article 5.8.2.4 (MPa)

d_v = effective shear depth as defined in Article 5.8.2.4 (mm)

When welded wire reinforcement is used as transverse reinforcement, it shall be anchored at both ends in accordance with Article 5.16.2.6.3. No welded joints other than those required for anchorage shall be permitted.

5.8.6. Proportioning of Longitudinal Reinforcement

5.8.6.1. Extension of Longitudinal Reinforcement

At every section, the longitudinal reinforcement shall be designed to resist the additional tensile forces caused by shear as specified in Article 5.8.6.2 and 5.8.6.3. Alternatively, for members not subjected to significant tension or torsion, these requirements may be satisfied by extending the flexural tension reinforcement a distance of $(d_v \cot \theta)$ beyond the location required by flexure alone.

5.8.6.2. Longitudinal Reinforcement on the Flexural Tension Side

Longitudinal reinforcement on the flexural tension side shall be proportioned so that at all sections the factored resistance of the reinforcement, taking account of the stress that can be developed in this reinforcement, is greater than or equal to F_{lt} , calculated as follows:

$$F_{lt} = \frac{M_u}{d_v \phi_f} + 0.5 \frac{N_u}{\phi_c} + \left(\frac{V_u}{\phi_v} - 0.5 V_s - V_p \right) \cot \theta \quad (5.102)$$

where:

- V_s = shear resistance provided by the transverse reinforcement at the section under investigation as given by Eq. (5.83), except V_s shall not be taken as greater than V_u/ϕ (N)
- θ = angle of inclination of diagonal compressive stresses used in determining the nominal shear resistance of the section under investigation as determined by Article 5.8.2.5.1.a (°)
- ϕ_f, ϕ_v, ϕ_c = resistance factors taken from Article 5.5.4.2 as appropriate for moment, shear and axial resistance

where M_u and V_u are taken as positive quantities and N_u is positive for axial tension and negative for axial compression. In this equation, d_v may be taken as the flexural lever arm at the factored resistance.

The area of longitudinal reinforcement on the flexural tension side of the member need not exceed the area required to resist the maximum moment acting alone. This provision applies where the reaction force or the load introduces direct compression into the flexural compression face of the member.

Eq. (5.102) shall be evaluated where simply-supported girders are made continuous for live loads. Where longitudinal reinforcement is discontinuous, Eq. (5.102) shall be reevaluated.

At the inside edge of the bearing area of simple end supports to the section of critical shear, the factored resistance of the reinforcement on the flexural tension side of the member shall be greater than or equal to $F_{\ell t}$, calculated as follows:

$$F_{\ell t} = \left(\frac{V_u}{\phi_v} - 0.5 V_s - V_p \right) \cot \theta \quad (5.103)$$

Eqs. (5.102) and (5.103) shall be taken to apply to sections not subjected to torsion. Any lack of full development shall be accounted for.

5.8.6.3. Longitudinal Reinforcement on the Flexural Compression Side

Longitudinal reinforcement on the flexural compression side of the section shall be proportioned so that the factored tensile resistance of this reinforcement, taking account of the stress that can be developed in this reinforcement, shall be greater than or equal to the force $F_{\ell c}$, calculated as follows:

$$F_{\ell c} = 0.5 \frac{N_u}{\phi_c} + \left(\frac{V_u}{\phi_v} - 0.5 V_s - V_p \right) \cot \theta - \frac{M_u}{d_v \phi_f} \quad (5.104)$$

where M_u and V_u are taken as positive quantities and N_u is positive for axial tension and negative for axial compression.

5.8.7. Interface Shear Transfer—Shear Friction

5.8.7.1. General

Interface shear transfer shall be considered across a given plane at:

- An existing or potential crack,
- An interface between dissimilar materials,
- An interface between two concretes cast at different times,

- The interface between different elements of the cross-section.

Reinforcement for interface shear may consist of single bars, multiple leg stirrups, or welded wire fabric.

All reinforcement present where interface shear transfer is to be considered shall be fully developed on both sides of the interface by embedment, hooks, mechanical methods such as headed studs or welding to develop the design yield stress f_y .

The minimum area of interface shear reinforcement specified in Article 5.8.7.3 shall be satisfied.

The factored interface shear resistance, V_{ri} , shall be taken as:

$$V_{ri} = \phi V_{ni} \quad (5.105)$$

And the design shall satisfy:

$$V_{ri} \geq V_{ui} \quad (5.106)$$

where:

V_{ni} = nominal interface shear resistance (N)

V_{ui} = factored interface shear force due to total load based on the applicable strength and extreme event load combinations in Table 3.1 (N)

ϕ = resistance factor for shear specified in Article 5.5.4.2. In cases where different density of concretes exist on the two sides of an interface, the lower of the two values of ϕ shall be used.

Where shear-friction reinforcement is perpendicular to the shear plane, the nominal shear resistance shall be taken as:

$$V_{ni} = \mu A_{vf} f_y + \mu P_c \quad (5.107)$$

where:

A_{vf} = area of interface shear reinforcement crossing the shear plane within the area A_{cv} (mm^2)

μ = friction factor specified herein (dim.)

f_y = yield stress of reinforcement but design value not to exceed 420 (MPa)

P_c = permanent net compressive force normal to the shear plane; if force is tensile, $P_c = 0.0$ (N)

Where shear-friction reinforcement is inclined to the shear plane, such that the shear force produces tension in shear-friction reinforcement, the term $\mu A_{vf} f_y$ in the previous equation shall be replaced by:

$$A_{vf} f_y (\mu \sin \alpha + \cos \alpha) \quad (5.108)$$

where α in angle between shear-friction reinforcement and shear plane

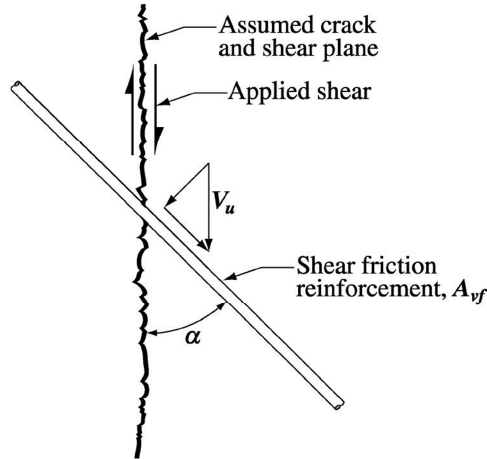


Figure 5.14: Shear-Friction reinforcement at an angle to assumed crack

The coefficient of friction μ in Eq. (5.107) and Eq. (5.108) shall be taken from Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Value of μ according shear plan condition

Shear Plan Condition	μ
Concrete placed monolithically	$\mu = 1.4\lambda$
Concrete placed against hardened concrete with surface intentionally roughened	$\mu = 1.0\lambda$
Concrete placed against hardened concrete not intentionally roughened	$\mu = 0.6\lambda$
Concrete anchored to as-rolled structural steel by headed studs or by reinforcing bars	$\mu = 0.7\lambda$

where

$\lambda = 1.0$	for normal weight concrete
$\lambda = 0.85$	for sand-lightweight concrete
$\lambda = 0.75$	for all lightweight concrete

Linear interpolation shall be permitted if partial sand replacement is used.

When concrete is placed against previously hardened concrete, the interface for shear transfer shall be clean and free of laitance. If μ is assumed equal to 1.0λ , interface shall be roughened to a full amplitude of approximately 6 mm.

When shear is transferred between asrolled steel and concrete using headed studs or welded reinforcing bars, steel shall be clean and free of paint.

The nominal shear resistance, V_{ni} , used in the design shall not be greater than the lesser of:

$$V_{ni} \leq \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.2f'_c A_{cv} \\ 5.5 A_{cv} \end{array} \right. \quad (5.109)$$

in which:

$$A_{cv} = b_{vi} L_{vi} \quad (5.110)$$

where:

- A_{cv} = area of concrete considered to be engaged in interface shear transfer (mm^2)
- b_{vi} = interface width considered to be engaged in shear transfer (mm)
- L_{vi} = interface length considered to be engaged in shear transfer (mm)
- f'_c = specified 28-day compressive strength of the weaker concrete on either side of the interface (MPa)

5.8.7.2. Computation of the Interface Shear Stress for Girder/Slab Bridges

The factored interface shear stress for a concrete girder/slab bridge may be determined as:

$$v_u = \frac{V_u}{b_{vi} d_v} \quad (5.111)$$

where:

- V_u = factored vertical shear force at concerned section
- b_{vi} = interface width considered to be engaged in shear transfer (mm)
- d_v = distance between the centroid of the tension steel and the mid-thickness of the slab to compute a factored interface shear stress.

If the net force, P_c , across the interface shear plane is tensile, additional reinforcement, A_{vpc} , shall be provided as:

$$A_{vpc} = \frac{P_c}{\phi f_y} \quad (5.112)$$

where:

- f_y = yield stress of reinforcement but design value not to exceed 415 (MPa)
- P_c = permanent net compressive force normal to the shear plane; if force is tensile, $P_c = 0.0$ (N)
- ϕ = resistance factor for shear specified in Article [5.5.4.2](#)

For beams and girders, the longitudinal spacing of the rows of interface shear transfer reinforcing bars shall not exceed 600 mm.

5.8.7.3. Minimum Area of Interface Shear Reinforcement

Except as provided herein, the cross-sectional area of the interface shear reinforcement, A_{vf} , crossing the interface area, A_{cv} , shall satisfy:

$$A_{vf} \geq \frac{0.35 A_{cv}}{f_y} \quad (5.113)$$

For a cast-in-place concrete slab on clean concrete girder surfaces free of laitance, the following provisions shall apply:

- The minimum interface shear reinforcement, A_{vf} , need not exceed the lesser of the amount determined using Eq. (5.113) and the amount needed to resist $1.33V_u/\phi$ as determined using Eq. (5.107).
- The minimum reinforcement provisions specified herein shall be waived for girder/slab interfaces with surface roughened to an amplitude of 6 mm where the factored interface shear stress, v_u of Eq. (5.111), is less than 1.4 MPa, and all vertical (transverse) shear reinforcement required by the provisions of Article 5.8.2.5 is extended across the interface and adequately anchored in the slab.

5.8.7.4. Anchorage of Shear-Friction Reinforcement

Transverse reinforcement shall be anchored at both ends in accordance with the provisions of Article 5.16.2.6. For composite flexural members, extension of beam shear reinforcement into the deck slab may be considered when determining if the development and anchorage provisions of Article 5.16.2.6 are satisfied.

5.8.8. Principal Stresses in Webs of Segmental Concrete Bridges

The provisions specified herein shall apply to all types of segmental bridges with internal and/or external tendons.

The principal tensile stress resulting from the long-term residual axial stress and maximum shear and/or maximum shear combined with shear from torsion stress at the neutral axis of the critical web shall not exceed the tensile stress limit of Table 5.11 at the Service III limit state of Article 3.4.1 at all stages during the life of the structure, excluding those during construction. When investigating principal stresses during construction, the tensile stress limits of Table 5.19 shall apply.

The principal stress shall be determined using classical beam theory and the principles of Mohr's Circle. The width of the web for these calculations shall be measured perpendicular to the plane of the web.

Compressive stress due to vertical tendons provided in the web shall be considered in the calculation of the principal stress. The vertical force component of draped longitudinal tendons shall be considered as a reduction in the shear force due to the applied loads.

Local tensions produced in webs resulting from anchorage of tendons as discussed in Article 5.13.2 shall be included in the principal tension check.

Local transverse flexural stress due to out-of-plane flexure of the web itself at the critical section may be neglected in computing the principal tension in webs.

5.9. PRESTRESSING AND PARTIAL PRESTRESSING

5.9.1. General Design Considerations

5.9.1.1. General

The provisions herein specified shall apply to structural concrete members reinforced with any combination of prestressing tendons and conventional reinforcing bars acting together to resist common force effects. Prestressed and partially prestressed concrete structural components shall be designed for both initial and final

prestressing forces. They shall satisfy the requirements at service, fatigue, strength, and extreme event limit states, as specified in Article 5.5, and in accordance with the assumptions provided in Articles 5.6, 5.7, and 5.8.

Unstressed prestressing tendons or reinforcing bars may be used in combination with stressed tendons, provided it is shown that performance of the structure satisfies all limit states and the requirements of Articles 5.4 and 5.6.

Compressive stress limits, specified in Article 5.9.4, shall be used with any applicable service load combination in Table 3.1, except Service Load Combination III, which shall not apply to the investigation of compression.

Tensile stress limits, specified in Article 5.9.4, shall be used with any applicable service load combination in Table 3.1. Service Load Combination III shall apply when investigating tension under live load.

5.9.1.2. Specified Concrete Strengths

The specified strengths, f'_c and f'_{ci} , shall be identified in the contract documents for each component. Stress limits relating to specified strengths shall be as specified in Article 5.9.4.

Concrete strength at transfer shall be adequate for the requirements of the anchorages or for transfer through bond as well as for camber or deflection requirements.

5.9.1.3. Buckling

Buckling of a member between points where concrete and tendons are in contact, buckling during handling and erection, and buckling of thin webs and flanges shall be investigated.

5.9.1.4. Section Properties

For section properties prior to bonding of post-tensioning tendons, effects of loss of area due to open ducts shall be considered.

For both pretensioned and post-tensioned members after bonding of tendons, section properties may be based on either the gross or transformed section.

5.9.1.5. Crack Control

Where cracking is permitted under service loads, crack width, fatigue of reinforcement, and corrosion considerations shall be investigated in accordance with the provisions of Articles 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7.

5.9.1.6. Tendons with Angle Points or Curves

The provisions of Article 5.4.6 for the curvature of ducts shall apply.

The provisions of Article 5.11 shall apply to the investigation of stress concentrations due to changes in the direction of prestressing tendons.

For tendons in draped ducts that are not nominally straight, consideration shall be given to the difference between the center of gravity of the tendon and the center of gravity of the duct when determining eccentricity.

Vertically draped strand tendons should be assumed to be at the bottom of the duct in negative moment areas and at the top of the duct in positive moment areas. The location of the tendon center of gravity, with respect to the centerline of the duct, is shown for negative moment in Figure 5.15.

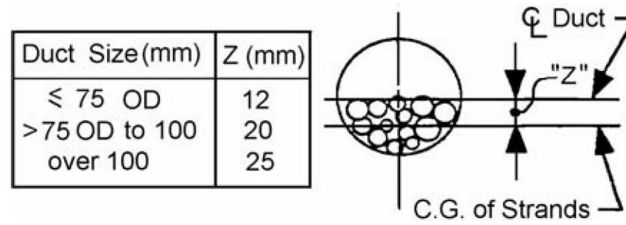


Figure 5.15: Location of Tendon in Duct.

5.9.2. Stresses Due to Imposed Deformation

The effects on adjoining elements of the structure of elastic and inelastic deformations due to prestressing shall be investigated. The restraining forces produced in the adjoining structural elements may be reduced due to the effects of creep.

In monolithic frames, force effects in columns and piers resulting from prestressing the superstructure may be based on the initial elastic shortening.

For conventional monolithic frames, any increase in column moments due to long-term creep shortening of the prestressed superstructure is considered to be offset by the concurrent relaxation of deformation moments in the columns due to creep in the column concrete.

The reduction of restraining forces in other members of a structure that are caused by the prestress in a member may be taken as:

- For suddenly imposed deformations

$$F' = F(1 - e^{-\psi(t, t_i)}), \text{ or} \quad (5.114)$$

- For slowly imposed deformations

$$F' = F(1 - e^{-\psi(t, t_i)}) / \psi(t, t_i) \quad (5.115)$$

where:

F = force effect determined using the modulus of elasticity of the concrete at the time loading is applied (N)

F' = reduced force effect (N)

$\psi(t, t_i)$ = creep coefficient at time t for loading applied at time t_i as specified in Article [5.4.3.3](#)

e = base of Napierian logarithms

5.9.3. Stress Limitations for Prestressing Tendons

The tendon stress due to prestress or at the service limit state shall not exceed the values:

- Specified in [Table 5.8](#), or
- Recommended by the manufacturer of the tendons or anchorages.

The tendon stress at the strength and extreme event limit states shall not exceed the tensile strength limit specified in [Table 5.3](#).

Table 5.8: Stress Limits for Prestressing Tendons.

Condition	Tendon Type		
	Stress-Relieved Strand and Plain High-Strength Bars	Low Relaxation Strand	Deformed High-Strength Bars
Pre-Tensioning			
Immediately prior to transfer (f_{pbt})	$0.70 f_{pu}$	$0.75 f_{pu}$	—
At service limit state after all losses (f_{pe})	$0.80 f_{py}$	$0.80 f_{py}$	$0.80 f_{py}$
Post-Tensioning			
Prior to seating—short-term f_{pbt} may be allowed	$0.90 f_{py}$	$0.90 f_{py}$	$0.90 f_{py}$
At anchorages and couplers immediately after anchor set	$0.70 f_{pu}$	$0.70 f_{pu}$	$0.70 f_{pu}$
Elsewhere along length of member away from anchorages and couplers immediately after anchor set	$0.70 f_{pu}$	$0.74 f_{pu}$	$0.70 f_{pu}$
At service limit state after losses (f_{pe})	$0.80 f_{py}$	$0.80 f_{py}$	$0.80 f_{py}$

5.9.4. Stress Limits for Concrete

5.9.4.1. For Temporary Stresses before Losses—Fully Prestressed Components

1. Compression Stresses

The compressive stress limit for pretensioned and post-tensioned concrete components, including segmentally constructed bridges, shall be $0.60 f'_{ci}$ (MPa).

2. Tension Stresses

The limits in [Table 5.9](#) shall apply for tensile stresses.

Table 5.9: Temporary Tensile Stress Limits in Prestressed Concrete before Losses, Fully Prestressed Components.

Bridge Type	Location	Stress Limit (MPa)
Segmentally Constructed	In pre-compressed tensile zone without bonded reinforcement	N/A
	In areas other than the pre-compressed tensile zone and without bonded reinforcement	$0.25 \sqrt{f'_c}$

	In areas with bonded reinforcement (reinforcing bars or prestressing steel) sufficient to resist the tensile force in the concrete computed assuming an un-cracked section, where reinforcement is proportioned using a stress of $0.5 f_y$, not to exceed 210 MPa.	$0.63 \sqrt{f'_c}$
	For handling stresses in prestressed piles	$0.415 \sqrt{f'_c}$
Segmentally Constructed Bridges	Longitudinal Stresses Through Joints in the Precompressed Tensile Zone	
	Joints with minimum bonded auxiliary reinforcement through the joints, which is sufficient to carry the calculated tensile force at a stress of $0.5 f_y$; with internal tendons or external tendons	$0.25 \sqrt{f'_c}$ maximum tension
	Joints without the minimum bonded auxiliary reinforcement through the joints	No tension
	Transverse Stresses Through Joints For any type of joint	$0.25 \sqrt{f'_c}$
	Stresses in Other Areas For areas without bonded non-prestressed reinforcement	No tension
	In areas with bonded reinforcement (reinforcing bars or prestressing steel) sufficient to resist the tensile force in the concrete computed assuming an uncracked section, where reinforcement is proportioned using a stress of $0.5 f_y$, not to exceed 210 MPa.	$0.50 \sqrt{f'_c}$
	Principal Tensile Stress at Neutral Axis in Web All types of segmental concrete bridges with internal and/or external tendons, unless the Owner imposes other criteria for critical structures	$0.29 \sqrt{f'_c}$

Where bonded reinforcement is provided to allow use of the increased tensile limiting stress in areas with bonded reinforcement, the tensile force must be computed. The first step in computing the tensile force, T , is to determine the depth of the tensile zone using the extreme fiber stresses at the location being considered, $f_{ci \text{ top}}$ and $f_{ci \text{ bot}}$. An area is then defined over which the average tensile stress is assumed to act. The tensile force is computed as the product of the average tensile stress and the computed area, as illustrated below. The required area of reinforcement, A_s , is computed by dividing the tensile force by the permitted stress in the reinforcement.

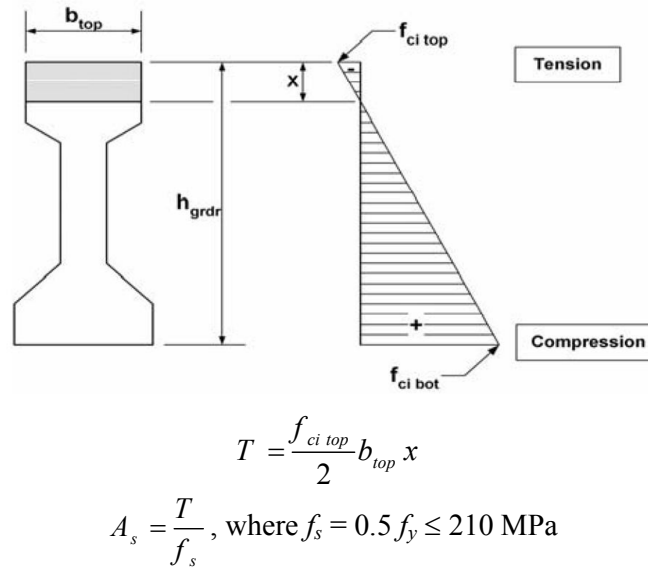


Figure 5.16: Calculation of Tensile Force and Required Area of Reinforcement.

5.9.4.2. For Stresses at Service Limit State after Losses—Fully Prestressed Components

1. Compression Stresses

Compression shall be investigated using the Service Limit State Load Combination I specified in [Table 3.1](#). The limits in [Table 5.10](#) shall apply.

The reduction factor, ϕ_w , shall be taken to be equal to 1.0 when the web and flange slenderness ratios, calculated according to Article [5.7.4.7.1](#), are not greater than 15. When either the web or flange slenderness ratio is greater than 15, the reduction factor, ϕ_w , shall be calculated according to Article [5.7.4.7.2](#).

Table 5.10: Compressive Stress Limits in Prestressed Concrete at Service Limit State after Losses, Fully Prestressed Components.

Location	Stress Limit (MPa)
In all bridges due to the sum of effective prestress and permanent loads (P/S+DL)	$0.45 f'_c$
In other than segmentally constructed bridges due to live load and one-half the sum of effective prestress and permanent loads (0.5P/S+0.5DL+LL)	$0.40 f'_c$
Due to the sum of effective prestress, permanent loads, and transient loads and during shipping and handling (P/S+DL+LL)	$0.60 \phi_w f'_c$

2. Tension Stresses

For service load combinations that involve traffic loading, tension stresses in members with bonded or un-bonded prestressing tendons should be investigated using Load Combination Service III specified in [Table 3.1](#).

The limits in [Table 5.11](#) shall apply.

Table 5.11: Tensile Stress Limits in Prestressed Concrete at Service Limit State after Losses, Fully Prestressed Components.

Bridge Type	Location	Stress Limit (MPa)
Other Than Segmentally Constructed Bridges	Tension in the Pre-compressed Tensile Zone Bridges, Assuming Un-cracked Sections	<i>N/A</i>
	For components with bonded prestressing tendons or reinforcement that are subjected to not worse than moderate corrosion conditions	$0.45\sqrt{f'_c}$
	For components with bonded prestressing tendons or reinforcement that are subjected to severe corrosive conditions	$0.25\sqrt{f'_c}$
	For components with un-bonded prestressing tendons	<i>No tension</i>
Segmentally Constructed Bridges	Longitudinal Stresses Through Joints in the Precompressed Tensile Zone	
	Joints with minimum bonded auxiliary reinforcement through the joints, which is sufficient to carry the calculated tensile force at a stress of $0.5 f_y$; with internal tendons or external tendons	$0.25\sqrt{f'_c}$
	Joints without the minimum bonded auxiliary reinforcement through the joints	<i>No tension</i>
	Transverse Stresses Through Joints	
	Tension in the transverse direction in precompressed tensile zone	$0.25\sqrt{f'_c}$
	Stresses in Other Areas	
	For areas without bonded reinforcement	<i>No tension</i>
	In areas with bonded reinforcement sufficient to resist the tensile force in the concrete computed assuming an un-cracked section, where reinforcement is proportioned using a stress of $0.5 f_y$, not to exceed 205 MPa.	$0.5\sqrt{f'_c}$
	Principal Tensile Stress at Neutral Axis in Web	

	All types of segmental concrete bridges with internal and/or external tendons, unless the Owner imposes other criteria for critical structures	$0.29\sqrt{f'_c}$
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5.9.4.3. Partially Prestressed Components

Compression stresses shall be limited as specified in Articles [5.9.4.1.1](#) and [5.9.4.2.1](#) for fully prestressed components.

Cracking in the pre-compressed tensile zone may be permitted. The design of partially prestressed members should be based on a cracked section analysis with various service limit states being satisfied. Tensile stress in reinforcement at the service limit state shall be as specified in Article [5.7.3.4](#), in which case f_{ss} shall be interpreted as the change in stress after decompression.

5.9.5. Loss of Prestress

5.9.5.1. Total Loss of Prestress

Values of prestress losses specified herein shall be applicable for specified concrete strengths up to 70 MPa.

In lieu of more detailed analysis, prestress losses in members constructed and prestressed in a single stage, relative to the stress immediately before transfer, may be taken as:

- In pretensioned members:

$$\Delta f_{pT} = \Delta f_{pES} + \Delta f_{pLT}$$

- In post-tensioned members:

$$\Delta f_{pT} = \Delta f_{pA} + \Delta f_{pF} + \Delta f_{pES} + \Delta f_{pLT}$$

where:

Δf_{pT} = total loss (MPa)

Δf_{pF} = loss due to friction (MPa)

Δf_{pA} = loss due to anchorage set (MPa)

Δf_{pES} = sum of all losses or gains due to elastic shortening or extension at the time of application of prestress and/or external loads (MPa)

Δf_{pLT} = losses due to long-term shrinkage and creep of concrete, and relaxation of the steel (MPa)

5.9.5.2. Instantaneous Losses

1. Anchorage Set

The magnitude of the anchorage set shall be the greater of that required to control the stress in the prestressing steel at transfer or that recommended by the manufacturer of the anchorage. The magnitude of the set assumed for the design and used to calculate set loss shall be shown in the contract documents and verified during construction.

2. Friction

a. Pretensioned Construction

For draped prestressing tendons, losses that may occur at the hold-down devices should be considered.

b. Post-Tensioned Construction

Losses due to friction between the internal prestressing tendons and the duct wall may be taken as:

$$\Delta f_{pF} = f_{pj} \left(1 - e^{-(Kx + \mu\alpha)} \right) \quad (5.116)$$

Losses due to friction between the external tendon across a single deviator pipe may be taken as:

$$\Delta f_{pF} = f_{pj} \left(1 - e^{-\mu(\alpha + 0.04)} \right) \quad (5.117)$$

where:

- f_{pj} = stress in the prestressing steel at jacking (MPa)
- x = length of a prestressing tendon from the jacking end to any point under consideration (mm)
- K = wobble friction coefficient (per mm of tendon)
- μ = coefficient of friction
- α = sum of the absolute values of angular change of prestressing steel path from jacking end, or from the nearest jacking end if tensioning is done equally at both ends, to the point under investigation (rad.)
- e = base of Napierian logarithms

Values of K and μ should be based on experimental data for the materials specified and shall be shown in the contract documents. In the absence of such data, a value within the ranges of K and μ as specified in [Table 5.12](#) may be used.

For tendons confined to a vertical plane, α shall be taken as the sum of the absolute values of angular changes over length x .

For tendons curved in three dimensions, the total tridimensional angular change α shall be obtained by vectorially adding the total vertical angular change, α_v , and the total horizontal angular change, α_h .

Table 5.12: Friction Coefficients for Post-Tensioning Tendons.

Type of Steel	Type of Duct	K	μ
Wire or strand	Rigid and semi-rigid galvanized metal Sheathing	6.6×10^{-7}	0.15 – 0.25
	Polyethylene	6.6×10^{-7}	0.23
	Rigid steel pipe deviators for external tendons	6.6×10^{-7}	0.25
High-strength bars	Galvanized metal sheathing	6.6×10^{-7}	0.30

3. Elastic Shortening

a. Pretensioned Members

The loss due to elastic shortening in pretensioned members shall be taken as:

$$\Delta f_{pES} = \frac{E_p}{E_{ct}} f_{cgp} \quad (5.118)$$

where:

f_{cgp} = concrete stress at the center of gravity of prestressing tendons due to the prestressing force immediately after transfer and the self-weight of the member at the section of maximum moment (MPa).

E_p = modulus of elasticity of prestressing steel (MPa)

E_{ct} = modulus of elasticity of concrete at transfer or time of load application (MPa)

The total elastic loss or gain may be taken as the sum of the effects of prestress and applied loads.

b. Post-Tensioned Members

The loss due to elastic shortening in post-tensioned members, other than slab systems, may be taken as:

$$\Delta f_{pES} = \frac{N-1}{2N} \frac{E_p}{E_{ci}} f_{cgp} \quad (5.119)$$

where:

N = number of identical prestressing tendons

f_{cgp} = sum of concrete stresses at the center of gravity of prestressing tendons due to the prestressing force after jacking and the self-weight of the member at the sections of maximum moment (MPa)

f_{cgp} values may be calculated using a steel stress reduced below the initial value by a margin dependent on elastic shortening, relaxation, and friction effects.

For post-tensioned structures with bonded tendons, f_{cgp} may be taken at the center section of the span or, for continuous construction, at the section of maximum moment.

For post-tensioned structures with un-bonded tendons, the f_{cgp} value may be calculated as the stress at the center of gravity of the prestressing steel averaged along the length of the member.

For slab systems, the value of Δf_{pES} may be taken as 25 percent of that obtained from Eq. (5.119).

If tendons with two different numbers of strands per tendon are used, N may be calculated as:

$$N = N_1 + N_2 \frac{A_{SP2}}{A_{SP1}} \quad (5.120)$$

where:

- N_1 = number of tendons in the larger group
 N_2 = number of tendons in the smaller group
 A_{spl} = cross-sectional area of a tendon in the larger group (mm²)
 A_{sp2} = cross-sectional area of a tendon in the smaller group (mm²)

c. Combined Pretensioning and Post-Tensioning

In applying the provisions of Articles [5.9.5.2.3.a](#) and [5.9.5.2.3.b](#) to components with combined pretensioning and post-tensioning, and where post-tensioning is not applied in identical increments, the effects of subsequent post-tensioning on the elastic shortening of previously stressed prestressing tendons shall be considered.

5.9.5.3. Approximate Estimate of Time-Dependent Losses

For standard precast, pretensioned members subject to normal loading and environmental conditions, where:

- members are made from normal-density concrete,
- the concrete is either steam- or moist-cured,
- prestressing is by bars or strands with normal and low relaxation properties, and
- average exposure conditions and temperatures characterize the site, the long-term prestress loss, Δf_{pLT} , due to creep of concrete, shrinkage of concrete, and relaxation of steel shall be estimated using the following formula:

$$\Delta f_{pLT} = 10.0 \frac{f_{pi} A_{ps}}{A_g} \gamma_h \gamma_{st} + 83 \gamma_h \gamma_{st} + \Delta f_{pR} \quad (5.121)$$

in which:

$$\gamma_h = 1.7 - 0.01H \quad (5.122)$$

$$\gamma_{st} = \frac{35}{(7 + f'_{ci})} \quad (5.123)$$

where:

- f_{pi} = prestressing steel stress immediately prior to transfer (MPa)
 H = average of annual ambient relative humidity (%)
 γ_h = correction factor for relative humidity of the ambient air
 γ_{st} = correction factor for specified concrete strength at time of prestress transfer to the concrete member
 Δf_{pR} = an estimate of relaxation loss taken as 17 MPa for low relaxation strand, 70 MPa for stress relieved strand, and in accordance with manufacturers recommendation for other types of strand (MPa)

For members other than those made with composite slabs, stressed after attaining compression strength of 24 MPa, an approximate estimate of time-dependent prestress losses resulting from creep and shrinkage of concrete and relaxation of steel in prestressed and partially prestressed members may be taken as specified in [Table 5.13](#).

For segmental concrete bridges, lump sum losses may be used only for preliminary design purposes.

The partial prestress ratio (PPR) used in Table 5.13 shall be taken as specified in Eq. (5.15).

For members made from structural low-density concrete, the values specified in Table 5.13 shall be increased by 35 MPa.

For low-relaxation strands, the values specified in Table 5.13 may be reduced by:

- 28 MPa for box girders,
- 41 MPa for rectangular beams and solid slabs, and
- 55 MPa for single T' , double T' , hollow core, and voided slabs.

For members of unusual dimensions, level of prestressing, construction staging, or concrete constituent materials, the refined method of Article 5.9.5.4 or computer time-step methods shall be used.

Table 5.13: Time-Dependent Losses in MPa.

Type of Beam Section	Level	For Wires and Strands with $f_{pu} = 1620, 1725$ or 1860 MPa	For Bars with $f_{pu} = 1000$ or 1100 MPa
Rectangular Beams, and Solid Slabs	Upper Bound Average	$200 + 28 PPR$ $180 + 28 PPR$	$130 + 41 PPR$
Box Girder	Upper Bound Average	$145 + 28 PPR$ $130 + 28 PPR$	100
Single T , Double T , Hollow Core and Voids Slab	Upper Bound Average	$270 \left[1.0 - 0.15 \frac{f'_c - 41}{41} \right] + 41 PPR$ $230 \left[1.0 - 0.15 \frac{f'_c - 41}{41} \right] + 41 PPR$	$210 \left[1.0 - 0.15 \frac{f'_c - 41}{41} \right] + 41 PPR$

PPR = partial prestress ratio

5.9.5.4. Refined Estimates of Time-Dependent Losses

1. General

For non-segmental prestressed members, more accurate values of creep, shrinkage, and relaxation related losses, than those specified in Article 5.9.5.3 may be determined in accordance with the provisions of this Article. For precast pretensioned girders without a composite topping and for precast or cast-in-place non-segmental post-tensioned girders, the provisions of Articles 5.9.5.4.4 and 5.9.5.4.5, respectively, shall be considered before applying the provisions of this Article.

For segmental construction and post-tensioned spliced precast girders, other than during preliminary design, prestress losses shall be determined by the time-step method and the provisions of Article 5.9.5, including consideration of the time-dependent construction stages and schedule shown in the contract documents. For components with combined pretensioning and post-tensioning, and where post-tensioning is applied in more than one stage, the effects of subsequent prestressing on the creep loss for previous prestressing shall be considered.

The change in prestressing steel stress due to time-dependent loss, Δf_{pLT} , shall be determined as follows:

$$\Delta f_{pLT} = (\Delta f_{pSR} + \Delta f_{pCR} + \Delta f_{pRI})_{id} + (\Delta f_{pSD} + \Delta f_{pCD} + \Delta f_{pR2} - \Delta f_{pSS})_{df} \quad (5.124)$$

where:

Δf_{pSR}	= prestress loss due to shrinkage of girder concrete between transfer and deck placement (MPa)
Δf_{pCR}	= prestress loss due to creep of girder concrete between transfer and deck placement (MPa)
Δf_{pRI}	= prestress loss due to relaxation of prestressing strands between time of transfer and deck placement (MPa)
Δf_{pR2}	= prestress loss due to relaxation of prestressing strands in composite section between time of deck placement and final time (MPa)
Δf_{pSD}	= prestress loss due to shrinkage of girder concrete between time of deck placement and final time (MPa)
Δf_{pCD}	= prestress loss due to creep of girder concrete between time of deck placement and final time (MPa)
Δf_{pSS}	= prestress gain due to shrinkage of deck in composite section (MPa)
$(\Delta f_{pSR} + \Delta f_{pCR} + \Delta f_{pRI})_{id}$	= sum of time-dependent prestress losses between transfer and deck placement (MPa)
$(\Delta f_{pSD} + \Delta f_{pCD} + \Delta f_{pR2} - \Delta f_{pSS})_{df}$	= sum of time-dependent prestress losses after deck placement (MPa)

For concrete containing low-density aggregates, very hard aggregates, or unusual chemical admixtures, the estimated material properties used in this Article and Article 5.4.2.3 may be inaccurate. Actual test results should be used for their estimation.

For segmental construction, for all considerations other than preliminary design, prestress losses shall be determined as specified in Article 5.9.5, including consideration of the time-dependent construction method and schedule shown in the contract documents.

2. Losses: Time of Transfer to Time of Deck Placement

a. Shrinkage of Girder Concrete

The prestress loss due to shrinkage of girder concrete between time of transfer and deck placement, Δf_{pSR} , shall be determined as:

$$\Delta f_{pSR} = \varepsilon_{bid} E_p K_{id} \quad (5.125)$$

in which:

$$K_{id} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{E_p}{E_{ci}} \frac{A_{ps}}{A_g} \left(1 + \frac{A_g e_{pg}^2}{I_g} \right) [1 + 0.7 \psi_b(t_f, t_i)]} \quad (5.126)$$

where:

- ε_{bid} = concrete shrinkage strain of girder between the time of transfer and deck placement per Eq. (5.6)
- K_{id} = transformed section coefficient that accounts for time-dependent interaction between concrete and bonded steel in the section being considered for time period between transfer and deck placement
- e_{pg} = eccentricity of prestressing force with respect to centroid of girder (mm); positive in common construction where it is below girder centroid
- $\psi_b(t_f, t_i)$ = girder creep coefficient at final time due to loading introduced at transfer per Eq. (5.1)
- t_f = final age (days)
- t_i = age at transfer (days)

b. Creep of Girder Concrete

The prestress loss due to creep of girder concrete between time of transfer and deck placement, Δf_{pCR} , shall be determined as:

$$\Delta f_{pCR} = \frac{E_p}{E_{ci}} f_{cgp} \psi_b(t_d, t_i) K_{id} \quad (5.127)$$

where:

- $\psi_b(t_d, t_i)$ = girder creep coefficient at time of deck placement due to loading introduced at transfer per Eq. (5.1)
- t_d = age at deck placement (days)

c. Relaxation of Prestressing Strands

The prestress loss due to relaxation of prestressing strands between time of transfer and deck placement, Δf_{pRI} , shall be determined as:

$$\Delta f_{pRI} = \frac{f_{pt}}{K_L} \left(\frac{f_{pt}}{f_{py}} - 0.55 \right) \quad (5.128)$$

where:

f_{pt} = stress in prestressing strands immediately after transfer, taken not less than $0.55f_{py}$ in Eq. (5.128)

K_L = 30 for low relaxation strands and 7 for other prestressing steel, unless more accurate manufacturer's data are available

The relaxation loss, Δf_{pRI} , may be assumed equal to 8 MPa for low-relaxation strands.

3. Losses: Time of Deck Placement to Final Time

a. Shrinkage of Girder Concrete

The prestress loss due to shrinkage of girder concrete between time of deck placement and final time, Δf_{pSD} , shall be determined as:

$$\Delta f_{pSD} = \varepsilon_{bdf} E_p K_{df} \quad (5.129)$$

in which:

$$K_{df} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{E_p}{E_{ci}} \frac{A_{ps}}{A_c} \left(1 + \frac{A_c e_{pc}^2}{I_c} \right) [1 + 0.7\psi_b(t_f, t_i)]} \quad (5.130)$$

where:

ε_{bdf} = shrinkage strain of girder between time of deck placement and final time per (Eq. (5.6))

K_{df} = transformed section coefficient that accounts for (time-dependent) interaction between concrete and bonded steel in the section being considered for time period between deck placement and final time

e_{pc} = eccentricity of prestressing force with respect to centroid of composite section (mm), positive in typical construction where prestressing force is below centroid of section

A_c = area of section calculated using the gross composite concrete section properties of the girder and the deck and the deck-to-girder modular ratio (mm^2)

I_c = moment of inertia of section calculated using the gross composite concrete section properties of the girder and the deck and the deck-to-girder modular ratio at service (mm^4)

b. Creep of Girder Concrete

The change in prestress (loss is positive, gain is negative) due to creep of girder concrete between time of deck placement and final time, Δf_{pCD} , shall be determined as:

$$\Delta f_{pCD} = \frac{E_p}{E_{ci}} f_{cgp} [\psi_b(t_f, t_i) - \psi_b(t_d, t_i)] K_{df} + \frac{E_p}{E_{ci}} \Delta f_{cd} \psi_b(t_f, t_d) K_{df} \quad (5.131)$$

where:

- Δf_{cd} = change in concrete stress at centroid of prestressing strands due to long-term losses between transfer and deck placement, combined with deck weight and superimposed loads (MPa)
- $\Psi_b(t_f, t_d)$ = girder creep coefficient at final time due to loading at deck placement per Eq.(5.1)

c. Relaxation of Prestressing Strands

The prestress loss due to relaxation of prestressing strands in composite section between time of deck placement and final time, Δf_{pR2} , shall be determined as:

$$\Delta f_{pR2} = \Delta f_{pR1} \quad (5.132)$$

d. Shrinkage of Deck Concrete

The prestress gain due to shrinkage of deck composite section, Δf_{pSS} , shall be determined as:

$$\Delta f_{pSS} = \frac{E_p}{E_c} \Delta f_{cdf} K_{df} [1 + 0.7 \Psi_b(t_f, t_d)] \quad (5.133)$$

in which:

$$\Delta f_{cdf} = \frac{\epsilon_{ddf} A_d E_{cd}}{[1 + 0.7 \Psi_d(t_f, t_d)]} \left(\frac{1}{A_c} - \frac{e_{pc} e_d}{I_c} \right) \quad (5.134)$$

where:

- Δf_{cdf} = change in concrete stress at centroid of prestressing strands due to shrinkage of deck concrete (MPa)
- ϵ_{ddf} = shrinkage strain of deck concrete between placement and final time per Eq.(5.6)
- A_d = area of deck concrete (mm²)
- E_{cd} = modulus of elasticity of deck concrete (MPa)
- e_d = eccentricity of deck with respect to the gross composite section, positive in typical construction where deck is above girder (mm)
- $\Psi_b(t_f, t_d)$ = creep coefficient of deck concrete at final time due to loading introduced shortly after deck placement (i.e. overlays, barriers, etc.) per Eq.(5.1)

4. Precast Pretensioned Girders without Composite Topping

The equations in Article 5.9.5.4.2 and Article 5.9.5.4.3 are applicable to girders with non-composite deck or topping, or with no topping. The values for time of “deck placement” in Article 5.9.5.4.2 may be taken as values at time of non-composite deck placement or values at time of installation of precast members without topping. Time of “deck placement” in Article 5.9.5.4.3 may be taken as time of non-composite deck

placement or values at time of installation of precast members without topping. Area of “deck” for these applications shall be taken as zero.

5. Post-Tensioned Non-segmental Girders

Long-term prestress losses for post-tensioned members after tendons have been grouted may be calculated using the provisions of Articles 5.9.5.4.1 through 5.9.5.4.4. In Eq. (5.124), the value of the term $(\Delta f_{pSR} + \Delta f_{pCR} + \Delta f_{pRI})_{id}$ shall be taken as zero.

5.9.5.5. Losses for Deflection Calculations

For camber and deflection calculations of prestressed non-segmental members made of normal density concrete with strength in excess of 24 MPa at the time of prestress, f_{cgp} may be computed as the stress at the center of gravity of prestressing steel averaged along the length of the member.

5.10. DETAILS OF REINFORCEMENT

5.10.1. Concrete Cover

Cover for unprotected prestressing and reinforcing steel shall not be less than that specified in Table 5.14 and modified for W/C ratio, unless otherwise specified either herein.

Concrete cover and placing tolerances shall be shown in the contract documents.

Cover for pretensioned prestressing strand, anchorage hardware, and mechanical connections for reinforcing bars or post-tensioned prestressing strands shall be the same as for reinforcing steel.

Cover for metal ducts for post-tensioned tendons shall not be less than:

- That specified for main reinforcing steel,
- One-half the diameter of the duct, or
- That specified in Table 5.14.

For decks exposed to tire studs or chain wear, additional cover shall be used to compensate for the expected loss in depth due to abrasion, as specified in Article 2.6.2.4.

Modification factors for W/C ratio shall be the following:

- For W/C 0.8
≤ 0.40
- For W/C 1.2
≥ 0.50

Minimum cover to main bars, including bars protected by epoxy coating, shall be 25 mm.

Cover to ties and stirrups may be 12 mm less than the values specified in Table 5.14 for main bars but shall not be less than 25 mm.

Table 5.14: Cover for Unprotected Main Reinforcing Steel (mm).

Situation	Cover (mm)
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Direct exposure to salt water	100
Cast against earth	75
Coastal	75
Exposure to deicing salts	60
Deck surfaces subject to tire stud or chain wear	60
Exterior other than above	50
Interior other than above	
• Up to 36 mm Dia. bar	40
• Larger than 36 mm Dia. bar	50
Bottom of cast-in-place slabs	
• Up to 36 mm Dia. bar	25
• Larger than 36 mm Dia. bar	50
Precast soffit form panels	20
Precast reinforced piles	
• Noncorrosive environments	50
• Corrosive environments	75
Precast prestressed piles	50
Cast-in-place piles	
• Noncorrosive environments	50
• Corrosive environments	
- General	75
- Protected	75
• Shells	50
• Auger-cast, tremie concrete, or slurry construction	75

5.10.2. Hooks and Bends

5.10.2.1. Standard Hooks

For the purpose of these Specifications, the term “standard hook” shall mean one of the following:

- For longitudinal reinforcement:
 - 180°-bend, plus a 4.0 d_b extension, but not less than 65 mm at the free end of the bar, or
 - 90 °-bends, plus a 12.0 d_b extension at the free end of the bar.
- For transverse reinforcement:
 - 16 mm Dia. bar and smaller—90°-bend, plus a 6.0 d_b extension at the free end of the bar,
 - 20, 22 and 25 mm Dia. bars—90°-bend, plus a 12.0 d_b extension at the free end of the bar; and
 - 25 mm Dia. bar and smaller—135°-bend, plus a 6.0 d_b extension at the free end of the bar.

where d_b = nominal diameter of reinforcing bar (mm)

5.10.2.2. Minimum Bend Diameters

The diameter of a bar bend, measured on the inside of the bar, shall not be less than that specified in [Table 5.15](#).

Table 5.15: Minimum Bend Diameters.

Type of Reinforcement	Bar Size (mm)	Minimum Diameter
Longitudinal	10 through 25	$6.0 d_b$
	28 through 36	$8.0 d_b$
	40 through 50	$10.0 d_b$
Transverse (Stirrups and Ties)	10 through 16	$4.0 d_b$

The inside diameter of bend for stirrups and ties in plain or deformed welded wire fabric shall not be less than $4.0 d_b$ for deformed wire larger than D6 (38.7 mm^2) and $2.0 d_b$ for all other wire sizes. Bends with inside diameters of less than $8.0 d_b$ shall not be located less than $4.0 d_b$ from the nearest welded intersection.

5.10.2.3. Bending

All reinforcement shall be bent cold, unless otherwise permitted by the engineer.

Reinforcement partially embedded in concrete shall not be field bent, except as shown on the design drawings or permitted by the engineer.

5.10.3. Spacing Limits for Reinforcement

5.10.3.1. Spacing Limits for Non-Prestressing Steel

1. Minimum Spacing

a. Cast-in-Place Concrete

For cast-in-place concrete, the clear distance between parallel bars in a layer shall not be less than:

- 1.5 times the nominal diameter of the bars,
- 1.5 times the maximum size of the coarse aggregate, or
- 40 mm.

b. Precast Concrete

For precast concrete manufactured under plant control conditions, the clear distance between parallel bars in a layer shall not be less than:

- The nominal diameter of the bars,
- 1.33 times the maximum size of the coarse aggregate, or
- 25 mm.

c. Multi-layers

Except in decks where parallel reinforcing is placed in two or more layers, with clear distance between layers not exceeding 150 mm, the bars in the upper layers shall be placed directly above those in the bottom layer, and the clear distance between layers shall not be less than 25 mm or the nominal diameter of the bars.

d. Splices

The clear distance limitations between bars that are specified in Articles [5.10.3.1.1.a](#) and [5.10.3.1.1.b](#) shall also apply to the clear distance between a contact lap splice and adjacent splices or bars.

e. Bundled Bars

The number of parallel reinforcing bars bundled in contact to act as a unit shall not exceed four in any one bundle, except that in flexural members, the number of bars with diameter larger than 36 mm shall not exceed two in any one bundle.

Bundled bars shall be enclosed within stirrups or ties.

Individual bars in a bundle, cut off within the span of a member, shall be terminated at different points with at least a 40-bar diameter stagger. Where spacing limitations are based on bar size, a unit of bundled bars shall be treated as a single bar of a diameter derived from the equivalent total area.

2. Maximum Spacing

Unless otherwise specified, the spacing of the reinforcement in walls and slabs shall not exceed 1.5 times the thickness of the member or 300 mm. The maximum spacing of spirals, ties, and temperature shrinkage reinforcement shall be as specified in Articles [5.10.4](#), [5.10.5](#), and [5.10.6](#).

5.10.3.2. Spacing Limits for Prestressing Steel**1. Minimum Spacing of Tendons and Ducts****a. Pretensioning Strand**

The distance between pretensioning strands, including shielded ones, at each end of a member within the transfer length, as specified in Article [5.16.4.1](#), shall not be less than a clear distance taken as 1.33 times the maximum size of the aggregate nor less than the center-to-center distances specified in [Table 5.16](#).

Table 5.16: Center-to-Center Spacing.

Strand Size (mm)	Spacing (mm)
15.24 14.29 Special 14.29	50
12.70 11.11 12.70 Special	45
9.53	40

If justified by performance tests of full-scale prototypes of the design, the clear distance between strands at the end of a member may be decreased.

The minimum clear distance between groups of bundled strands shall not be less than 1.33 times the maximum size of the aggregate or 25 mm.

Pretensioning strands in a member may be bundled to touch one another in an essentially vertical plane at and between hold-down locations. Strands bundled in any manner, other than a vertical plane, shall be limited to four strands per bundle.

b. Post-Tensioning Ducts Not Curved in the Horizontal Plane

Unless otherwise specified herein, the clear distance between straight post-tensioning ducts shall not be less than 38 mm or 1.33 times the maximum size of the coarse aggregate. For precast segmental construction when post-tensioning tendons extend through an epoxy joint between components, the clear spacing between post-tensioning ducts shall not be less than the greater of the duct internal diameter or 100 mm.

Ducts may be bundled together in groups not exceeding three, provided that the spacing, as specified between individual ducts, is maintained between each duct in the zone within 900 mm of anchorages. In this case, and to ensure the integrity of concrete around the banded ducts, spirals around ducts shall be used.

For groups of bundled ducts in construction other than segmental, the minimum clear horizontal distance between adjacent bundles shall not be less than 100 mm. When groups of ducts are located in two or more horizontal planes, a bundle shall contain no more than two ducts in the same horizontal plane.

The minimum vertical clear distance between bundles shall not be less than 40 mm or 1.33 times the maximum size of coarse aggregate.

For precast construction, the minimum clear horizontal distance between groups of ducts may be reduced to 75 mm.

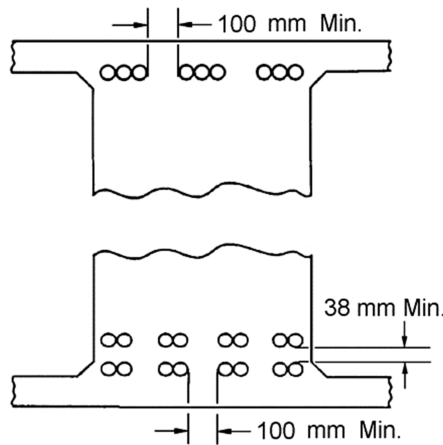


Figure 5.17: Examples of Acceptable Arrangements for Ducts Not Curved in the Horizontal Plane.

c. Curved Post-Tensioning Ducts

The minimum clear distance between curved ducts shall be as required for tendon confinement as specified in Article [5.11.3](#). The spacing for curved ducts shall not be less than that required for straight ducts.

2. Maximum Spacing of Tendons and Ducts in Slabs

Pretensioning strands for precast slabs shall be spaced symmetrically and uniformly and shall not be farther apart than 1.5 times the total composite slab thickness or 450 mm.

Post-tensioning tendons for slabs shall not be farther apart, center-to-center, than 4.0 times the total composite minimum thickness of the slab.

3. Couplers in Post-Tensioning Tendons

The contract documents shall specify that not more than 50 percent of the longitudinal post-tensioning tendons be coupled at one section and that the spacing between adjacent coupler locations be not closer than the segment length or twice the segment depth. The void areas around couplers shall be deducted from the gross section area and moment of inertia when computing stresses at the time post-tensioning force is applied.

5.10.4. Transverse Reinforcement for Compression Members

5.10.4.1. General

The provisions of Article [5.15](#) shall also apply to design and detailing in Seismic Design Categories B, C, and D.

Transverse reinforcement for compression members may consist of either spirals or ties.

5.10.4.2. Spirals

Spiral reinforcement for compression members shall conform to the following:

- Spiral for compression members other than piles shall consist of one or more evenly spaced continuous spirals of either deformed or plain bar or wire and so assembled to permit handling and placing without distortion from designed dimensions.
- For cast-in-place construction, size of spirals shall not be less than 10 mm diameter.
- Reinforcement shall be arranged so that all primary longitudinal reinforcement is contained on the inside of, and in contact with, the spirals.
- Clear spacing between spirals shall not exceed 75 mm, nor be less than either 25 mm or 1.33 times the maximum size of the aggregate.
- Center-to-center spacing shall not exceed 6.0 times the diameter of the longitudinal bars or 150 mm.
- Anchorage of spiral reinforcement shall be provided by 1.5 extra turns of spiral bar or wire at each end of the spiral unit.
- For Seismic Design Categories B, C and D, the extension of transverse reinforcement into connecting members shall meet the requirements of Article [5.15.5.3](#).
- Spiral reinforcement shall be spliced, if needed, by any one of the following methods:
 - Lap splices not less than the larger of 300 mm and the length indicated in one of the following:

1) Deformed uncoated bar or wire	48 d_b
2) Plain uncoated bar or wire	72 d_b
3) Epoxy-coated deformed bar or wire	72 d_b

- Approved mechanical connectors;
- Approved welded splices.
- Except as specified in Article [5.15.4](#) and [5.15.5.1](#) for Seismic Design Categories B, C and D, spiral reinforcement shall extend from the footing or other support to the level of the lowest horizontal reinforcement of the supported members.

5.10.4.3. Ties

Tie reinforcement for compression members shall conform to the following:

All nonprestressed bars shall be enclosed by lateral ties, at least:

- 10 mm Dia. bars for longitudinal bars of 32 mm Dia. or smaller
- 14 mm Dia. bars for longitudinal bars of 36 mm Dia or larger
- 14 mm Dia. bars for bundled longitudinal bars.
- Deformed wire or welded wire fabric of equivalent area may be used instead of bars.
- The spacing of ties along the longitudinal axis of the compression member shall not exceed the least dimension of the compression member or 300 mm.
- Where two or more bars larger than 32 mm Dia. are bundled together, the spacing of ties shall not exceed half the least dimension of the member or 150 mm.
- No longitudinal bar shall be more than 610 mm, measured along the tie, from a restrained bar. A restrained bar is one which has lateral support provided by the corner of a tie having an included angle of not more than 135°.
- Where the column design is based on plastic hinging capability, no longitudinal bar shall be farther than 150 mm clear on each side along the tie from such a laterally supported bar and the tie reinforcement shall meet the requirements of Articles [5.15.5.1.4](#) through [5.15.5.1.6](#). Where the bars are located around the perimeter of a circle, a complete circular tie may be used if the splices in the ties are staggered.
- Ties shall be located vertically not more than half a tie spacing above the footing or other support and not more than half a tie spacing below the lowest horizontal reinforcement in the supported member.

5.10.5. Transverse Reinforcement for Flexural Members

Compression reinforcement in flexural members, except deck slabs, shall be enclosed by ties or stirrups satisfying the size and spacing requirements of Article [5.10.4](#) or by welded wire fabric of equivalent area.

5.10.6. Shrinkage and Temperature Reinforcement

Reinforcement for shrinkage and temperature stresses shall be provided near surfaces of concrete exposed to daily temperature changes and in structural mass concrete.

Temperature and shrinkage reinforcement to ensure that the total reinforcement on exposed surfaces is not less than that specified herein.

Reinforcement for shrinkage and temperature may be in the form of bars, welded wire fabric, or prestressing tendons.

For bars or welded wire fabric, the area of reinforcement per m, on each face and in each direction, shall satisfy:

$$A_s \geq \frac{750 A_g}{P_h f_y} \quad (5.135)$$

$$233 \leq A_s \leq 1270 \quad (5.136)$$

where:

- A_s = area of reinforcement in each direction and each face (mm^2/m)
- A_g = gross section area (mm^2)
- P_h = perimeter of section (mm)
- f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcing bars ≤ 500 MPa

Where the least dimension varies along the length of wall, footing, or other component, multiple sections should be examined to represent the average condition at each section. Spacing shall not exceed:

- 3.0 times the component thickness, or 450 mm
- 300 mm for walls and footings greater than 450 mm thick
- 300 mm for other components greater than 900 mm thick

For components 150 mm or less in thickness the minimum steel specified may be placed in a single layer. Shrinkage and temperature steel shall not be required for:

- End face of walls 450 mm or less in thickness
- Side faces of buried footings 900 mm or less in thickness
- Faces of all other components, with smaller dimension less than or equal to 450 mm

If prestressing tendons are used as steel for shrinkage and temperature reinforcement, the tendons shall provide a minimum average compressive stress of 0.75 MPa on the gross concrete area through which a crack plane may extend, based on the effective prestress after losses. Spacing of tendons should not exceed either 1800 mm or the distance specified in Article [5.10.3.2.2](#). Where the spacing is greater than 1400 mm, bonded reinforcement shall be provided between tendons, for a distance equal to the tendon spacing.

5.10.7. Reinforcement for Hollow Rectangular Compression Members

5.10.7.1. General

The area of longitudinal reinforcement in the cross-section shall not be less than 0.01 times the gross area of concrete.

Two layers of reinforcement shall be provided in each wall of the cross-section, one layer near each face of the wall. The areas of reinforcement in the two layers shall be approximately equal.

5.10.7.2. Spacing of Reinforcement

The center-to-center lateral spacing of longitudinal reinforcing bars shall be no greater than the lesser of 1.5 times the wall thickness or 450 mm.

The center-to-center longitudinal spacing of lateral reinforcing bars shall be no greater than the lesser of 1.25 times the wall thickness or 300 mm.

5.10.7.3. Ties

Cross-ties shall be provided between layers of reinforcement in each wall. The cross-ties shall include a standard 135° hook at one end and a standard 90° hook at the other end. Cross-ties shall be located at bar grid intersections, and the hooks of all ties shall enclose both lateral and longitudinal bars at the intersections. Each longitudinal reinforcing bar and each lateral reinforcing bar shall be enclosed by the hook of a cross-tie at a spacing no greater than 600 mm.

For segmentally constructed members, additional cross-ties shall be provided along the top and bottom edges of each segment. The cross-tie shall be placed so as to link the ends of each pair of internal and external longitudinal reinforcing bars in the walls of the cross-section.

5.10.7.4. Splices

Lateral reinforcing bars may be joined at the corners of the cross-section by overlapping 90° bends. Straight lap splices of lateral reinforcing bars shall not be permitted unless the overlapping bars are enclosed over the length of the splice by the hooks of at least four cross-ties located at intersections of the lateral bars and longitudinal bars.

5.10.7.5. Hoops

Where details permit, the longitudinal reinforcing bars in the corners of the cross-section shall be enclosed by closed hoops. If closed hoops cannot be provided, pairs of U-shaped bars with legs at least twice as long as the wall thickness and oriented 90° to one another may be used.

Post-tensioning ducts located in the corners of the cross-section shall be anchored into the corner regions with closed hoops or stirrups having a 90° bend at each end to enclose at least one longitudinal bar near the outer face of the cross-section.

5.11. TENDON CONFINEMENT**5.11.1. General**

Tendons shall be located within the reinforcing steel stirrups in webs, and, where applicable, between layers of transverse reinforcing steel in flanges and slabs. For ducts in the bottom flanges of variable depth segments, nominal confinement reinforcing shall be provided around the duct at each segment face. The reinforcement shall not be less than two rows of 14 mm. Dia. hairpin bars at both sides of each duct with vertical dimension equal to the slab thickness, less top and bottom cover dimensions.

The effects of grouting pressure in the ducts shall be considered.

5.11.2. Wobble Effect in Slabs

For the purpose of this Article, ducts spaced closer than 300 mm center-to-center in either direction shall be considered as closely spaced.

Where closely spaced transverse or longitudinal ducts are located in the flanges, and no provisions to minimize wobble of ducts are included in the contract documents, the top and bottom reinforcement mats should be tied together with 14 mm Dia. hairpin bars. The spacing between the hairpin bars shall not exceed 450 mm or 1.5 times the slab thickness in each direction.

5.11.3. Effects of Curved Tendons

Reinforcement shall be used to confine curved tendons. The reinforcement shall be proportioned to ensure that the steel stress at service limit state does not exceed $0.6 f_y$, and the assumed value of f_y shall not exceed 420 MPa. Spacing of the confinement reinforcement shall not exceed either 3.0 times the outside diameter of the duct or 600 mm.

Where tendons are located in curved webs or flanges or are curved around and close to re-entrant corners or internal voids, additional concrete cover and/or confinement reinforcement shall be provided. The distance between a re-entrant corner or void and the near edge of the duct shall not be less than 1.5 duct diameters.

When a tendon curves in two planes, the in-plane and out-of-plane forces shall be added together vectorially.

5.11.3.1. In-Plane Force Effects

In-plane deviation force effects due to the change in direction of tendons shall be taken as:

$$F_{u-in} = \frac{P_u}{R} \quad (5.137)$$

where:

- F_{u-in} = the in-plane deviation force effect per unit length of tendon (N/mm)
- P_u = the tendon force factored as specified in Article 3.4.2.1 (N)
- R = the radius of curvature of the tendon at the considered location (mm)

The maximum deviation force shall be determined on the basis that all the tendons, including provisional tendons, are stressed.

The shear resistance of the concrete cover against pull-out by deviation forces, V_r , shall be taken as:

$$V_r = \phi V_n \quad (5.138)$$

in which:

$$V_n = 0.33 d_c \sqrt{f'_{ci}} \quad (5.139)$$

where:

- V_n = nominal shear resistance of two shear planes per unit length (N/mm)
- ϕ = resistance factor for shear specified in Article 5.5.4.2
- d_c = minimum concrete cover over the tendon duct, plus one-half of the duct diameter (mm)
- f'_{ci} = specified compressive strength of concrete at time of initial loading or prestressing (MPa)

If the factored in-plane deviation force exceeds the factored shear resistance of the concrete cover, as specified in Eq.(5.138), fully anchored tie-backs to resist the in-plane deviation forces shall be provided in the form of either non-prestressed or prestressed reinforcement.

Where stacked ducts are used in curved girders, the moment resistance of the concrete cover, acting in flexure, shall be investigated.

For curved girders, the global flexural effects of out-of-plane forces shall be investigated.

Where curved ducts for tendons other than those crossing at approximately 90° are located so that the direction of the radial force from one tendon is toward another, confinement of the ducts shall be provided by:

- Spacing the ducts to ensure adequate nominal shear resistance, as specified in Eq.(5.138);
- Providing confinement reinforcement to resist the radial force; or
- Specifying that each inner duct be grouted before the adjacent outer duct is stressed.

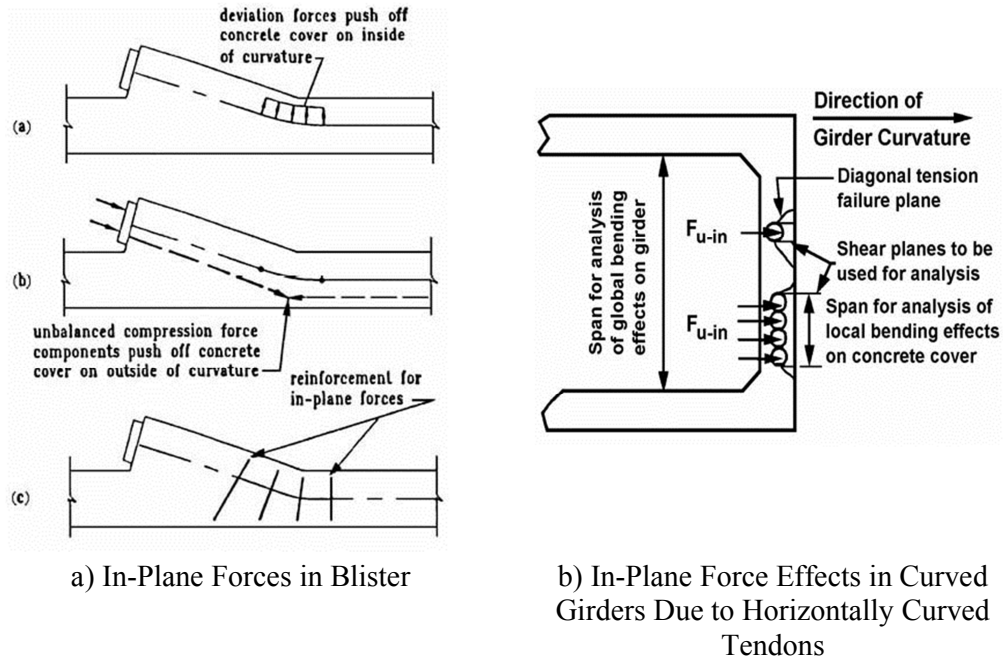


Figure 5.18: In-Plane Forces in Curved Tendons.

5.11.3.2. Out-of-Plane Force Effects

Out-of-plane force effects due to the wedging action of strands against the duct wall may be estimated as:

$$F_{u-out} = \frac{P_u}{\pi R} \quad (5.140)$$

where:

F_{u-out} = out-of-plane force effect per unit length of tendon (N/mm)

P_u = tendon force, factored as specified in Article 3.4.2.1 (N)

R = radius of curvature of the tendon in a vertical plane at the considered location (mm)

If the factored shear resistance given by Eq. (5.138) is not adequate, local confining reinforcement shall be provided throughout the curved tendon segments to resist all of the out-of-plane forces, preferably in the form of spiral reinforcement.

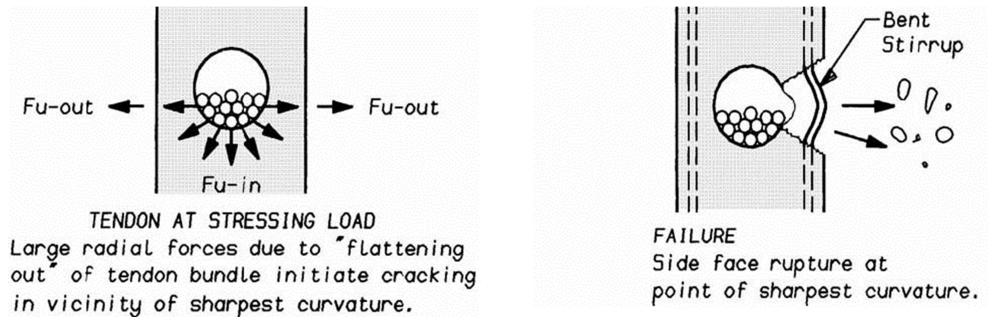


Figure 5.19: Effects of Out-of-Plane Forces.

5.12. EXTERNAL TENDON SUPPORTS

Unless a vibration analysis indicates otherwise, the unsupported length of external tendons shall not exceed 7.5 m.

5.13. POST-TENSIONED ANCHORAGE ZONES

5.13.1. General

Anchorage zones shall be designed at the strength limit states for the factored jacking forces as specified in Article 3.4.2.1.

For anchorage zones at the end of a component or segment, the transverse dimensions may be taken as the depth and width of the section but not larger than the longitudinal dimension of the component or segment. The longitudinal extent of the anchorage zone in the direction of the tendon shall not be less than the greater of the transverse dimensions of the anchorage zone and shall not be taken as more than one and one-half times that dimension.

For intermediate anchorages, the anchorage zone shall be considered to extend in the direction opposite to the anchorage force for a distance not less than the larger of the transverse dimensions of the anchorage zone.

5.13.2. General Zone and Local Zone

5.13.2.1. General

For design purposes, the anchorage zone shall be considered as composed of two regions:

- The general zone, for which the provisions of Article 5.13.2.2 apply, and

- The local zone, for which the provisions of Article 5.13.2.3 apply.

5.13.2.2. General Zone

The extent of the general zone shall be taken as identical to that of the overall anchorage zone including the local zone, defined in Article 5.13.1.

Design of general zones shall comply with the requirements of Article 5.13.3.

5.13.2.3. Local Zone

The local zone is the rectangular prism (or equivalent rectangular prism for circular or oval anchorages) of concrete immediately surrounding the anchorage device and any confining reinforcement.

The design of local zones shall either comply with the requirements of Article 5.13.5 or be based on the results of acceptance tests as specified in Article 5.13.5.3 and described in Article 12.4.1.2.3 “Special Anchorage Device Acceptance Test” of MA-100-C-V1/1.

For design of the local zone, the effects of high bearing pressure and the application of confining reinforcement shall be considered.

Anchorage devices based on the acceptance test of MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 12.4.1.2.3 “Special Anchorage Device Acceptance Test”, shall be referred to as special anchorage devices.

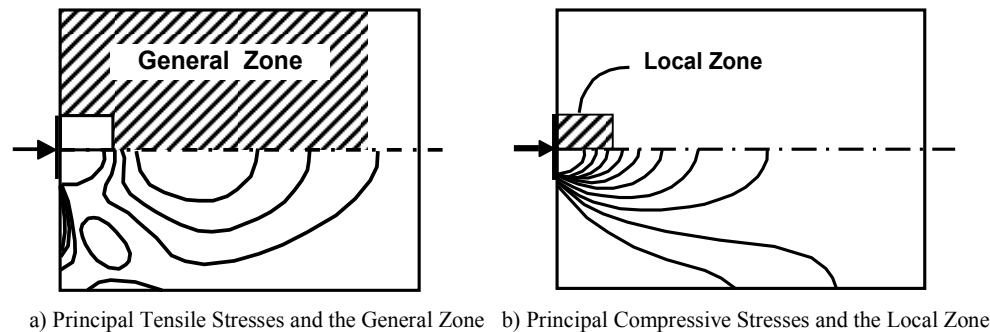


Figure 5.20: General Zone and Local Zone

5.13.2.4. Responsibilities

The Engineer of Record shall be responsible for the overall design and approval of working drawings for the general zone, including the location of the tendons and anchorage devices, general zone reinforcement, the stressing sequence, and the design of the local zone for anchorage devices based on the provisions of Article 5.13.5. The contract documents shall specify that all working drawings for the local zone must be approved by the Engineer of Record.

The anchorage device Supplier shall be responsible for furnishing anchorage devices that satisfy the anchor efficiency requirements of MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 12.4.1.2 “Post-Tensioning Anchorage and Couplers”. If special anchorage devices are used, the anchorage device Supplier shall be responsible for furnishing anchorage devices that also satisfy the acceptance test requirements of Article 5.13.5.3 and of MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 12.4.1.2.3 “Special Anchorage Device Acceptance Test”. This acceptance test and the anchor efficiency test shall be conducted by an independent

testing agency acceptable to the Engineer of Record. The anchorage device supplier shall provide records of the acceptance test in conformance with MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 12.4.1.2.3.1 “Records of the Anchorage Device”, to the Engineer of Record and to the Constructor and shall specify auxiliary and confining reinforcement, minimum edge distance, minimum anchor spacing, and minimum concrete strength at time of stressing required for proper performance of the local zone.

The responsibilities of the Constructor shall be as specified in the MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 12.5.3.2 “Placement of Ducts”.

5.13.3. Design of the General Zone

5.13.3.1. Design Methods

For the design of general zones, the following design methods, conforming to the requirements of Article 5.13.2.3, may be used:

- 1) Equilibrium based plasticity models (strut-and-tie models);
- 2) Linear stress analysis (including finite element analysis or equivalent) as specified in Section 4.
- 3) Simplified equations where applicable.

The effects of stressing sequence and three-dimensional effects due to concentrated jacking loads shall be investigated. Three-dimensional effects may be analyzed using three-dimensional analysis procedures or may be approximated by considering separate sub-models for two or more planes, in which case the interaction of the sub-models should be considered, and the model loads and results should be consistent.

The factored concrete compressive stress for the general zone shall not exceed $0.7\phi f'_{ci}$. In areas where the concrete may be extensively cracked at ultimate due to other force effects, or if large inelastic rotations are expected, the factored compressive stress shall be limited to $0.6\phi f'_{ci}$.

The tensile strength of the concrete shall be neglected in the design of the general zone.

The nominal tensile stress of bonded reinforcement shall be limited to f_y for both non-prestressed reinforcement and bonded prestressed reinforcement. The nominal tensile stress of unbonded prestressed reinforcement shall be limited to $f_{pe} + 105$ MPa.

The contribution of any local zone reinforcement to the strength of the general zone may be conservatively neglected in the design.

5.13.3.2. Design Principles

Compressive stresses in the concrete ahead of basic anchorage devices shall satisfy the requirements of Article 5.13.5.2.

The compressive stresses in the concrete ahead of the anchorage device shall be investigated at a distance, measured from the concrete bearing surface, not less than:

- The depth to the end of the local confinement reinforcement, or
- The smaller lateral dimension of the anchorage device.

These compressive stresses may be determined using the equilibrium based plasticity models, an elastic stress analysis according to Article 5.13.4 or the approximate method outlined in Article 5.13.5.2.

The magnitude of the bursting force, T_{burst} , and its corresponding distance from the loaded surface, d_{burst} , may be determined using the strut-and-tie model procedures of Article 5.13.3.4.2, an elastic stress analysis according to Article 5.13.4, or the approximate method outlined in Article 5.13.5.3. Three-dimensional effects shall be considered for the determination of the bursting reinforcement requirements.

Compressive stresses shall also be checked where geometry or loading discontinuities within or ahead of the anchorage zone may cause stress concentrations.

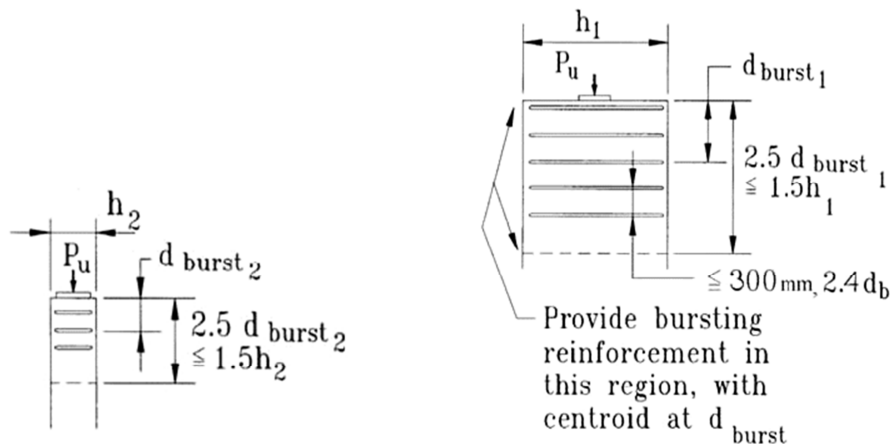


Figure 5.21: Arrangement for Bursting Reinforcement.

Resistance to bursting forces shall be provided by non-prestressed or prestressed reinforcement or in the form of spirals, closed hoops, or anchored transverse ties. This reinforcement shall resist the total bursting force. The following guidelines for the arrangement and anchorage of bursting reinforcement should apply:

- Reinforcement is extended over the full-width of the member and anchored as close to the outer faces of the member as cover permits;
- Reinforcement is distributed ahead of the loaded surface along both sides of the tendon throughout a distance taken as the lesser of $2.5 d_{burst}$ for the plane considered and 1.5 times the corresponding lateral dimension of the section, where d_{burst} is specified by Eq. (5.148);
- The centroid of the bursting reinforcement coincides with the distance d_{burst} used for the design; and
- Spacing of reinforcement is not greater than either 24.0 bar diameters or 300 mm.

The edge tension forces may be determined using the strut-and-tie models, elastic analysis according to Article 5.13.4, or approximate methods of Article 5.13.5.4.

For multiple anchorages with a center-to-center spacing of less than 0.4 times the depth of the section, the spalling force shall not be taken to be less than 2 percent of the

total factored tendon force. For larger spacings, the spalling forces shall be determined by analysis.

Resistance to edge tension forces shall be provided by reinforcement located close to the longitudinal and transverse edge of the concrete. Arrangement and anchorage of the edge tension reinforcement shall satisfy the following:

- Specified spalling reinforcement is extended over the full-width of the member,
- Spalling reinforcement between multiple anchorage devices effectively ties the anchorage devices together, and
- Longitudinal edge tension reinforcement and spalling reinforcement for eccentric anchorage devices are continuous; the reinforcement extends along the tension face over the full length of the anchorage zone and along the loaded face from the longitudinal edge to the other side of the eccentric anchorage device or group of anchorage devices.

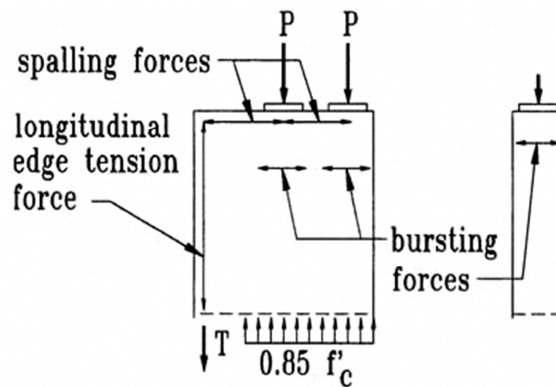


Figure 5.22: Edge Tension Forces

5.13.3.3. Special Anchorage Devices

Where special anchorage devices that do not satisfy the requirements of Article 5.13.6.2 are to be used, reinforcement similar in configuration and at least equivalent in volumetric ratio to the supplementary skin reinforcement permitted under the provisions of the MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 12.4.1.2.3.d “Skin Reinforcement”, shall be furnished in the corresponding regions of the anchorage zone.

5.13.3.4. Intermediate Anchorages

1. General

Intermediate anchorages shall not be used in regions where significant tension is generated behind the anchor from other loads. Whenever practical, blisters should be located in the corner between flange and webs or shall be extended over the full flange width or web height to form a continuous rib. If isolated blisters must be used on a flange or web, local shear bending, and direct force effects shall be considered in the design.

2. Tie-backs

Unless otherwise specified herein, bonded reinforcement shall be provided to tie-back at least 25 percent of the intermediate anchorage unfactored stressing force into the concrete section behind the anchor. Stresses in this bonded reinforcement shall not exceed a maximum of $0.6 f_y$ or 240 MPa. If permanent compressive stresses are generated behind the anchor from other loads, the amount of tie-back reinforcement may be reduced using Eq. (5.141).

$$T_{ia} = 0.25P_s - f_{cb}A_{cb} \quad (5.141)$$

where:

- T_{ia} = the tie-back tension force at the intermediate anchorage (N)
- P_s = the maximum un-factored anchorage stressing force (N)
- f_{cb} = the unfactored dead load compressive stress in the region behind the anchor (MPa)
- A_{cb} = the area of the continuing cross-section within the extensions of the sides of the anchor plate or blister, i.e., the area of the blister or rib shall not be taken as part of the cross-section (mm²)

Tie-back reinforcement shall be placed no further than one plate width from the tendon axis. It shall be fully anchored so that the yield strength can be developed at a distance of one plate width or half the length of the blister or rib ahead of the anchor as well as at the same distance behind the anchor. The centroid of this reinforcement shall coincide with the tendon axis, where possible. For blisters and ribs, the reinforcement shall be placed in the continuing section near that face of the flange or web from which the blister or rib is projecting.

3. Blister and Rib Reinforcement

Reinforcement shall be provided throughout blisters or ribs as required for shear friction, corbel action, bursting forces, and deviation forces due to tendon curvature. This reinforcement shall extend as far as possible into the flange or web and be developed by standard hooks bent around transverse bars or equivalent. Spacing shall not exceed the smallest of blister or rib height at anchor, blister width, or 150 mm.

Reinforcement shall be provided to resist local bending in blisters and ribs due to eccentricity of the tendon force and to resist lateral bending in ribs due to tendon deviation forces.

Reinforcement, as specified in Article 5.13.3.2, shall be provided to resist tensile forces due to transfer of the anchorage force from the blister or rib into the overall structure.

5.13.3.5. Diaphragms

For tendons anchored in diaphragms, concrete compressive stresses shall be limited within the diaphragm as specified in Article 5.13.3.2. Compressive stresses shall also be investigated at the transition from the diaphragm to webs and flanges of the member.

Reinforcement shall be provided to ensure full transfer of diaphragm anchor loads into the flanges and webs of the girder. Requirements for shear friction reinforcement

between the diaphragm and web and between the diaphragm and flanges shall be checked.

Reinforcement shall also be provided to tie-back deviation forces due to tendon curvature. The more general methods of Article 5.13.4 are used to determine this reinforcement.

5.13.3.6. Multiple Slab Anchorages

Unless a more detailed analysis is made, the minimum reinforcement specified herein to resist bursting force and edge tension force shall be provided.

Reinforcement shall be provided to resist the bursting force. This reinforcement shall be anchored close to the faces of the slab with standard hooks bent around horizontal bars or equivalent. Minimum reinforcement should be two 10 mm Dia. bars per anchor located at a distance equal to one-half the slab thickness ahead of the anchor.

Reinforcement to resist bursting force is provided in the direction of the thickness of the slab and normal to the tendon axis in accordance with Article 5.13.3.2.

Reinforcement shall be provided to resist edge tension forces, T_1 , between anchorages and bursting forces, T_2 , ahead of the anchorages. Edge tension reinforcement shall be placed immediately ahead of the anchors and shall effectively tie adjacent anchors together. Bursting reinforcement shall be distributed over the length of the anchorage zones.

$$T_1 = 0.10 P_u \left(1 - \frac{a}{s} \right) \quad (5.142)$$

$$T_2 = 0.20 P_u \left(1 - \frac{a}{s} \right) \quad (5.143)$$

where:

- T_1 = the edge tension force (N)
- T_2 = the bursting force (N)
- P_u = the factored tendon load on an individual anchor (N)
- a = the anchor plate width (mm)
- s = the anchorage spacing (mm)

For slab anchors with an edge distance of less than two plate widths or one slab thickness, the edge tension reinforcement shall be proportioned to resist 25 percent of the factored tendon load. This reinforcement should be in the form of hairpins and shall be distributed within one plate width ahead of the anchor. The legs of the hairpin bars shall extend from the edge of the slab past the adjacent anchor but not less than a distance equal to five plate widths plus development length.

5.13.3.7. Deviation Saddles

Deviation saddles shall be designed using the strut-and-tie model or using methods based on test results.

5.13.4. Elastic Stress Analysis

Analyses based on elastic material properties, equilibrium of forces and loads, and compatibility of strains may be used for the analysis and design of anchorage zones. If the compressive stresses in the concrete ahead of the anchorage device are determined from an elastic analysis, local stresses may be averaged over an area equal to the bearing area of the anchorage device.

5.13.5. Approximate Stress Analyses and Design

5.13.5.1. Limitations of Application

Concrete compressive stresses ahead of the anchorage device, location and magnitude of the bursting force, and edge tension forces may be estimated using Eqs. (5.144) through Eq. (5.148) provided that:

- The member has a rectangular cross-section and its longitudinal extent is not less than the larger transverse dimension of the cross-section;
- The member has no discontinuities within or ahead of the anchorage zone;
- The minimum edge distance of the anchorage in the main plane of the member is not less than 1.5 times the corresponding lateral dimension, a , of the anchorage device;

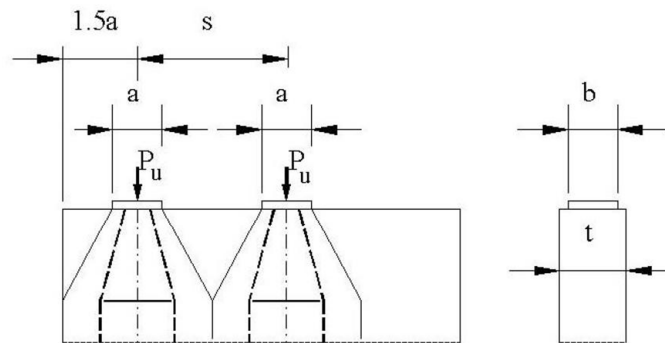


Figure 5.23: Edge Distance and Notation

- Only one anchorage device or one group of closely spaced anchorage devices is located in the anchorage zone; and
- The angle of inclination of the tendon, as specified in Eqs. (5.147) and Eq. (5.148), is between -5.0° and $+20.0^\circ$.

The equations specified herein are based on the analysis of members with rectangular cross-sections and on an anchorage zone at least as long as the largest dimension of that cross-section. For cross-sections that deviate significantly from a rectangular shape, for example I-girders with wide flanges, the approximate equations should not be used.

Discontinuities, such as web openings, disturb the flow of forces and may cause higher compressive stresses, bursting forces, or edge tension forces in the anchorage zone. Figure 5.24 compares the bursting forces for a member with a continuous rectangular cross-section and for a member with a non-continuous rectangular cross-

section. The approximate equations may be applied to standard I-girders with end blocks if the longitudinal extension of the end block is at least one girder height and if the transition from the end block to the I-section is gradual.

Anchorage devices may be treated as closely spaced if their center-to-center spacing does not exceed 1.5 times the width of the anchorage devices in the direction considered.

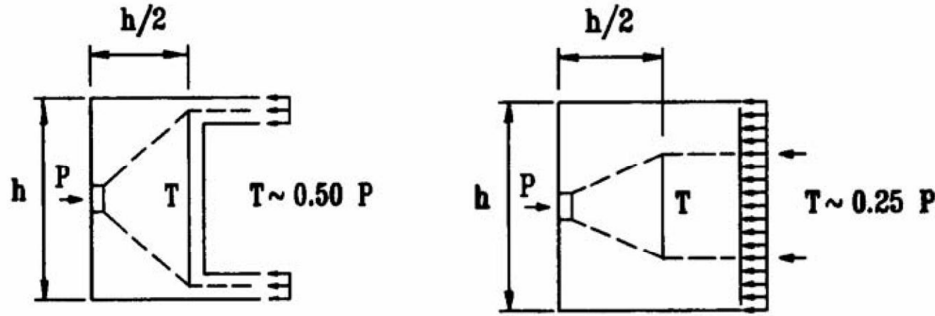


Figure 5.24: Effect of Discontinuity in Anchorage Zone

5.13.5.2. Compressive Stresses

The concrete compressive stress ahead of the anchorage devices, f_{ca} , calculated using Eq. (5.144)^(*), shall not exceed the limit specified in Article 5.13.3.1.

$$f_{ca} = \frac{0.6P_u \kappa}{A_b \left(1 + \ell_c \left(\frac{1}{b_{eff}} - \frac{1}{t} \right) \right)} \quad (5.144)$$

in which:

if $a \leq s \leq 2 a_{eff}$, then:

$$\kappa = 1 + \left(2 - \frac{s}{a_{eff}} \right) \left(0.3 + \frac{n}{15} \right) \quad (5.145)$$

if $s \geq 2 a_{eff}$, then:

$$\kappa = 1 \quad (5.146)$$

where:

- κ = correction factor for closely spaced anchorages
- a_{eff} = lateral dimension of the effective bearing area measured parallel to the larger dimension of the cross-section (mm). For multiple anchorages spaced closer than $2a_{eff}$, a correction factor, κ , is necessary. This factor is based on an assumed stress distribution at a distance of one anchor plate width ahead of the anchorage device.
- b_{eff} = lateral dimension of the effective bearing area measured parallel to the smaller dimension of the cross-section (mm)
- P_u = factored tendon force (N)

^(*)This check of concrete compressive stresses is not required for basic anchorage devices satisfying Article 5.13.2.

- t = member thickness (mm)
 s = center-to-center spacing of anchorages (mm)
 n = number of anchorages in a row
 ℓ_c = longitudinal extent of confining reinforcement of the local zone but not more than the larger of $1.15 a_{eff}$ or $1.15 b_{eff}$ (mm)
 A_b = effective bearing area (mm²)

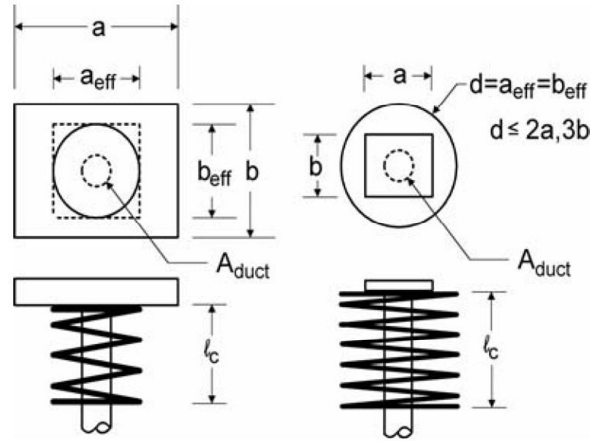


Figure 5.25: Effective Bearing Area.

The effective bearing area, A_b , in Eq.(5.144) shall be taken as the larger of the anchor bearing plate area, A_{plate} , or the bearing area of the confined concrete in the local zone, A_{conf} , with the following limitations:

- If A_{plate} controls, A_{plate} shall not be taken larger than $4/\pi A_{conf}$.
- If A_{conf} controls, the maximum dimension of A_{conf} shall not be more than twice the maximum dimension of A_{plate} or three times the minimum dimension of A_{plate} . If any of these limits is violated, the effective bearing area, A_b , shall be based on A_{plate} .
- Deductions shall be made for the area of the duct in the determination of A_b .

If a group of anchorages is closely spaced in two directions, the product of the correction factors, κ , for each direction shall be used, as specified in Eq.(5.144).

5.13.5.3. Bursting Forces

The bursting forces in anchorage zones, T_{burst} , may be taken as:

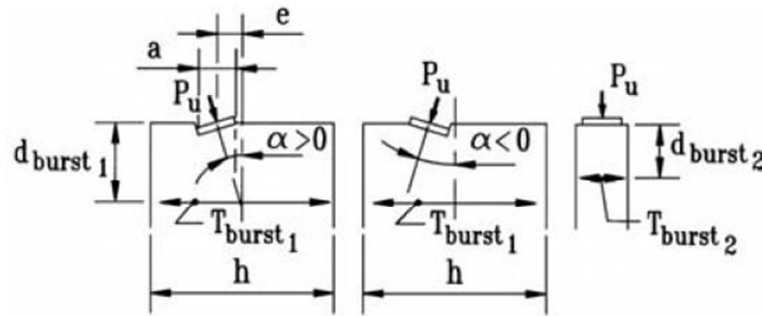
$$T_{burst} = 0.25 \sum P_u \left(1 - \frac{a}{h} \right) + 0.5 \left| \sum (P_u \sin \alpha) \right| \quad (5.147)$$

The location of the bursting force, d_{burst} , may be taken as:

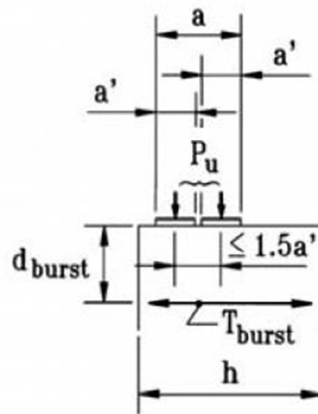
$$d_{burst} = 0.5 (h - 2e) + 5e \sin \alpha \quad (5.148)$$

where:

- T_{burst} = tensile force in the anchorage zone acting ahead of the anchorage device and transverse to the tendon axis (N)
 P_u = factored tendon force (N)
 d_{burst} = distance from anchorage device to the centroid of the bursting force, T_{burst} (mm)
 a = lateral dimension of the anchorage device or group of devices in the direction considered (mm)
 e = eccentricity of the anchorage device or group of devices with respect to the centroid of the cross-section; always taken as positive (mm)
 h = lateral dimension of the cross-section in the direction considered (mm)
 α = angle of inclination of a tendon force with respect to the centerline of the member; positive for concentric tendons or if the anchor force points toward the centroid of the section; negative if the anchor force points away from the centroid of the section.



a) Inclined Tendons



b) Closely Spaced Anchorage Devices

Figure 5.26: Notation for Eqs. (5.147) and (5.148)

5.13.5.4. Edge Tension Forces

The longitudinal edge tension force may be determined from an analysis of a section located at one-half the depth of the section away from the loaded surface taken as a beam subjected to combined flexure and axial load. The spalling force may be taken as equal to the longitudinal edge tension force but not less than that specified in Article [5.13.3.2](#).

If the centroid of all tendons is located outside of the kern of the section, both spalling forces and longitudinal edge tension forces are induced. The determination of the edge tension forces for eccentric anchorages is illustrated in [Figure 5.27](#). Either type of axial-flexural beam analysis is acceptable. As in the case for multiple anchorages, this reinforcement is essential for equilibrium of the anchorage zone. It is important to consider stressing sequences that may cause temporary eccentric loadings of the anchorage zone.

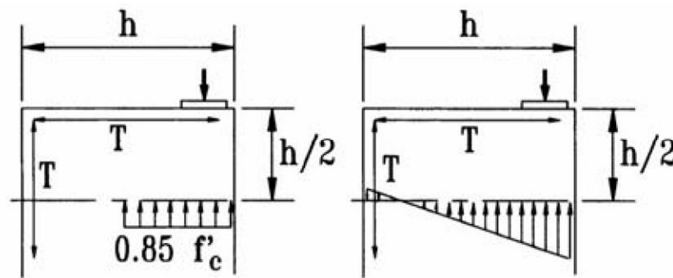


Figure 5.27: Determination of Edge Tension Forces for Eccentric Anchorages.

5.13.6. Design of Local Zones

5.13.6.1. Dimensions of Local Zone

Where either:

- The manufacturer has not provided edge distance recommendations, or
- Edge distances have been recommended by the manufacturer, but they have not been independently verified.

The transverse dimensions of the local zone in each direction shall be taken as the greater of:

- The corresponding bearing plate size, plus twice the minimum concrete cover required for the particular application and environment, and
- The outer dimension of any required confining reinforcement, plus the required concrete cover over the confining reinforcing steel for the particular application and environment.

The cover required for corrosion protection shall be as specified in Article [5.10.1](#).

Where the manufacturer has recommendations for minimum cover, spacing, and edge distances for a particular anchorage device, and where these dimensions have been independently verified, the transverse dimensions of the local zone in each direction shall be taken as the lesser of:

- Twice the edge distance specified by the anchorage device supplier, and

- The center-to-center spacing of anchorages specified by the anchorage device supplier.

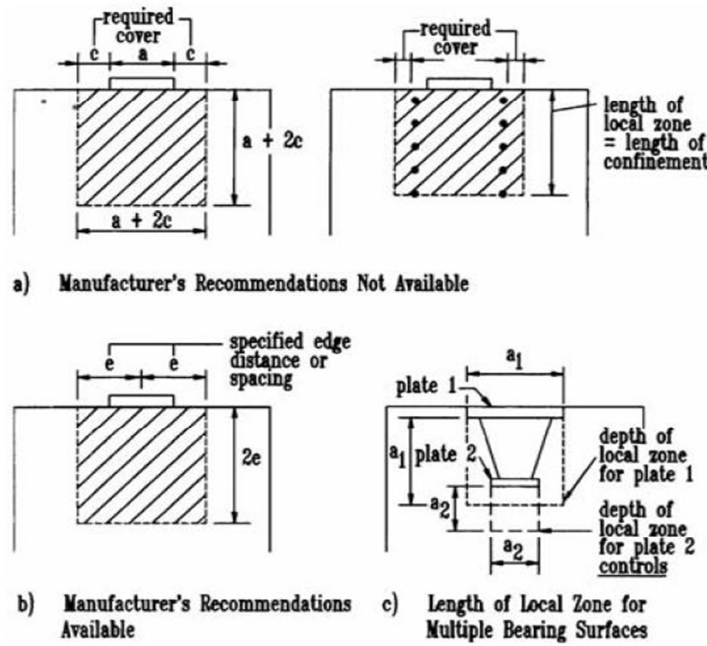


Figure 5.28: Geometry of local zone

Recommendations for spacing and edge distance of anchorages provided by the manufacturer shall be taken as minimum values.

The length of the local zone along the tendon axis shall not be taken to be less than:

- The maximum width of the local zone;
- The length of the anchorage device confining reinforcement; or
- For anchorage devices with multiple bearing surfaces, the distance from the loaded concrete surface to the bottom of each bearing surface, plus the maximum dimension of that bearing surface.

The length of the local zone shall not be taken as greater than 1.5 times the width of the local zone.

5.13.6.2. Bearing Resistance

Normal anchorage devices shall comply with the requirements specified herein. Special anchorage devices shall comply with the requirements specified in Article [5.13.6.3](#).

When general zone reinforcement satisfying Article [5.13.3.2](#) is provided, and the extent of the concrete along the tendon axis ahead of the anchorage device is at least twice the length of the local zone as defined in Article [5.13.6.1](#), the factored bearing resistance of anchorages shall be taken as:

$$P_r = \phi f_n A_b \quad (5.149)$$

in which:

$$f_n = \min \begin{cases} 0.7f'_{ci} \sqrt{\frac{A}{A_g}} \\ 2.25f'_{ci} \end{cases} \quad (5.150)$$

where:

- ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article [5.5.4.2](#)
- A = maximum area of the portion of the supporting surface that is similar to the loaded area and concentric with it and does not overlap similar areas for adjacent anchorage devices (mm^2)
- A_g = gross area of the bearing plate calculated in accordance with the requirements herein (mm^2)
- A_b = effective net area of the bearing plate calculated as the area A_g , minus the area of openings in the bearing plate (mm^2)
- f'_{ci} = nominal concrete strength at time of application of tendon force (MPa)

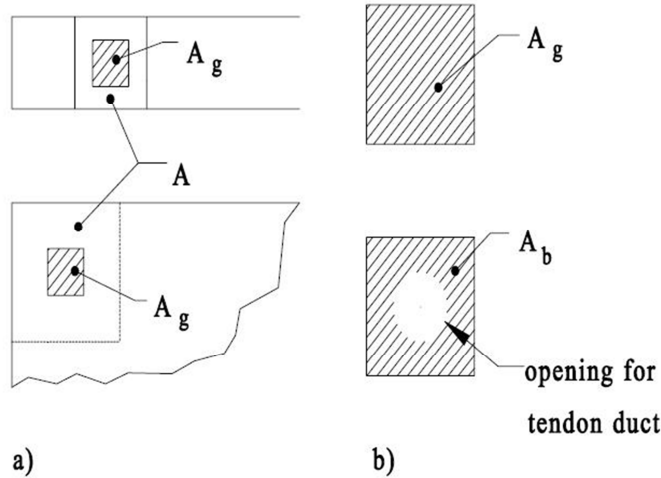


Figure 5.29: Area of Supporting Concrete Surface

The full bearing plate area may be used for A_g and the calculation of A_b , if the plate material does not yield at the factored tendon force and the slenderness of the bearing plate, n/t , shall satisfy:

$$\frac{n}{t} \leq 0.08 \left(\frac{E_b}{f_b} \right)^{0.33} \quad (5.151)$$

where:

- t = average thickness of the bearing plate (mm)
- E_b = modulus of elasticity of the bearing plate material (MPa)
- f_b = stress in anchor plate at a section taken at the edge of the wedge hole or holes (MPa)

n = projection of base plate beyond the wedge hole or wedge plate, as appropriate (mm)

For anchorages with separate wedge plates, n may be taken as the largest distance from the outer edge of the wedge plate to the outer edge of the bearing plate. For rectangular bearing plates, this distance shall be measured parallel to the edges of the bearing plate. If the anchorage has no separate wedge plate, n may be taken as the projection beyond the outer perimeter of the group of holes in the direction under consideration.

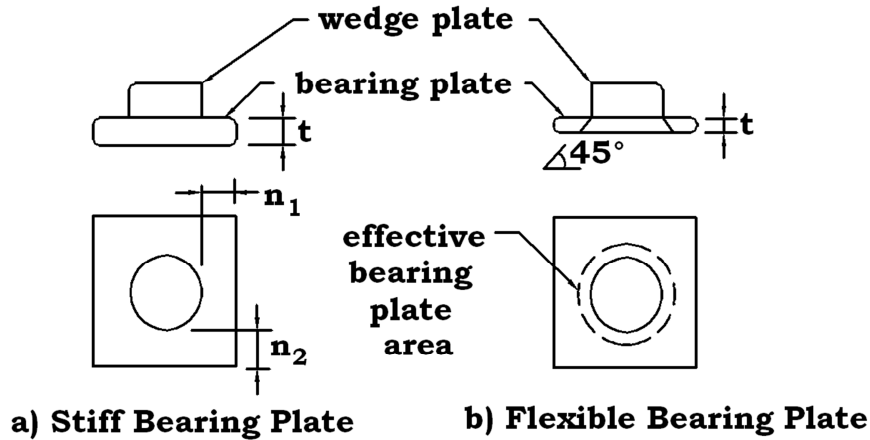


Figure 5.30: Effective Bearing Plate Area for Anchorage Devices with Separate Wedge Plate.

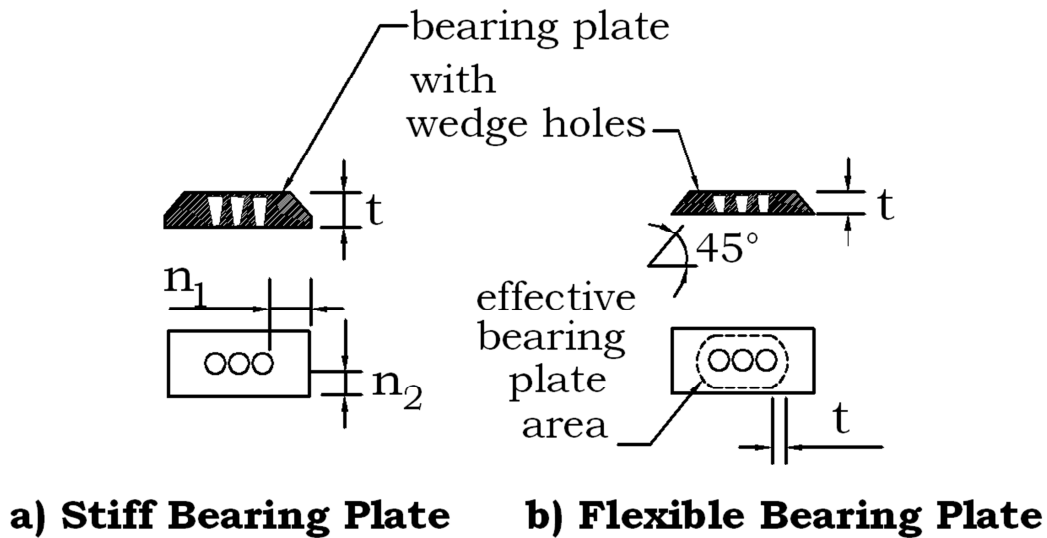


Figure 5.31: Effective Bearing Plate Area for Anchorage Device without Separate Wedge Plate.

For bearing plates that do not meet the slenderness requirement specified herein, the effective gross bearing area, A_g , shall be taken as:

- For anchorages with separate wedge plates:

The area geometrically similar to the wedge plate, with dimensions increased by twice the bearing plate thickness,

- For anchorages without separate wedge plates:
The area geometrically similar to the outer perimeter of the wedge holes, with dimension increased by twice the bearing plate thickness.

5.13.6.3. Special Anchorage Devices

Special anchorage devices that do not satisfy the requirements specified in Article 5.13.6.2 may be used, provided that they have been tested by an independent testing agency acceptable to the Engineer and have met the acceptance criteria specified in Articles 12.4.1.2 “Post-Tensioning Anchorage and Couplers” and 12.4.1.2.3.j “Anchorage Zone Requirement” of MA-100-C-V1/1.

Local anchorage zone reinforcement supplied as part of a proprietary post-tensioning system shall be shown on post-tensioning shop drawings. Adjustment of general anchorage zone tensile reinforcement due to reinforcement supplied as part of a proprietary post-tensioning system may be considered as part of the shop drawing approval process. The responsibility for design of general anchorage zone reinforcement shall remain with the Engineer of Record.

For a series of similar special anchorage devices, tests may only be required for representative samples, unless tests for each capacity of the anchorages in the series are required by the Engineer.

5.14. PRETENSIONED ANCHORAGE ZONES

5.14.1. Splitting Resistance

The splitting resistance of pretensioned anchorage zones provided by vertical reinforcement in the ends of pretensioned beams at the service limit state⁽¹⁾ shall be taken as:

$$P_r = f_s A_s \quad (5.152)$$

where:

f_s = stress in steel not to exceed 140 MPa

A_s = total area of reinforcement located within the distance $h/4$ from the end of the beam (mm^2)

h = overall dimension of precast member in the direction in which splitting resistance is being evaluated (mm)

For pretensioned I-girders or bulb tees, A_s , shall be taken as the total area of the vertical reinforcement located within a distance of $h/4$ from the end of the member, where h is the overall height of the member (mm).

For pretensioned solid or voided slabs, A_s , shall be taken as the total area of the horizontal reinforcement located within a distance of $h/4$ from the end of the member, where h is the overall width of the member (mm).

⁽¹⁾ The primary purpose of the choice of the service limit state for this provision is crack control.

For pretensioned box or tube girders, A_s , shall be taken as the total area of the vertical or horizontal reinforcement located within a distance of $h/4$ from the end of the member, where h is the lesser of the overall width or height of the member (mm).

For pretensioned members with multiple stems, A_s , shall be taken as the total area of vertical reinforcement, divided evenly among the webs, and located within a distance of $h/4$ from the end of each web.

The resistance shall not be less than 4 percent of the total prestressing force at transfer.

The reinforcement shall be as close to the end of the beam as practicable.

Reinforcement used to satisfy this requirement can also be used to satisfy other design requirements.

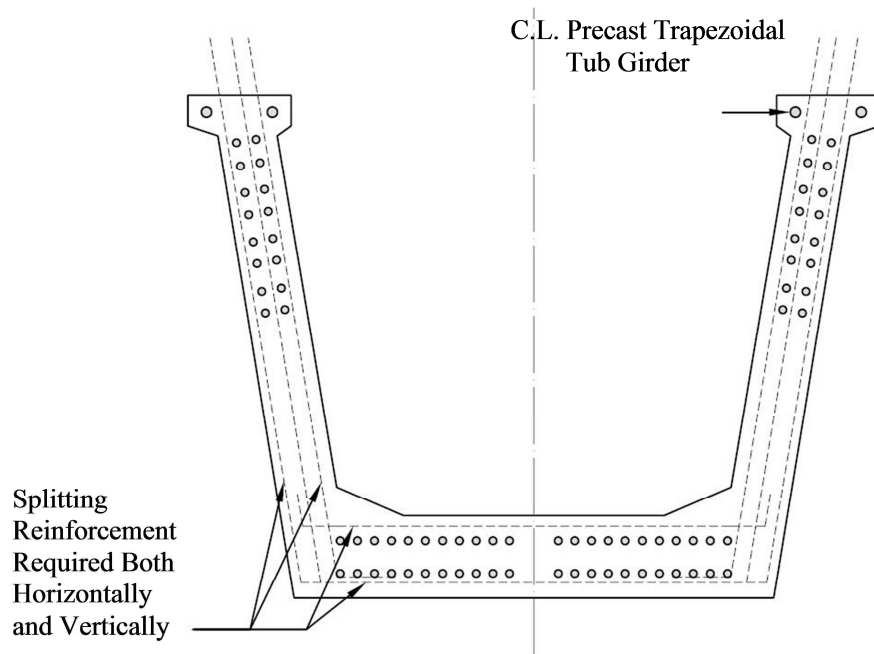


Figure 5.32: Precast Trapezoidal Tub Girder

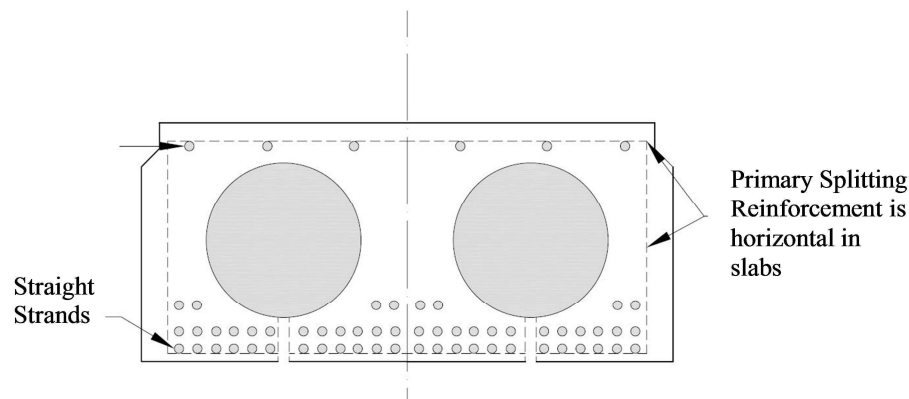


Figure 5.33: Precast Voids Slab

5.14.2. Confinement Reinforcement

For the distance of $1.5d$ from the end of the beams other than box beams, reinforcement shall be placed to confine the prestressing steel in the bottom flange. The reinforcement shall not be less than 10 mm Dia. deformed bars, with spacing not exceeding 150 mm and shaped to enclose the strands.

For box beams, transverse reinforcement shall be provided and anchored by extending the leg of stirrup into the web of the girder.

5.15. PROVISIONS FOR SEISMIC DESIGN

5.15.1. General

The provisions of these Articles shall apply only to the extreme event limit state.

In addition to the other requirements specified in Article 5.10, reinforcing steel shall also conform to the seismic resistance provisions specified herein.

Support length requirements specified in Article 4.7.4.4 or longitudinal restrainers specified in Article 3.9.9.5 shall apply.

Bridges located in Seismic Design Category B shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 5.15.4. Bridges located in Seismic Design Categories C and D shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 5.15.5.

5.15.2. Seismic Hooks

Seismic hook is a hook on a stirrup, hoop, or crosstie that shall have a bend not less than 135 degrees, except that circular hoops shall have a bend not less than 90 degrees. Hooks shall have a six-diameter ($6.0 d_b$), but not less than 75 mm extension that engages the longitudinal reinforcement and projects into the interior of the stirrup or hoop.

Seismic hooks shall be used for transverse reinforcement in regions of expected plastic hinges. Such hooks and their required locations shall be detailed in the contract documents.

5.15.3. Seismic Design Category A

For bridges in Seismic Design Category A where the response acceleration coefficient, S_{DI} , specified in Article 3.9.4.2, is less than 0.10, no consideration of seismic forces shall be required for the design of structural components, except that the design of the connection of the superstructure to the substructure shall be as specified in Article 3.9.9.2.

For bridges in Seismic Design Category A where the response acceleration coefficient, S_{DI} , is greater than or equal to 0.10 but less than or equal to 0.15, no consideration of seismic forces shall be required for the design of structural components, except that:

- The design of the connection of the superstructure to the substructure shall be as specified in Article 3.9.9.2.
- The transverse reinforcement requirements at the top and bottom of a column shall be as specified in Articles 5.15.5.1.4 and 5.15.5.1.5.

5.15.4. Seismic Design Category B

The requirements of Article 5.15.5 shall be taken to apply to bridges in Seismic Design Category B except that the area of longitudinal reinforcement shall not be less than 0.01 or more than 0.06 times the gross cross-section area A_g .

5.15.5. Seismic Design Categories C and D

5.15.5.1. Column Requirements

For the purpose of this Article, a vertical support shall be considered to be a column if the ratio of the clear height to the maximum plan dimensions of the support is not less than 2.5. For a flared column, the maximum plan dimension shall be taken at the minimum section of the flare. For supports with a ratio less than 2.5, the provisions for piers of Article 5.15.5.2 shall apply.

A pier may be designed as a pier in its strong direction and a column in its weak direction.

1. Longitudinal Reinforcement

The area of longitudinal reinforcement shall not be less than 0.01 or more than 0.04 times the gross cross-section area A_g .

2. Flexural Resistance

The biaxial strength of columns shall not be less than that required for flexure, as specified in Article 3.9.9.4. The column shall be investigated for both extreme load cases, as specified in Article 3.9.8, at the extreme event limit state. The resistance factors of Article 5.5.4.2 shall be replaced for columns with either spiral or tie reinforcement by the value of 0.9.

3. Column Shear and Transverse Reinforcement

The factored shear force V_u on each principal axis of each column and pile bent shall be as specified in Article 3.9.9.4.

The amount of transverse reinforcement shall not be less than that specified in Article 5.8.

The following provisions apply to the end regions of the top and bottom of the column and pile bents:

- In the end regions, V_c shall be taken as that specified in Article 5.8, provided that the minimum factored axial compression force exceeds $0.10 f'_c A_g$. For compression forces less than $0.10 f'_c A_g$, V_c shall be taken to decrease linearly from the value given in Article 5.8 to zero at zero compression force.
- The end region shall be assumed to extend from the soffit of girders or cap beams at the top of columns or from the top of foundations at the bottom of columns, a distance taken as the greater of:
 - The maximum cross-sectional dimension of the column,
 - One-sixth of the clear height of the column, or
 - 450 mm.
- The end region at the top of the pile bent shall be taken as that specified for columns. At the bottom of the pile bent, the end region shall be considered to extend from three pile diameters below the calculated point of maximum

moment to one pile diameter but shall not extend less than 450 mm above the mud line.

4. Transverse Reinforcement for Confinement at Plastic Hinges

The cores of columns and pile bents shall be confined by transverse reinforcement in the expected plastic hinge regions. The transverse reinforcement for confinement shall have a yield strength not more than that of the longitudinal reinforcement, and the spacing shall be taken as specified in Article 5.15.5.1.5.

For a circular column, the volumetric ratio of spiral or seismic hoop reinforcement, ρ_s , shall satisfy either that required in Article 5.7.4.6 or:

$$\rho_s \geq 0.12 \frac{f'_c}{f_{yt}} \quad (5.153)$$

where:

f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)

f_{yt} = yield strength of transverse reinforcing bars (MPa)

Within plastic hinge zones, splices in spiral reinforcement shall be made by full-welded splices or by full-mechanical connections.

For a rectangular column, the total gross sectional area, A_{sh} , of rectangular hoop reinforcement shall satisfy either:

$$A_{sh} \geq 0.3s h_c \frac{f'_c}{f_{yt}} \left[\frac{A_g}{A_c} - 1 \right] \quad (5.154)$$

or

$$A_{sh} \geq 0.12s h_c \frac{f'_c}{f_{yt}} \quad (5.155)$$

where:

s = vertical spacing of hoops, not exceeding 100 mm (mm)

A_c = area of column core (mm²)

A_g = gross area of column (mm²)

A_{sh} = total cross-sectional area of tie reinforcement, including supplementary cross-ties having a vertical spacing of s and crossing a section having a core dimension of h_c (mm²)

f_y = yield strength of tie or spiral reinforcement (MPa)

h_c = core dimension of tied column in the direction under consideration (mm)

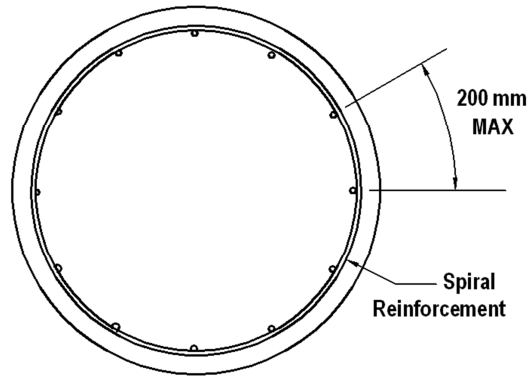


Figure 5.34: Single Spiral.

A_{sh} shall be determined for both principal axes of a rectangular column.

Transverse hoop reinforcement may be provided by single or overlapping hoops. Cross-ties having the same bar size as the hoop may be used. Each end of the cross-tie shall engage a peripheral longitudinal reinforcing bar. All cross-ties shall have seismic hooks as specified in Article [5.15.2](#).

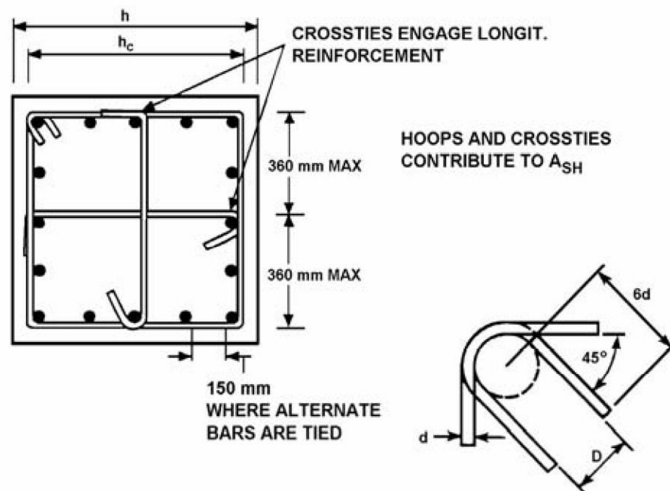


Figure 5.35: Column Tie Details

Transverse reinforcement meeting the following requirements shall be considered to be a cross-tie:

- The bar shall be a continuous bar having a hook of not less than 135°, with an extension of not less than six diameters but not less than 75 mm at one end and a hook of not less than 90° with an extension of not less than six diameters at the other end.
- The hooks shall engage peripheral longitudinal bars.
- The 90° hooks of two successive cross-ties engaging the same longitudinal bars shall be alternated end-for-end.

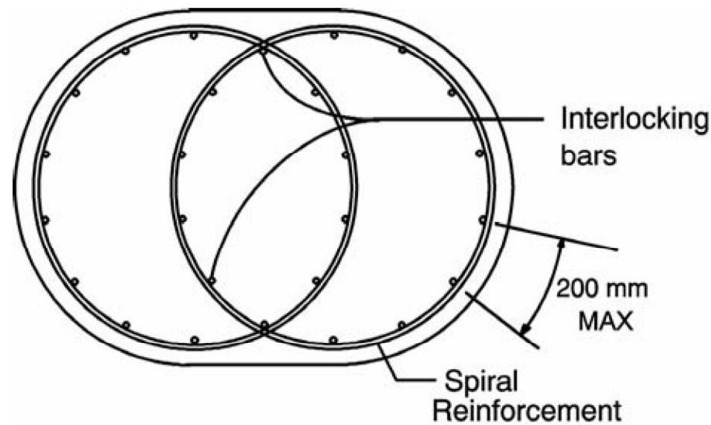


Figure 5.36: Column Interlocking Spiral Details.

Transverse reinforcement meeting the following requirements shall be considered to be a hoop:

- The bar shall be closed tie or continuously wound tie.
- A closed tie may be made up of several reinforcing elements with 135° hooks having a six diameter but not less than a 75 mm extension at each end.
- A continuously wound tie shall have at each end a 135° hook with a six diameter but not less than a 75 mm extension that engages the longitudinal reinforcement.

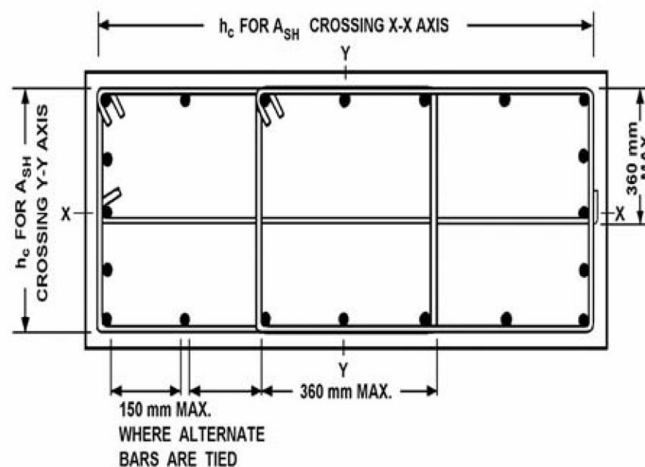


Figure 5.37: Column Tie Details

5. Spacing of Transverse Reinforcement for Confinement

Transverse reinforcement for confinement shall be:

- Provided at the top and bottom of the column over a length not less than the greatest of the maximum cross-sectional column dimensions, one-sixth of the clear height of the column, or 450 mm;

- Extended into the top and bottom connections as specified in Article 5.15.5.3;
- Provided at the top of piles in pile bents over the same length as specified for columns;
- Provided within piles in pile bents over a length extending from 3.0 times the maximum cross-sectional dimension below the calculated point of moment fixity to a distance not less than the maximum cross-sectional dimension or 450 mm above the mud line; and
- Spaced not to exceed one-quarter of the minimum member dimension or 100 mm center-to-center.

6. Splices

The provisions of Article 5.16.5 shall apply for the design of splices.

Lap splices in longitudinal reinforcement shall not be used.

The spacing of the transverse reinforcement over the length of the splice shall not exceed 100 mm or one-quarter of the minimum member dimension.

Full-welded or full-mechanical connection splices conforming to Article 5.16.5 may be used, provided that not more than alternate bars in each layer of longitudinal reinforcement are spliced at a section, and the distance between splices of adjacent bars is greater than 600 mm measured along the longitudinal axis of the column.

5.15.5.2. Requirements for Wall-Type Piers

The provisions herein shall apply to the design for the strong direction of a pier. The weak direction of a pier may be designed as a column conforming to the provisions of Article 5.15.5.1, with the response modification factor for columns used to determine the design forces.

- If the pier is not designed as a column in its weak direction, the limitations for factored shear resistance herein specified shall apply.
- The minimum reinforcement ratio, both horizontally, ρ_h , and vertically, ρ_v , in any pier shall not be less than 0.0025. The vertical reinforcement ratio shall not be less than the horizontal reinforcement ratio.
- Reinforcement spacing, either horizontally or vertically, shall not exceed 450 mm. The reinforcement required for shear shall be continuous and shall be distributed uniformly.
- The factored shear resistance, V_r , in the pier shall be taken as:

$$V_r = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.66\sqrt{f'_c}bd \\ \phi V_n \end{array} \right. \quad (5.156)$$

in which:

$$V_n = \left[0.165\sqrt{f'_c} + \rho_h f_{yt} \right] bd \quad (5.157)$$

where:

ρ_h = minimum reinforcement ratio in horizontal direction

Horizontal and vertical layers of reinforcement should be provided on each face of a pier. Splices in horizontal pier reinforcement shall be staggered, and splices in the two layers shall not occur at the same location.

5.15.5.3. Column Connections

The design force for the connection between the column and the cap beam superstructure, pile cap, or spread footing shall be as specified in Article 3.9.9.4.3. The development length for all longitudinal steel shall be 1.25 times that required for the full yield strength of reinforcing as specified in Article 5.16.

Column transverse reinforcement, as specified in Article 5.15.5.1.4, shall be continued for a distance not less than one-half the maximum column dimension or 380 mm from the face of the column connection into the adjoining member.

The nominal shear resistance, V_n , provided by the concrete in the joint of a frame or bent in the direction under consideration, shall satisfy:

- For normal density aggregate concrete:

$$V_n \leq bd\sqrt{f'_c}, \text{ and} \quad (5.158)$$

- For low-density aggregate concrete:

$$V_n \leq 0.75bd\sqrt{f'_c} \quad (5.159)$$

5.15.5.4. Construction Joints in Piers and Columns

Where shear is resisted at a construction joint solely by dowel action and friction on a roughened concrete surface, the nominal shear resistance across the joint, V_n , shall be taken as:

$$V_n = (A_{vf}f_y + 0.75P_u) \quad (5.160)$$

where:

- A_{vf} = the total area of reinforcement, including flexural reinforcement (mm^2)
- P_u = the minimum factored axial load as specified in Article 3.9.9.4 for columns and piers (N)

5.16. DEVELOPMENT LENGTH AND SPLICES OF REINFORCEMENT

5.16.1. General

5.16.1.1. Basic Requirements

The calculated force effects in the reinforcement at each section shall be developed on each side of that section by embedment length, hook, mechanical device, or a combination thereof. Hooks and mechanical anchorages may be used in developing bars in tension only.

5.16.1.2. Flexural Reinforcement

1. General

Critical sections for development of reinforcement in flexural members shall be taken at points of maximum stress and at points within the span where adjacent reinforcement terminates or is bent.

Except at supports of simple spans and at the free ends of cantilevers, reinforcement shall be extended beyond the point at which it is no longer required to resist flexure for a distance not less than:

- The effective depth of the member,
- 15 times the nominal diameter of bar, or
- 1/20 of the clear span.

Continuing reinforcement shall extend not less than the development length, ℓ_d , specified in Article [5.16.2](#), beyond the point where bent or terminated tension reinforcement is no longer required to resist flexure.

No more than 50 percent of the reinforcement shall be terminated at any section, and adjacent bars shall not be terminated in the same section.

Tension reinforcement may also be developed by either bending across the web in which it lies and terminating it in a compression area and providing the development length ℓ_d to the design section, or by making it continuous with the reinforcement on the opposite face of the member.

Supplementary anchorages shall be provided for tension reinforcement in flexural members where the reinforcement force is not directly proportional to factored moment as follows:

- Sloped, stepped or tapered footings,
- Brackets,
- Deep flexural members, or
- Members in which tension reinforcement is not parallel to the compression face.

2. Positive Moment Reinforcement

At least one-third the positive moment reinforcement in simple span members and one-fourth the positive moment reinforcement in continuous members shall extend along the same face of the member beyond the centerline of the support. In beams, such extension shall not be less than 150 mm.

3. Negative Moment Reinforcement

At least one-third of the total tension reinforcement provided for negative moment at a support shall have an embedment length beyond the point of inflection not less than:

- The effective depth of the member,
- 12.0 times the nominal diameter of bar, and
- 1/16 times the clear span.

4. Moment Resisting Joints

Flexural reinforcement in continuous, restrained, or cantilever members or in any member of a rigid frame shall be detailed to provide continuity of reinforcement at intersections with other members to develop the nominal moment resistance of the joint.

In Seismic Design Categories C and D, joints shall be detailed to resist moments and shears resulting from horizontal loads through the joint.

5.16.2. Development of Reinforcement

5.16.2.1. Deformed Bars and Deformed Wire in Tension

1. Tension Development Length

The tension development length, ℓ_d , shall not be less than the product of the basic tension development length, ℓ_{db} , specified herein and the modification factor or factors specified in Article 5.16.2.1.2.

The tension development length shall not be less than 300 mm, except for lap splices specified in Article 5.16.5.3.1 and development of shear reinforcement specified in Article 5.16.2.6.

The basic tension development length, ℓ_{db} , in mm shall be taken as:

$$\text{For 36 mm Dia. bar and smaller} \quad 0.02 A_b \frac{f_y}{\sqrt{f'_c}} \geq 0.06 d_b f_y$$

$$\text{For 40 mm Dia. bars} \quad 25 \frac{f_y}{\sqrt{f'_c}}$$

$$\text{For deformed wire} \quad 0.36 \frac{f_y}{\sqrt{f'_c}} d_b$$

where:

A_b = area of bar or wire (mm^2)

f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcing bars (MPa)

f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)

d_b = diameter of bar or wire (mm)

2. Modification Factors

The basic development length, ℓ_{db} , shall be multiplied by the following factor or factors, as applicable:

- For top horizontal or nearly horizontal reinforcement,
so placed that more than 300 mm of fresh concrete is
cast below the reinforcement 1.4

- For low-density aggregate concrete where f_{ct} (MPa) is specified $0.58 \frac{\sqrt{f'_c}}{f_{ct}} \geq 1.0$
- For all-low-density concrete where f_{ct} is not specified 1.3
- For sand-low-density concrete where f_{ct} is not specified 1.2
- Reinforcement being developed in the length under consideration is spaced laterally not less than 150 mm center-to-center, with not less than 75 mm clear cover measured in the direction of the spacing. 0.8
- Anchorage or development for the full yield strength of reinforcement is not required, or where reinforcement in flexural members is in excess of that required by analysis. $\frac{A_s \text{ (required)}}{A_s \text{ (provided)}}$
- Reinforcement is enclosed within a spiral composed of bars of not less than 6 mm in diameter and spaced at not more than a 100 mm pitch. 0.75

Linear interpolation may be used between all-low-density and sand-low-density provisions when partial sand replacement is used.

- For epoxy-coated bars with cover less than $3d_b$ or with clear spacing between bars less than $6d_b$ 1.5
- For epoxy-coated bars not covered above 1.2

The product obtained when combining the factor for top reinforcement with the applicable factor for epoxy-coated bars need not be taken to be greater than 1.7.

5.16.2.2. Deformed Bars in Compression

1. Compressive Development Length

The development length, ℓ_d , for deformed bars in compression shall not be less than either the product of the basic development length specified herein and the applicable modification factors specified in Article 5.16.2.2.2 or 200 mm.

The basic development length, ℓ_{db} , for deformed bars in compression shall satisfy:

$$\ell_{db} \geq 0.24 \frac{f_y}{\sqrt{f'_c}} d_b, \text{ or} \quad (5.161)$$

$$\ell_{db} \geq 0.044 f_y d_b \quad (5.162)$$

where:

- f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcing bars (MPa)
- f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)
- d_b = diameter of bar (mm)

2. Modification Factors

The basic development length, ℓ_{db} , may be multiplied by applicable factors, where:

Anchorage or development for the full yield strength of reinforcement is not required, or where reinforcement is provided in excess of that required by analysis	$\frac{A_s (\text{required})}{A_s (\text{provided})}$
Reinforcement is enclosed within a spiral composed of a bar of not less than 6 mm in diameter and spaced at not more than a 100 mm pitch	0.75

5.16.2.3. Bundled Bars

The development length of individual bars within a bundle, in tension, or compression shall be that for the individual bar, increased by 20 percent for a three-bar bundle and by 33 percent for a four-bar bundle.

For determining the factors specified in Articles [5.16.2.1.2](#), a unit of bundled bars shall be treated as a single bar of a diameter determined from the equivalent total area.

5.16.2.4. Standard Hooks in Tension

1. Basic Hook Development Length

The development length, ℓ_{dh} , in mm, for deformed bars in tension terminating in a standard hook specified in Article [5.10.2.1](#) shall not be less than:

- The product of the basic development length ℓ_{hb} , as specified in Eq. [\(5.163\)](#), and the applicable modification factor or factors, as specified in Article [5.16.2.4.2](#);
- 8.0 bar diameters; or
- 150 mm.

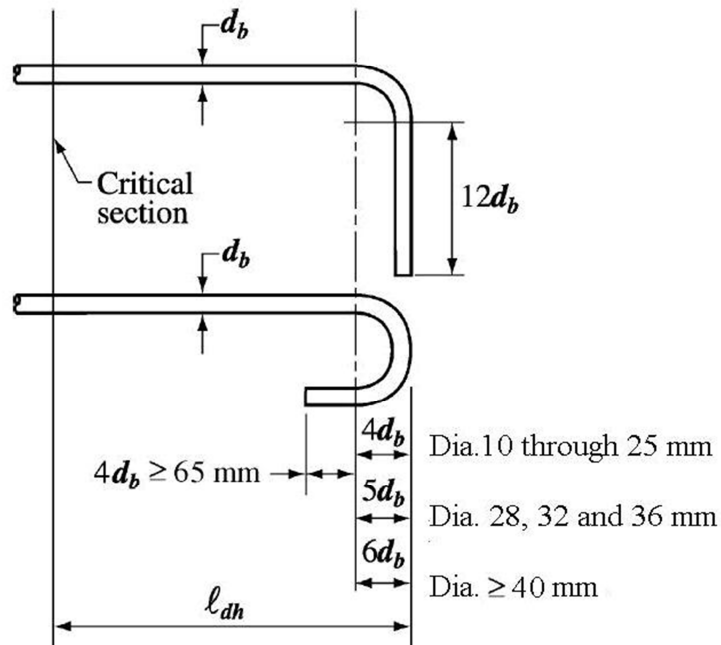


Figure 5.38: Hooked bar details for development of standard hooks

Basic development length, ℓ_{hb} , for a hooked-bar with yield strength, f_y , not exceeding 420 MPa shall be taken as:

$$\ell_{hb} = \frac{100 d_b}{\sqrt{f'_c}} \quad (5.163)$$

Where:

d_b = Diameter of bar (mm)

f'_c = Specified compressive strength of concrete at 28 days, unless another age is specified (MPa)

2. Modification Factors

Basic hook development length, ℓ_{hb} , shall be multiplied by the following factor of factors, as applicable, where:

- Reinforcement has a yield strength exceeding 420 MPa $f_y / 420$
- Side cover for 36 mm Dia. bar and smaller, normal to plane of hook, is not less than 64 mm, and 90° hook, cover on bar extension beyond hook not less than 50 mm 0.7
- Hooks for 36 mm Dia. bar and smaller enclosed vertically or horizontally within ties or stirrup ties which are spaced along the full development length, ℓ_{dh} , at a spacing not exceeding $3d_b$ 0.8
- Anchorage or development of full yield strength is not required, or where reinforcement is provided in excess of that required by analysis $\frac{A_s (\text{required})}{A_s (\text{provided})}$
- Low-density aggregate concrete is used 1.3
- Epoxy-coated reinforcement is used 1.2

3. Hooked-Bar Tie Requirements

For bars being developed by a standard hook at discontinuous ends of members with both side cover and top or bottom cover less than 65 mm, the hooked-bar shall be enclosed within ties or stirrups spaced along the full development length, ℓ_{dh} , not greater than $3d_b$ as shown in [Figure 5.39](#). The factor for transverse reinforcement, as specified in Article [5.16.2.4.2](#), shall not apply.

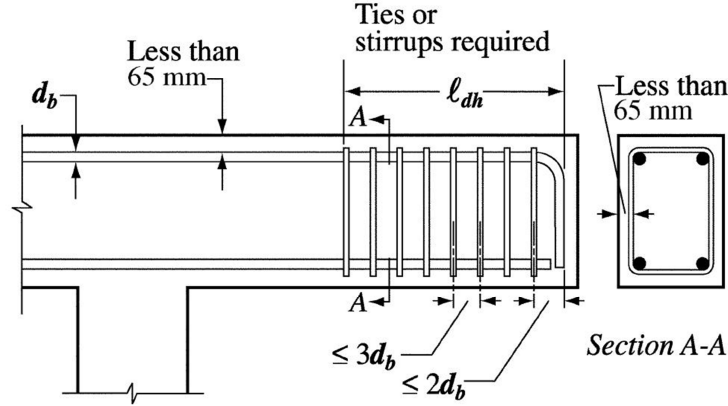


Figure 5.39: Hooked-Bar Tie Requirements.

5.16.2.5. Welded Wire Fabric

1. Deformed Wire Fabric

For applications other than shear reinforcement, the development length, ℓ_{hd} , in mm, of welded deformed wire fabric, measured from the point of critical section to the end of wire, shall not be less than either:

- The product of the basic development length and the applicable modification factor or factors, as specified in Article 5.16.2.2, or
- 200 mm, except for lap splices, as specified in Article 5.16.6.1.

The development of shear reinforcement shall be taken as specified in Article 5.16.2.6.

The basic development length, ℓ_{hd} , for welded deformed wire fabric, with not less than one cross wire within the development length at least 50 mm from the point of critical section, shall satisfy:

$$\ell_{hd} \leq 0.36 d_b \frac{f_y - 140}{\sqrt{f'_c}}, \text{ or} \quad (5.164)$$

$$\ell_{hd} \leq 2.4 \frac{A_w f_y}{s_w \sqrt{f'_c}} \quad (5.165)$$

where:

A_w = area of an individual wire to be developed or spliced (mm^2)

s_w = spacing of wires to be developed or spliced (mm)

The basic development length of welded deformed wire fabric, with no cross wires within the development length, shall be determined as for deformed wire in accordance with Article 5.16.2.1.1.

2. Plain Wire Fabric

The yield strength of welded plain wire fabric shall be considered developed by embedment of two cross wires with the closer cross wire not less than 50 mm from the point of critical section. Otherwise, the development length, ℓ_d , measured from the point of critical section to outermost cross wire shall be taken as:

$$\ell_d = 3.24 \frac{A_w f_y}{s_w \sqrt{f'_c}} \quad (5.166)$$

The development length shall be modified for reinforcement in excess of that required by analysis as specified in Article 5.16.2.1.2., and by the factor for low density concrete specified in Article 5.16.2.1.2., where applicable. However, ℓ_d shall not be taken to be less than 150 mm, except for lap splices as specified in Article 5.16.6.2.

5.16.2.6. Shear Reinforcement

1. General

Stirrup reinforcement in concrete pipe shall satisfy the provisions of Article 10.11.4.2.6 and shall not be required to satisfy the provisions herein.

Shear reinforcement shall be located as close to the surfaces of members as cover requirements and proximity of other reinforcement permit.

Between anchored ends, each bend in the continuous portion of a simple U-stirrup or multiple U-stirrups shall enclose a longitudinal bar.

2. Anchorage of Deformed Reinforcement

Ends of single-leg, simple U-, or multiple U-stirrups shall be anchored as follows:

- For 16 mm Dia. bar and MD200 wire, and smaller, and for 20 mm, 22 mm and 25 mm Dia. bars with f_y of 275 MPa or less,
A standard hook around longitudinal reinforcement, and
- For 20 mm, 22 mm and 25 mm Dia. stirrups with f_y greater than 275 MPa:
A standard stirrup hook around a longitudinal bar, plus one embedment length between mid-height of the member and the outside end of the hook, ℓ_e shall satisfy:

$$\ell_e \geq 0.17 \frac{f_y}{\sqrt{f'_c}} d_b \quad (5.167)$$

3. Anchorage of Wire Fabric Reinforcement

Each leg of welded plain wire fabric forming simple U-stirrups shall be anchored by:

- Two longitudinal wires spaced at 50 mm along the member at the top of the U, or
- One longitudinal wire located not more than $d/4$ from the compression face and a second wire closer to the compression face and spaced not less than 50 mm from the first wire. The second wire may be located on the stirrup leg beyond a bend or on a bend with an inside diameter of bend not less than $8d_b$.

For each end of a single-leg stirrup of welded plain or deformed wire fabric, two longitudinal wires at a minimum spacing of 50 mm and with the inner wire at not less than $d/4$ or 50 mm from mid-depth of member shall be provided. The outer longitudinal wire at tension face shall not be farther from the face than the portion of primary flexural reinforcement closest to the face.

4. Closed Stirrups

Pairs of U-stirrups or ties that are placed to form a closed unit shall be considered properly anchored and spliced where length of laps are not less than $1.7\ell_d$, where ℓ_d in this case is the development length for bars in tension.

In members not less than 450 mm deep, closed stirrup splices with the tension force resulting from factored loads, $A_b f_y$, not exceeding 40 kN per leg, may be considered adequate if the stirrup legs extend the full available depth of the member.

Transverse torsion reinforcement shall be made fully continuous and shall be anchored by 135° standard hooks around longitudinal reinforcement.

5.16.3. Development by Mechanical Anchorages

Any mechanical device capable of developing the strength of reinforcement without damage to concrete may be used as an anchorage. Performance of mechanical anchorages shall be verified by laboratory tests.

Development of reinforcement may consist of a combination of mechanical anchorage and the additional embedment length of reinforcement between the point of maximum bar stress and the mechanical anchorage.

If mechanical anchorages are to be used, complete details shall be shown in the contract documents.

5.16.4. Development of Prestressing Strand

5.16.4.1. General

In determining the resistance of pretensioned concrete components in their end zones, the gradual build-up of the strand force in the transfer and development lengths shall be taken into account.

The stress in the prestressing steel may be assumed to vary linearly from 0.0 at the point where bonding commences to the effective stress after losses, f_{pe} (transfer length).

The effects of de-bonding shall be considered as specified in Article [5.16.4.3](#).

5.16.4.2. Bonded Strand

Seven-wire strand shall be bonded beyond the critical section, a distance not less than:

$$\ell_d = \frac{\kappa}{7} \left[\frac{1}{3} f_{pe} d_b + (f_{ps} - f_{pe}) d_p \right] \quad (5.168)$$

where:

ℓ_d = development length of strand (mm)

d_b = nominal strand diameter (mm)

- f_{ps} = average stress in prestressing steel at the time for which the nominal resistance of the member is required (MPa)
 f_{pe} = effective stress in the prestressing steel after losses (MPa)
 κ = 1.0 for pretensioned panels, piling, and other pretensioned members with a depth of less than or equal to 600 mm
 κ = 1.6 for pretensioned members with a depth greater than 600 mm

The first term $(1/21)f_{pe}d_b$ in Eq. (5.168) corresponds to transfer length. The second term $(1/7)(f_{ps} - f_{pe})d_p$ in Eq. (5.168) corresponds to any additional bonded length necessary to develop an increase in stress of $(f_{ps} - f_{pe})$.

Figure 5.40 shows the relationship between steel stress and the distance over which the strand is bonded to the concrete represented by Eq. (5.168).

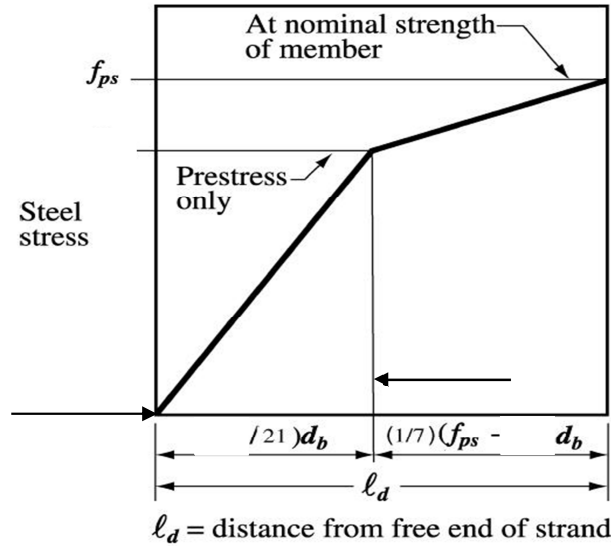


Figure 5.40: Idealized relationship between steel stress and distance from the free end of strand.

5.16.4.3. Partially Debonded Strands

Where a portion or portions of a pretensioning strand are not bonded and where tension exists in the precompressed tensile zone, the development length, measured from the end of the debonded zone, shall be determined using Eq. (5.168) with a value of $\kappa = 2.0$.

The number of partially debonded strands should not exceed 25 percent of the total number of strands.

The number of debonded strands in any horizontal row shall not exceed 40 percent of the strands in that row.

The length of debonding of any strand shall be such that all limit states are satisfied with consideration of the total developed resistance at any section being investigated.

Not more than 40 percent of the debonded strands, or four strands, whichever is greater, shall have the debonding terminated at any section.

Debonded strands shall be symmetrically distributed about the centerline of the member.

Debonded lengths of pairs of strands that are symmetrically positioned about the centerline of the member shall be equal.

Exterior strands in each horizontal row shall be fully bonded.

5.16.5. Splices of Bar Reinforcement

5.16.5.1. Detailing

Permissible locations, types, and dimensions of splices, including staggers, for reinforcing bars shall be shown in the contract documents.

5.16.5.2. General Requirements

1. Lap Splices

The lengths of lap for lap splices of individual bars shall be as specified in Articles 5.16.5.3.1 and 5.16.5.5.1.

Lap splices within bundles shall be as specified in Article 5.16.2.3. Individual bar splices within a bundle shall not overlap. Entire bundles shall not be lap spliced.

For reinforcement in tension, lap splices shall not be used for bars larger than 36 mm Dia.

Bars spliced by non-contact lap splices in flexural members shall not be spaced farther apart transversely than the smaller of one-fifth the required lap splice length, and 150 mm.

2. Mechanical Connections

The resistance of a full-mechanical connection shall not be less than $1.25f_y$ of the bar.

The total slip of the bar within the splice sleeve of the connector after loading in tension to 207 MPa and relaxing to 20 MPa shall not exceed the following measured displacements between gage points clear of the splice sleeve:

For up to 45 mm Dia. bars	0.25 mm
.....	
For 58 mm Dia. bars	0.75 mm
.....	

3. Welded Splices

A full-welded splice shall be required to develop, in tension, at least $1.25f_y$ of the bar.

Welding for welded splices shall conform to the current edition of *Structural Welding Code—Reinforcing Steel of AWS (D1.4)*.

No welded splices shall be used in decks.

5.16.5.3. Splices of Reinforcement in Tension**1. Lap Splices in Tension**

The length of lap for tension lap splices shall not be less than either 300 mm or the following for Class A, B or C splices:

Class A splice		$1.0 \ell_d$
Class B splice		$1.3 \ell_d$
Class C splice		$1.7 \ell_d$

The tension development length, ℓ_d , for the specified yield strength shall be taken in accordance with Article [5.16.2](#).

The class of lap splice required for deformed bars and deformed wire in tension shall be as specified in [Table 5.17](#).

Table 5.17: Classes of Tension Lap Splices.

Ratio of $\frac{A_s \text{ (provided)}}{A_s \text{ (required)}}$	<i>Percent of A_s Spliced with Required Lap Length</i>		
	50	75	100
≥ 2	<i>A</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>
< 2	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>C</i>

2. Mechanical Connections or Welded Splices in Tension

Mechanical connections or welded tension splices, used where the area of reinforcement provided is less than twice that required, shall meet the requirements for full-mechanical connections or full-welded splices.

Mechanical connections or welded splices, used where the area of reinforcement provided is at least twice that required by analysis and where the splices are staggered at least 600 mm, may be designed to develop not less than either twice the tensile force effect in the bar at the section or half the minimum specified yield strength of the reinforcement.

5.16.5.4. Splices in Tension Tie Members

Splices of reinforcement in tension tie members shall be made only with either full-welded splices or full-mechanical connections. Splices in adjacent bars shall be staggered not less than 750 mm apart.

5.16.5.5. Splices of Bars in Compression**1. Lap Splices in Compression**

The length of lap, ℓ_c , for compression lap splices shall not be less than 300 mm or as follows:

- If $f_y \leq 420$ MPa then:

$$\ell_c = 0.073m f_y d_b, \text{ or} \quad (5.169)$$

- If $f_y > 420$ MPa then:

$$\ell_c = m (0.13 f_y - 0.24) d_b \quad (5.170)$$

in which:

Where the specified concrete strength, f'_c , is less than 28 MPa m = 1.33

.....

Where ties along the splice have an effective area not less than 0.15 percent of the product of the thickness of the compression component times the tie spacing

..... m = 0.83

With spirals m = 0.75

.....

In all other cases m = 1.0

.....

where:

f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcing bars (MPa)

d_b = diameter of bar (mm)

Where bars of different size are lap spliced in compression, the splice length shall not be less than the development length of the larger bar or the splice length of smaller bar. Bar sizes 45 mm and 58 mm Dia. may be lap spliced to 36 mm Dia. and smaller bars.

2. Mechanical Connections or Welded Splices in Compression

Mechanical connections or welded splices used in compression shall satisfy the requirements for full-mechanical connections or full-welded splices as specified in Articles [5.16.5.2.2](#) and [5.16.5.2.3](#), respectively.

3. End-Bearing Splices

In bars required for compression only, the compressive force may be transmitted by bearing on square-cut ends held in concentric contact by a suitable device.

End-bearing splices shall be used only in members confined by closed ties, closed stirrups, or spirals.

The end-bearing splices shall be staggered, or continuing bars shall be provided at splice locations. The continuing bars in each face of the member shall have a factored tensile resistance not less than $0.25 f_y$ times the area of the reinforcement in that face.

5.16.6. Splices of Welded Wire Fabric

5.16.6.1. Splices of Welded Deformed Wire Fabric in Tension

When measured between the ends of each fabric sheet, the length of lap for lap splices of welded deformed wire fabric with cross wires within the lap length shall not

be less than $1.3 \ell_{hd}$ or 200 mm. The overlap measured between the outermost cross wires of each fabric sheet shall not be less than 50 mm.

Lap splices of welded deformed wire fabric with no cross wires within the lap splice length shall be determined as for deformed wire in accordance with the provisions of Article [5.16.5.3.1](#).

5.16.6.2. Splices of Welded Smooth Wire Fabric in Tension

Where the area of reinforcement provided is less than twice that required at the splice location, the length of overlap measured between the outermost cross wires of each fabric sheet shall not be less than:

- The largest of one spacing of cross wires plus 50 mm, or
- $1.5 \ell_d$, or
- 150 mm.

where ℓ_d is the development length specified in Article [5.16.2](#) (mm)

Where the area of reinforcement provided is at least twice that required at the splice location, the length of overlap measured between the outermost cross wires of each fabric sheet shall not be less than the larger of $1.5 \ell_d$, and 50 mm.

5.17. SPECIFIC MEMBERS

5.17.1. Deck Slabs

Requirements for deck slabs in addition to those specified in [Section 5](#) shall be as specified in [Section 7](#).

5.17.2. Diaphragms, Deep Beams, Brackets, Corbels, and Beam Ledges

5.17.2.1. General

Diaphragms, brackets, corbels, beam ledges, and other deep members subjected primarily to shear and torsion and whose depth is large relative to their span shall be designed as specified herein.

Deep beams shall be analyzed and designed by either the strut-and-tie model or another recognized theory. Another recognized theory for design of these components can be found in [Article 11.8 of SBC 304](#) or in [Article 11.8 of ACI 318](#).

5.17.2.2. Diaphragms

Unless otherwise specified, diaphragms shall be provided at abutments, piers, and hinge joints to resist lateral forces and transmit loads to points of support.

Intermediate diaphragms may be used between beams in curved systems or where necessary to provide torsional resistance and to support the deck at points of discontinuity or at angle points in girders.

For spread box beams and for curved box girders having an inside radius less than 240 m, intermediate diaphragms shall be used.

Diaphragms may be omitted where tests or structural analysis show them to be unnecessary.

Diaphragms should be designed by the strut-and-tie method, where applicable.

In bridges with post-tensioned diaphragms, the diaphragm tendons must be effectively tied into the diaphragms with bonded non-prestressed reinforcement to resist tendon forces at the corners of openings in the diaphragms.

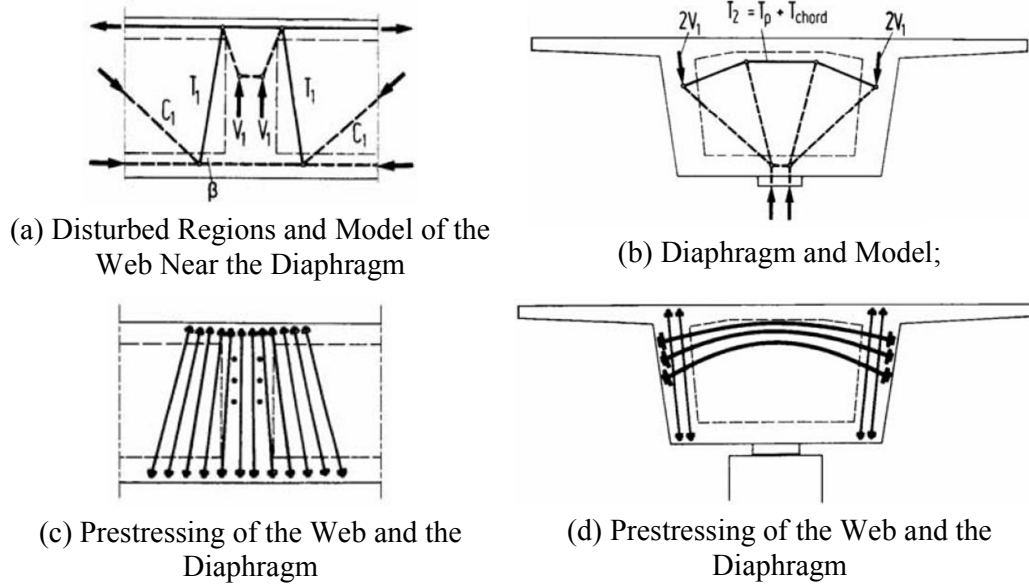


Figure 5.41: Diaphragm of a Box Girder Bridge.

5.17.2.3. Deep Beams

- Deep beams are members loaded on one face and supported on the opposite face so that compression struts can develop between the loads and the supports, and have either:
 - (a) clear spans, ℓ_n , equal to or less than four times the overall member depth; or
 - (b) regions with concentrated loads within twice the member depth from the face of the support.
- Deep beams shall be designed either by nonlinear distribution of strain or by strut-and-tie models. Lateral buckling shall be considered.
- V_n of deep beams shall not exceed:

$$V_n \leq 0.83\sqrt{f'_c}b_w d \quad (5.171)$$

- Minimum area of flexural tension reinforcement, $A_{s,min}$, shall conform to provisions in Article [5.7.3.3.2](#).
- The area of shear reinforcement perpendicular to the flexural tension reinforcement, A_v , shall not be less than $0.0025b_ws$, and s shall not exceed the smaller of $d/5$ and 300 mm.
- The area of shear reinforcement parallel to the flexural tension reinforcement, A_{vh} , shall not be less than $0.0015b_ws_2$, and s_2 shall not exceed the smaller of $d/5$ and 300 mm.
- Bonded longitudinal bars shall be well distributed over each face of the vertical elements in pairs. The tensile resistance of a bonded reinforcement pair shall not be less than that specified in Eq. [\(5.172\)](#)

$$N_R = \phi f_y A_s \geq 0.83 b_v s \quad (5.172)$$

where:

- b_v = width of web (mm)
- f_y = yield strength of reinforcing steel (MPa)
- A_s = area of steel in distance s (mm^2)
- ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article [5.5.4.2](#)
- s = spacing of reinforcement (mm)

- For components whose width is less than 250 mm, a single bar of the required tensile resistance may be used in lieu of a pair of longitudinal bars.

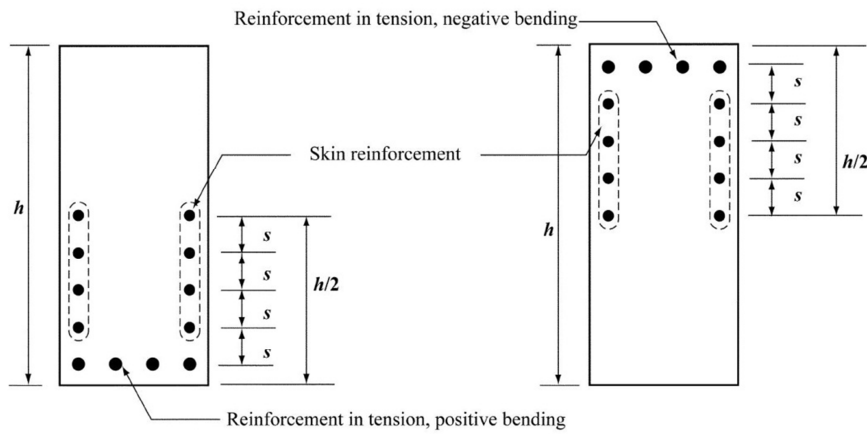


Figure 5.42: Spacing of Reinforcement in Deep Beams

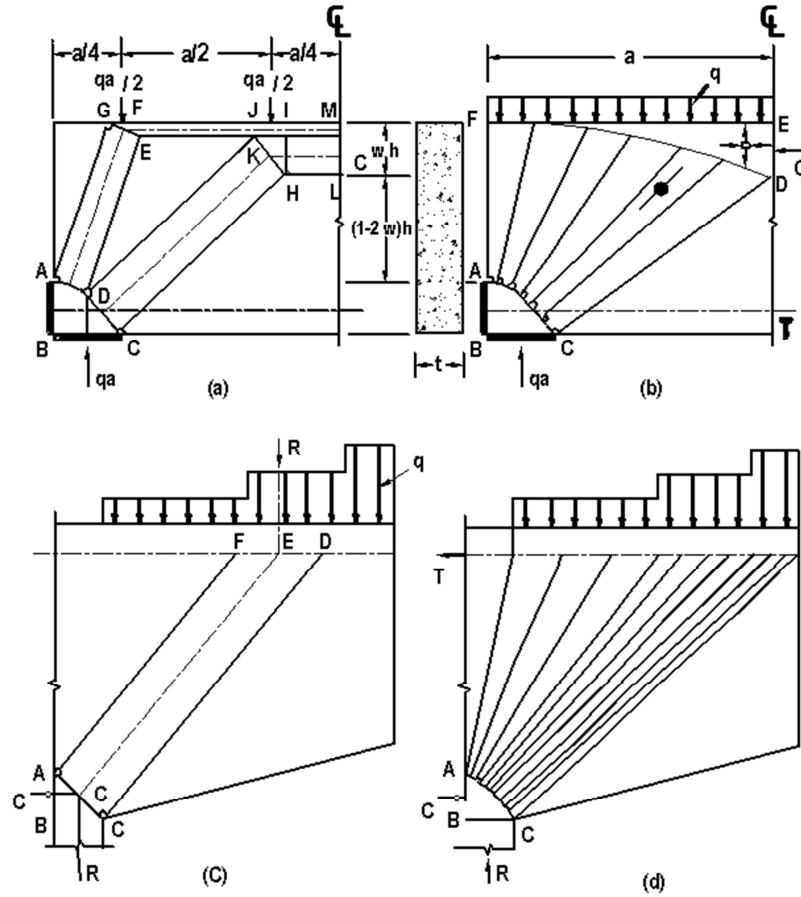


Figure 5.43: Fan Action: (a) Strut-and-Tie Model of Uniformly-Loaded Deep Beam; (b) Fan-Shaped Stress Field; (c) Strut-and-Tie System for Equivalent Single-Load R Replacing Distributed-Load q ; (d) Continuous Fan Developed from Discrete Strut.

5.17.2.4. Brackets and Corbels

- Brackets and corbels with a shear span-to-depth ratio a_v/d less than 2 shall be permitted to be designed using strut-and-tie model.
- Design shall be permitted using these provisions for brackets and corbels with:
 - a) a_v/d not greater than 1, and
 - b) subject to factored horizontal tensile force, N_{uc} , not larger than V_u .
- Effective depth d shall be determined at the face of the support.
- Depth at outside edge of bearing area shall not be less than $0.5d$.
- The section at the face of support shall be designed to resist simultaneously:
 - a factored shear force V_u ;
 - a factored moment M_u

$$M_u = V_u a_v + N_{uc} (h - d) \quad (5.173)$$

- In all design calculations in accordance with, ϕ shall be taken equal to 0.75

- Design of shear-friction reinforcement, A_{vf} , to resist V_u shall be in accordance with Article 5.8.7.
- For normal density concrete, nominal shear resistance, V_n , shall satisfy:

$$V_n \leq \min \begin{cases} 0.2 f'_c b_w d_e \\ 5.5 b_w d_e \end{cases} \quad (5.174)$$

- For all low-density or sand-low-density concretes, nominal shear resistance, V_n , shall satisfy:

$$V_n \leq \min \begin{cases} \left(0.2 - 0.07 \frac{a_v}{d_e} \right) f'_c b_w d_e \\ \left(5.5 - 1.9 \frac{a_v}{d_e} \right) b_w d_e \end{cases} \quad (5.175)$$

- Reinforcement, A_s , to resist the factored moment in Eq. (5.173) shall be determined as for ordinary members subjected to flexure and axial load.
- Factored tensile force, N_{uc} , shall not be taken less than $0.2V_u$ unless special provisions are made to avoid tensile forces. N_{uc} shall be regarded as a live load even if tension results from restraint of creep, shrinkage, or temperature change.
- Area of primary tension reinforcement, A_s , shall satisfy:

$$A_s \geq \max \begin{cases} A_f + A_n \\ \frac{2}{3} A_{vf} + A_n \end{cases}, \text{ and} \quad (5.176)$$

- Total area, A_h , of closed stirrups or ties parallel to primary tension reinforcement shall satisfy:

$$A_h \geq 0.5(A_s - A_n) \quad (5.177)$$

in which:

$$A_n \geq N_{uc} / \phi f_y \quad (5.178)$$

- A_h shall be uniformly distributed within $(2/3)d$ adjacent to primary tension reinforcement.
- The limits of steel ratio at the face of the support shall be as per the following equation:

$$\frac{A_s}{b_w d_e} \geq 0.04 \frac{f'_c}{f_y} \quad (5.179)$$

where:

- b_w = web width (mm)
- d_e = depth of center of gravity of steel (mm)
- A_{vf} = area of shear friction steel (mm²)

- At front face of bracket or corbel, primary tension reinforcement shall be anchored by one of the following:

- By a structural weld to a transverse bar of at least equal size; weld to be designed to develop f_y of primary tension reinforcement;
- By bending primary tension reinforcement back to form a horizontal loop; or
- By some other means of positive anchorage.

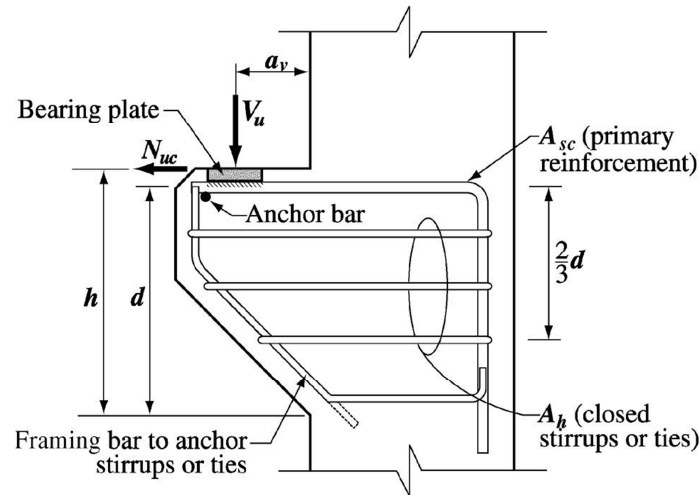


Figure 5.44: Notation.

5.17.2.5. Beam Ledges

1. General

Beam ledges may be distinguished from brackets and corbels in that their width along the face of the supporting member is greater than $(W + 5af)$, as shown in [Figure 5.48](#). In addition, beam ledges are supported primarily by tension ties to the supporting member, whereas corbels utilize a compression strut penetrating directly into the supporting member. Beam ledges are generally continuous between points of application of bearing forces. Daps should be considered to be inverted beam ledges.

As illustrated in [Figure 5.45](#), beam ledges shall resist:

- Flexure, shear, and horizontal forces at the location of Crack 1;
- Tension force in the supporting element at the location of Crack 2;
- Punching shear at points of loading at the location of Crack 3; and
- Bearing force at the location of Crack 4.

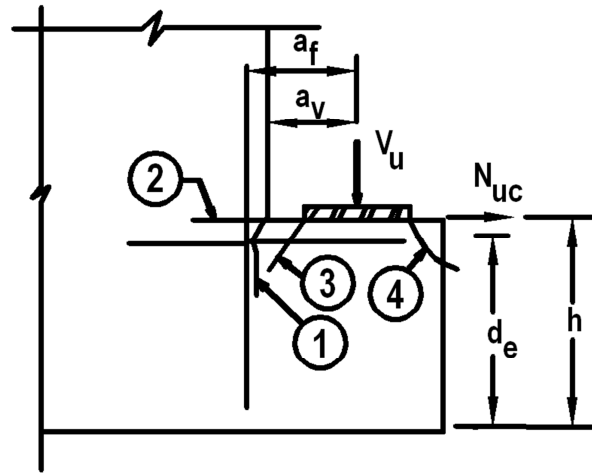


Figure 5.45: Notation and Potential Crack Locations for Ledge Beams.

Beam ledges may be designed in accordance with either the strut-and-tie model or the provisions of Articles 5.17.2.5.2 through 5.17.2.5.5. Bars shown in Figure 5.47 through Figure 5.51 shall be properly developed in accordance with Article 5.16.1.1.

Examples of beam ledges include hinges within spans and inverted T-beam caps, as illustrated in Figure 5.46.

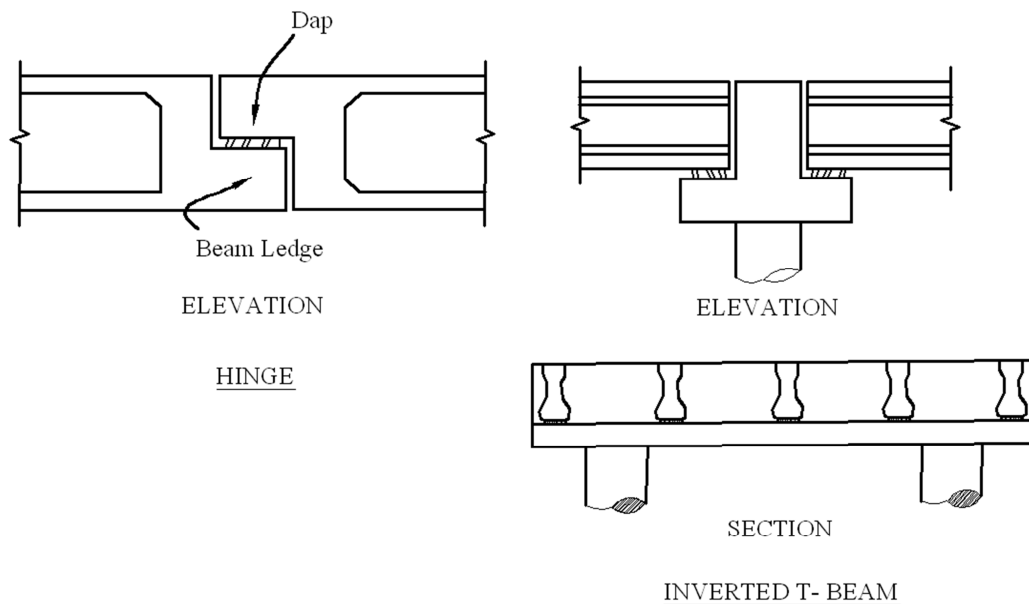


Figure 5.46: Examples of Beam Ledges.

2. Design for Shear

Design of beam ledges for shear shall be in accordance with the requirements for shear friction specified in Article 5.8.7. Nominal interface shear resistance shall satisfy Eq.(5.174) Eq. (5.175) wherein the width of the concrete face, b_w , assumed to participate in resistance to shear shall not exceed S , $(W + 4a_v)$, or $2c$, as illustrated in Figure 5.47.

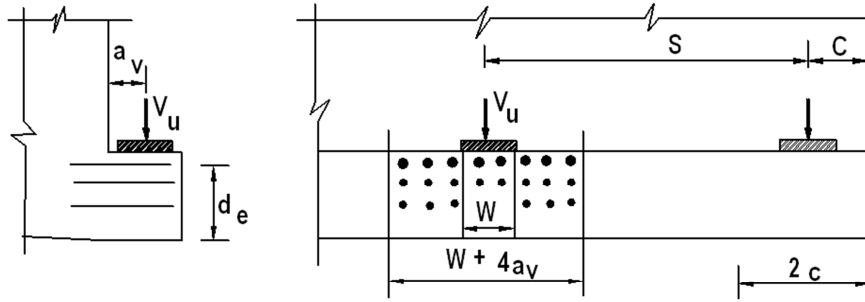


Figure 5.40: Design of Beam Ledges for Shear

Figure 5.47: Design of Beam Ledges for Shear.

3. Design for Flexure and Horizontal Force

The area of total primary tension reinforcement, A_s , shall satisfy the requirements of Article 5.17.

The primary tension reinforcement shall be spaced uniformly within the region $(W + 5a_f)$ or $2c$, as illustrated in Figure 5.48, except that the widths of these regions shall not overlap.

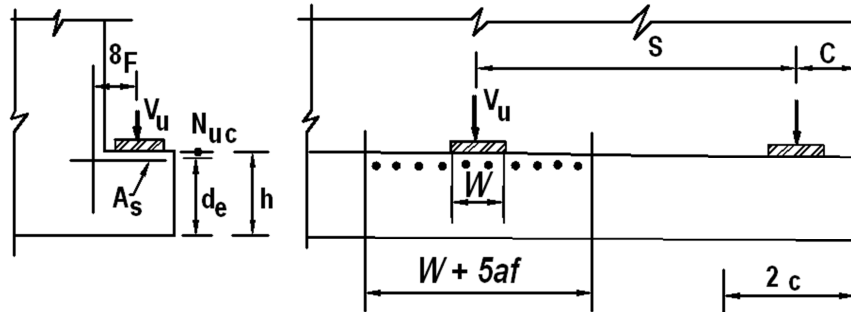


Figure 5.48: Design of Beam Ledges for Flexure and Horizontal Force.

4. Design for Punching Shear

The truncated pyramids assumed as failure surfaces for punching shear, as illustrated in Figure 5.49, shall not overlap.

Nominal punching shear resistance, V_n , in N , may take on of the following cases as shown in Figure 5.49:

- At interior pads, or exterior pads where the end distance c is greater than $S/2$:

$$V_n = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{f'_c} (W + 2L + 2d_e) d_e \quad (5.180)$$

- At exterior pads where the end distance c is less than $S/2$ and $c - 0.5W$ is less than d_e :

$$V_n = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{f'_c} (W + L + d_e) d_e \quad (5.181)$$

- At exterior pads where the end distance c is less than $S/2$, but $(c - 0.5W)$ is greater than d_e :

$$V_n = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{f'_c} (0.5W + L + d_e + c) d_e \quad (5.182)$$

where:

- f'_c = specified strength of concrete at 28 days (MPa)
 W = width of bearing plate or pad as shown in [Figure 5.49](#) (mm)
 L = length of bearing pad as shown in [Figure 5.49](#) (mm)
 d_e = effective depth from extreme compression fiber to centroid of tensile force (mm)
 c = end distance of exterior pads (mm)

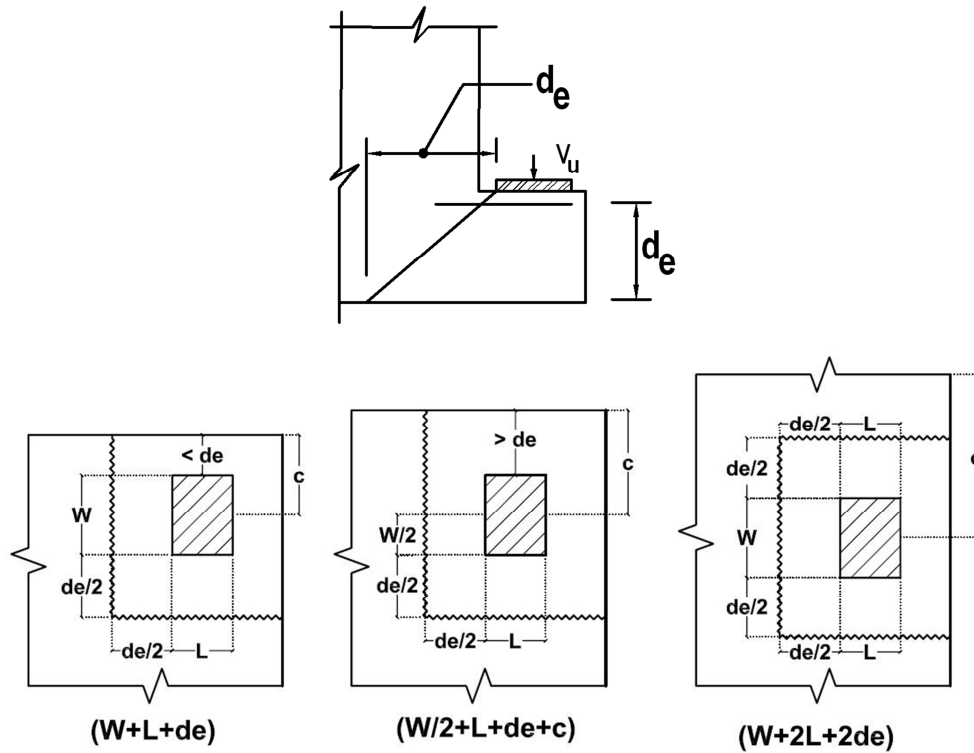


Figure 5.49: Punching Shear Perimeter for Design of Beam Ledges.

5. Design of Hanger Reinforcement

The hanger reinforcement specified herein shall be provided in addition to the lesser shear reinforcement required on either side of the beam reaction being supported.

The arrangement for hanger reinforcement, A_{hr} , in single-beam ledges shall be as shown in [Figure 5.50](#).

Using the notation in [Figure 5.50](#), the nominal shear resistance, V_n , in N, for single-beam ledges shall be taken as:

- For the service limit state:

$$V_n = \frac{A_{hr}(0.5f_y)}{s}(W + 3a_v) \quad (5.183)$$

- For the strength limit state:

$$V_n = \frac{A_{hr}f_y}{s}S \quad (5.184)$$

where:

A_{hr} = area of one leg of hanger reinforcement as illustrated in [Figure 5.50](#) (mm^2)

S = spacing of bearing places (mm)

s = spacing of hangers (mm)

f_y = yield strength of reinforcing steel (MPa)

a_v = distance from face of wall to the load as illustrated in [Figure 5.50](#) (mm)

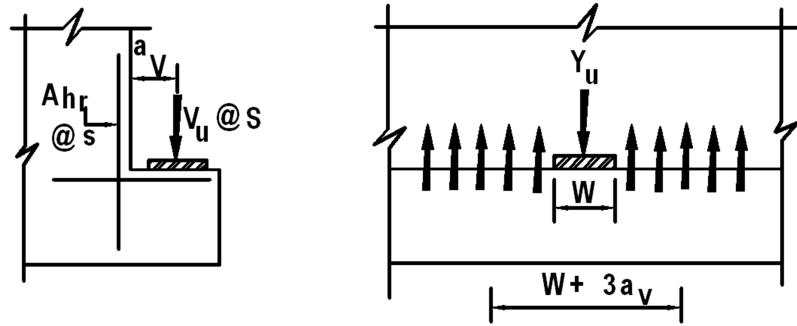


Figure 5.50: Single-Ledge Hanger Reinforcement.

Using the notation in [Figure 5.51](#), the nominal shear resistance of the ledges of inverted T-beams shall be the lesser of that specified by Eq.(5.184) and Eq.(5.185).

$$V_n = \left(0.165\sqrt{f'_c}b_f d_f\right) + \frac{A_{hr}f_y}{s}(W + 2d_f) \quad (5.185)$$

where d_f = distance from top of ledge to compression reinforcement as illustrated in [Figure 5.51](#) (mm)

The edge distance between the exterior bearing pad and the end of the inverted T-beam shall not be less than d_f .

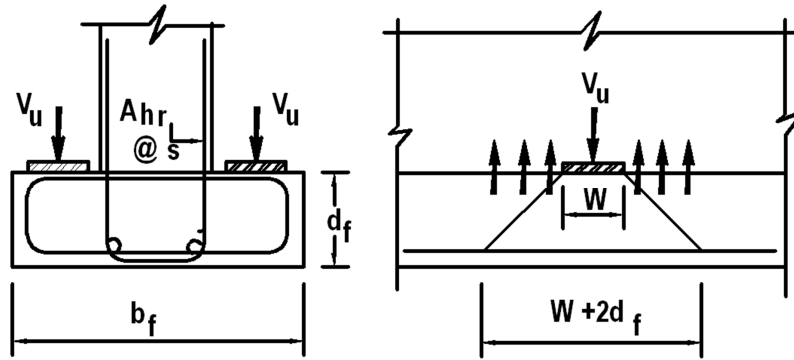


Figure 5.51: Inverted T-beam Hanger Reinforcement.

Inverted T-beams shall satisfy the torsional moment provisions as specified in Article [5.8](#).

6. Design for Bearing

For the design for bearings supported by beam ledges, the provisions of Article [5.7.5](#) shall apply.

5.17.3. Footings

5.17.3.1. General

Provisions herein shall apply to the design of isolated footings, combined footings, and foundation mats.

In sloped or stepped footings, the angle of slope or depth and location of steps shall be such that design requirements are satisfied at every section.

Circular or regular polygon-shaped concrete columns or piers may be treated as square members with the same area for the location of critical sections for moment, shear, and development of reinforcement in footings.

5.17.3.2. Loads and Reactions

The resistance of foundation material for piles shall be as specified in [Section 8](#), “Foundations.”

Where an isolated footing supports a column, pier, or wall, the footing shall be assumed to act as a cantilever. Where a footing supports more than one column, pier, or wall, the footing shall be designed for the actual conditions of continuity and restraint.

For the design of footings, unless the use of special equipment is specified to ensure precision driving of piles, it shall be assumed that individual driven piles may be out of planned position in a footing by either 150 mm or one-quarter of the pile diameter and that the center of a group of piles may be 75 mm from its planned position. For pile bents, the contract documents may require a 50 mm tolerance for pile position, in which case that value should be accounted for in the design.

5.17.3.3. Resistance Factors

For determination of footing size and number of piles, the resistance factors, ϕ , for soil-bearing pressure and for pile resistance as a function of the soil shall be as specified in [Section 8](#).

5.17.3.4. Moment in Footings

The critical section for flexure shall be taken at the face of the column, pier, or wall. In the case of columns that are not rectangular, the critical section shall be taken at the side of the concentric rectangle of equivalent area. For footings under masonry walls, the critical section shall be taken as halfway between the center and edge of the wall. For footings under metallic column bases, the critical section shall be taken as halfway between the column face and the edge of the metallic base.

5.17.3.5. Distribution of Moment Reinforcement

In one-way footings and two-way square footings, reinforcement shall be distributed uniformly across the entire width of the footing.

The following guidelines apply to the distribution of reinforcement in two-way rectangular footings:

- In the long direction, reinforcement shall be distributed uniformly across the entire width of footing.
- In the short direction, a portion of the total reinforcement as specified by Eq. (5.186), shall be distributed uniformly over a band width equal to the length of the short side of footing and centered on the centerline of column or pier. The remainder of reinforcement required in the short direction shall be distributed uniformly outside of the center band width of footing. The area of steel in the band width shall satisfy Eq. (5.186).

$$A_{s-BW} = A_{s-SD} \left(\frac{2}{\beta + 1} \right) \quad (5.186)$$

where:

- β = ratio of the long side to the short side of footing
- A_{s-BW} = area of steel in the band width (mm²)
- A_{s-SD} = total area of steel in short direction (mm²)

5.17.3.6. Shear in Slabs and Footings

1. Critical Sections for Shear

In determining the shear resistance of slabs and footings in the vicinity of concentrated loads or reaction forces, the more critical of the following conditions shall govern:

- One-way action, with a critical section extending in a plane across the entire width and located at a distance taken as specified in Article 5.8.1.3.
- Two-way action, with a critical section perpendicular to the plane of the slab and located s_o that its perimeter, b_o , is a minimum but not closer than $0.5d_v$ to the perimeter of the concentrated load or reaction area.
- Where the slab thickness is not constant, critical sections located at a distance not closer than $0.5d_v$ from the face of any change in the slab thickness and located such that the perimeter, b_o , is a minimum.

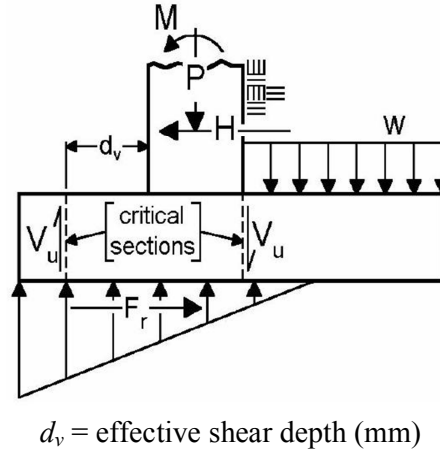


Figure 5.52: Example of Critical Section for Shear in Footings

Where a portion of a pile lies inside the critical section, the pile load shall be considered to be uniformly distributed across the width or diameter of the pile, and the portion of the load outside the critical section shall be included in the calculation of shear on the critical section.

In the general case of a cantilever retaining wall, where the downward load on the heel is larger than the upward reaction of the soil under the heel, the critical section for shear is taken at the back face of the stem, as illustrated in [Figure 5.52](#), in which d_v is the effective depth for shear.

2. One-Way Action

For one-way action, the shear resistance of the footing or slab shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article [5.8](#), except for culverts under 600 mm or more of fill, for which the provisions of Article [5.18.5.3](#) shall apply.

3. Two-Way Action

For two-way action for sections without transverse reinforcement, the nominal shear resistance for non-prestressed slabs and footings, V_n in N, of the concrete shall be taken as:

$$V_n = V_c = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.17 \left(1 + \frac{2}{\beta_c} \right) \sqrt{f'_c} b_o d_v \\ 0.083 \left(\frac{\alpha_s d}{b_o} + 2 \right) \sqrt{f'_c} b_o d_v \\ 0.33 \sqrt{f'_c} b_o d_v \end{array} \right. \quad (5.187)$$

where:

β_c = ratio of long side to short side of the rectangle through which the concentrated load or reaction force is transmitted

b_o = perimeter of the critical section (mm)

d_v = effective shear depth (mm)

$\alpha_s = 40$ for interior columns, 30 for edge columns, 20 for corner columns

Where $V_u > \phi V_n$, shear reinforcement shall be added in compliance with Article 5.8.2.5, with angle θ taken as 45° .

For two-way action for sections with transverse reinforcement, the nominal shear resistance, in N, shall be taken as:

$$V_n = V_c + V_s \leq 0.5 \sqrt{f'_c} b_o d_v \quad (5.188)$$

in which:

$$V_c = \frac{1}{6} \sqrt{f'_c} b_o d_v, \text{ and} \quad (5.189)$$

$$V_s = \frac{A_w f_y d_v}{s} \quad (5.190)$$

For two-way action for sections with prestressed slabs and footings, V_c , in N, shall be taken as:

$$V_c = \left(\beta_p \sqrt{f'_c} + 0.3 f_{pc} \right) b_o d_v + V_p \quad (5.191)$$

in which:

$$\beta_p = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.29 \\ 0.083 \left(1.5 + \frac{\alpha_s d_v}{b_o} \right) \end{array} \right\} \quad (5.192)$$

where f_{pc} shall be taken as the average value of f_{pc} for the two directions, and V_p is the vertical component of all effective prestress forces crossing the critical section. V_c shall be permitted to be computed by Eq. (5.191) if the following are satisfied:

- No portion of the column cross section shall be closer to a discontinuous edge than 4 times the slab thickness;
- The value of β_p used in Eq. (5.191) shall not be taken greater than 0.5 MPa; and
- In each direction, f_{pc} shall not be less than 0.9 MPa, nor be taken greater than 3.5 MPa.

The distance between the column face and the first line of stirrup legs that surround the column shall not exceed $d/2$. The spacing between adjacent stirrup legs in the first line of shear reinforcement shall not exceed $2d$ measured in a direction parallel to the column face. The spacing between successive lines of shear reinforcement that surround the column shall not exceed $d/2$ measured in a direction perpendicular to the column face.

5.17.3.7. Development of Reinforcement

For the development of reinforcement in slabs and footings, the provisions of Article 5.16 shall apply. Critical sections for development of reinforcement shall be assumed to be at the locations specified in Article 5.17.3.4 and at all other vertical planes where changes of section or reinforcement occur.

5.17.3.8. Transfer of Force at Base of Column

All forces and moments applied at the base of a column or pier shall be transferred to the top of footing by bearing on concrete and by reinforcement. Bearing on concrete at the contact surface between the supporting and supported member shall not exceed the concrete bearing strength, as specified in Article 5.7.5, for either surface.

Lateral forces shall be transferred from the pier to the footing in accordance with shear-transfer provisions specified in Article 5.8.7 on the basis of the appropriate bulleted item in Article 5.8.7.1.

Reinforcement shall be provided across the interface between supporting and supported member, either by extending the main longitudinal column or wall reinforcement into footings or by using dowels or anchor bolts.

Reinforcement across the interface shall satisfy the following requirements:

- All force effects that exceed the concrete bearing strength in the supporting or supported member shall be transferred by reinforcement;
- If load combinations result in uplift, the total tensile force shall be resisted by the reinforcement; and
- The area of reinforcement shall not be less than 0.5 percent of the gross area of the supported member, and the number of bars shall not be less than four.

The diameter of dowels, if used, shall not exceed the diameter of longitudinal reinforcement by more than 3.8 mm.

At footings, the 45 and 58 mm Dia. main column longitudinal reinforcement that is in compression only may be lap spliced with footing dowels to provide the required area. Dowels shall be no larger than 36 mm Dia. and shall extend into the column a distance not less than either the development length of the 45 or 58 mm Dia. bars or the splice length of the dowels and into the footing a distance not less than the development length of the dowels.

Shear reinforcement consisting of bars or wires and single- or multiple-leg stirrups shall be permitted in slabs and footings with d greater than or equal to 150 mm, but not less than 16 times the shear reinforcement bar diameter.

5.17.4. Concrete Piles

5.17.4.1. General

All loads resisted by the footing and the weight of the footing itself shall be assumed to be transmitted to the piles. Piles installed by driving shall be designed to resist driving and handling forces. For transportation and erection, a precast pile should be designed for not less than 1.5 times its self-weight.

Any portion of a pile where lateral support adequate to prevent buckling may not exist at all times shall be designed as a column.

The points or zones of fixity for resistance to lateral loads and moments shall be determined by an analysis of the soil properties, as specified in Article 8.7.3.13.3.

Concrete piles shall be embedded into footings or pile caps, as specified in Article 8.7.1.1. Anchorage reinforcement shall consist of either an extension of the pile reinforcement or the use of dowels. Uplift forces or stresses induced by flexure shall be resisted by the reinforcement. The steel ratio for anchorage reinforcement shall not be less than 0.005, and the number of bars shall not be less than four. The reinforcement shall be developed sufficiently to resist a force of $1.25 f_y A_s$.

In addition to the requirements specified in Articles [5.17.4.1](#) through [5.17.4.5](#), piles used in the Seismic Design Categories A, B, C and D shall conform to the requirements specified in Article [5.17.4.6](#).

5.17.4.2. Splices

Splices in concrete of piles shall develop the axial, flexural, shear, and torsional resistance of the pile. Details of splices shall be shown in the contract documents.

5.17.4.3. Precast Reinforced Piles

1. Pile Dimensions

Precast concrete piles may be of uniform section or tapered. Tapered piling shall not be used for trestle construction, except for that portion of the pile that lies below the ground line, or in any location where the piles are to act as columns.

Where concrete piles are not exposed to salt water, they shall have a cross-sectional area measured above the taper of not less than 90 000 mm². Concrete piles used in salt water shall have a cross-sectional area of not less than 142 000 mm². The corners of a rectangular section shall be chamfered.

The diameter of tapered piles measured 600 mm from the point shall be not less than 200 mm where, for all pile cross-sections, the diameter shall be considered as the least dimension through the center of cross-section.

2. Reinforcing Steel

Longitudinal reinforcement shall consist of not less than four bars spaced uniformly around the perimeter of the pile. The area of reinforcing steel shall not be less than 1.5 percent of the gross concrete cross-sectional area measured above the taper.

The full length of longitudinal steel shall be enclosed with spiral reinforcement or equivalent hoops. The spiral reinforcement shall be as specified in Article [5.17.4.4.3](#).

5.17.4.4. Precast Prestressed Piles

1. Pile Dimensions

Prestressed concrete piles may be octagonal, square, or circular and shall conform to the minimum dimensions specified in Article [5.17.4.3.1](#).

Prestressed concrete piles may be solid or hollow. For hollow piles, precautionary measures, such as venting, shall be taken to prevent breakage due to internal water pressure during driving, ice pressure in trestle piles, or gas pressure due to decomposition of material used to form the void.

The wall thickness of cylinder piles shall not be less than 125 mm.

2. Concrete Quality

The compressive strength of the pile at the time of driving shall not be less than 35 MPa.

3. Reinforcement

Unless otherwise specified by the Owner, the prestressing strands should be spaced and stressed to provide a uniform compressive stress on the cross-section of the pile after losses of not less than 5 MPa.

The full length of the prestressing strands shall be enclosed with spiral reinforcement as follows:

For piles not greater than 600 mm in diameter:

- Spiral wire not less than WD 6.0,
- Spiral reinforcement at the ends of piles having a pitch of 75 mm for approximately 16 turns,
- The top 150 mm of pile having five turns of additional spiral winding at 25 mm pitch, and
- For the remainder of the pile, the strands enclosed with spiral reinforcement with not more than 150-mm pitch.

For piles greater than 600 mm in diameter:

- Spiral wire not less than WD 6.0,
- Spiral reinforcement at the end of the piles having a pitch of 50 mm for approximately 16 turns,
- The top 150 mm having four additional turns of spiral winding at 38-mm pitch, and
- For the remainder of the pile, the strands enclosed with spiral reinforcement with not more than 100-mm pitch.

5.17.4.5. Cast-in-Place Piles

Piles cast in drilled holes may be used only where soil conditions permit.

Shells for cast-in-place piles shall be of sufficient thickness and strength to hold their form and to show no harmful distortion during driving or after adjacent shells have been driven and the driving core, if any, has been withdrawn. The contract documents shall stipulate that alternative designs of the shell need be approved by the Engineer before any driving is done.

1. Pile Dimensions

Cast-in-place concrete piles may have a uniform section or may be tapered over any portion if cast in shells or may be bell-bottomed if cast in drilled holes or shafts.

The area at the butt of the pile shall be at least 64 500 mm². The cross-sectional area at the tip of the pile shall be at least 32 300 mm². For pile extensions above the butt, the minimum size shall be as specified for precast piles in Article [5.17.4.3](#).

2. Reinforcing Steel

The area of longitudinal reinforcement shall not be less than 0.8 percent of A_g , with spiral reinforcement not less than WD 6.0 at a pitch of 150 mm. The reinforcing steel shall be extended 3000 mm below the plane where the soil provides adequate lateral restraint.

Shells that are more than 3 mm in thickness may be considered as part of the reinforcement. In corrosive environments, a minimum of 1.5 mm shall be deducted from the shell thickness in determining resistance.

For cast-in-place concrete piling, clear distance between parallel longitudinal, and parallel transverse reinforcing bars shall not be less than five times the maximum aggregate size or 125 mm, except as noted in Article [5.17.4.6](#) for seismic requirements.

5.17.4.6. Seismic Requirements

1. Seismic Design Category A

No additional design provisions need be considered for SDC A.

2. Seismic Design Category B

a. General

Piles for structures in SDC B may be used to resist both axial and lateral loads. The minimum depth of embedment and axial and lateral pile resistances required for seismic loads shall be determined by means of design criteria established by site-specific geological and geotechnical investigations.

Concrete piles shall be anchored to the pile footing or cap by either embedment of reinforcement or anchorages to develop uplift forces. The embedment length shall not be less than the development length required for the reinforcement specified in Article [5.16.2](#).

Concrete-filled pipe piles shall be anchored with steel dowels as specified in Article [5.17.4.1](#), with a minimum steel ratio of 0.01. Dowels shall be embedded as required for concrete piles. Timber and steel piles, including unfilled pipe piles, shall be provided with anchoring devices to develop any uplift forces. The uplift force shall not be taken to be less than 10 percent of the factored axial compressive resistance of the pile.

b. Cast-in-Place Piles

For cast-in-place piles, longitudinal steel shall be provided in the upper end of the pile for a length not less than either one-third of the pile length or 2400 mm, with a minimum steel ratio of 0.005 provided by at least four bars.

For piles less than 610 mm in diameter, spiral reinforcement or equivalent ties of not less than 10 mm Dia. bars shall be provided at pitch not exceeding 225 mm, except that the pitch shall not exceed 100 mm within a length below the pile cap reinforcement of not less than 600 mm or 1.5 pile diameters, whichever is greater. See Articles [5.15.4](#) and [5.15.5](#).

c. Precast Piles

For precast reinforced piles, the longitudinal steel shall not be less than 1 percent of the cross-sectional area and provided by not less than four bars. Spiral reinforcement or equivalent ties of not less than 10 mm Dia. bars shall be provided at a pitch not exceeding 225 mm, except that a 75 mm pitch shall be used within a confinement length not less than 600 mm or 1.5 pile diameters below the pile cap reinforcement.

3. Seismic Design Categories C and D

a. General

In addition to the requirements specified for SDC B, piles in SDCs C and D shall conform to the provisions specified herein.

b. Confinement Length

The upper end of every pile shall be reinforced and confined as a potential plastic hinge region, except where it can be established that there is no possibility of any significant lateral deflection in the pile.

The potential plastic hinge region shall extend from the underside of the pile cap over a length of not less than 2.0 pile diameters or 600 mm. If an analysis of the bridge and pile system indicates that a plastic hinge can form at a lower level, the confinement length with the specified transverse reinforcement and closer pitch, as specified in Article 5.17.4.6.2, shall extend thereto.

c. Volumetric Ratio for Confinement

The volumetric ratio of transverse reinforcement within the confinement length shall be that for columns, as specified in Article 5.15.5.1.4.

d. Cast-in-Place Piles

For cast-in-place piles, longitudinal steel shall be provided for the full length of the pile. In the upper two-thirds of the pile, the longitudinal steel ratio, provided by not less than four bars, shall not be less than 0.75 percent.

For piles less than 610 mm in diameter, spiral reinforcement or equivalent ties of not less than 10 mm Dia. bars shall be provided at a pitch not exceeding 225 mm, except within a length below the pile cap reinforcement of not less than 1200 mm and where the volumetric ratio and splice details shall conform to Articles 5.15.5.1.4, 5.15.5.1.5, and 5.15.5.1.6.

e. Precast Piles

For precast piles, spiral ties shall not be less than 10 mm Dia. bars at a pitch not exceeding 225 mm, except for the top 1200 mm, where the pitch shall be 75 mm and the volumetric ratio and splice details shall conform to Article 5.15.5.1.4.

Liquefaction Design Requirements for piles are discussed in Article 8.5.4.1 in Section 8.

5.18. PROVISIONS FOR STRUCTURE TYPES

5.18.1. Beams and Girders

5.18.1.1. General

The provisions specified herein shall be applied to the design of cast-in-place and precast beams as well as girders with rectangular, I, T, bulb-T, double-T, and open- and closed-box sections.

Precast beams may resist transient loads with or without a superimposed deck. Where a structurally separate concrete deck is applied, it shall be made composite with the precast beams in accordance with the provisions of Article 5.8.7.

The flange width considered to be effective in flexure shall be that specified in Article 4.6.2.6 or Article 5.7.3.4.

5.18.1.2. Precast Beams

1. Pre-service Conditions

The pre-service conditions of prestressed girders for shipping and erection shall be the responsibility of the contractor.

2. Extreme Dimensions

The thickness of any part of precast concrete beams shall not be less than the values indicated in [Table 5.18](#).

Table 5.18: Minimum Dimensions of Parts of Precast Concrete Beams

Part of Member	Minimum Dimension (mm)
Top Flange related to Bulb-T and Double-T girders on which cast-in-place decks are used	50
Web, non-post-tensioned	125
Web, post-tensioned	165
Bottom flange related to box-type sections	125

The maximum dimensions and mass of precast members manufactured at an offsite casting yard shall conform to local hauling restrictions.

3. Lifting Devices

If it is anticipated that anchorages for lifting devices will be cast into the face of a member that will be exposed to view or to corrosive materials in the completed structure, any restriction on locations of embedded lifting devices, the depth of removal, and the method of filling the cavities after removal shall be shown in the contract documents. The depth of removal shall be not less than the depth of cover required for the reinforcing steel.

4. Detail Design

All details of reinforcement, connections, bearing seats, inserts, or anchors for diaphragms, concrete cover, openings, and fabrication and erection tolerances shall be shown in the contract documents.

For any details left to the Contractor's choice, such as prestressing materials or methods, the submittal and review of working drawings shall be required.

5. Concrete Strength

For slow curing concretes, the 90-day compressive strength may be used for all stress combinations that occur after 90 days, provided that the gain in strength is verified by prior tests for the concrete mix utilized.

For normal density concrete, the 90-day strength of slow curing concretes may be estimated as 115 percent of the concrete strength specified in the contract documents.

5.18.1.3. Spliced Precast Girders

1. General

The provisions herein apply to precast girders fabricated in segments that are joined or spliced longitudinally to form the girders in the final structure.

Spliced precast girder bridges may be distinguished from what is referred to as "segmental construction" elsewhere in these Specifications by several features which typically include:

- The lengths of some or all segments in a bridge are a significant fraction of the span length rather than having a number of segments in each span. In some cases, the segment may be the full span length.
- Design of joints between girder segments at the service limit state does not typically govern the design for the entire length of the bridge for either construction or for the completed structure.
- Cast-in-place closure joints are usually used to join girder segments rather than match-cast joints.
- The bridge cross-section is comprised of several individual girders with a cast-in-place concrete composite deck rather than precasting the full width and depth of the superstructure as one piece. In some cases, the deck may be divided into pieces that are integrally cast with each girder. A bridge of this type is completed by connecting the girders across the longitudinal joints.
- Girder sections are used, such as bulb tee or open-topped trapezoidal boxes, rather than closed cell boxes with wide monolithic flanges.

The requirements specified herein shall supplement the requirements of other sections of these Specifications for other than segmentally constructed bridges. Therefore, spliced precast girder bridges shall not be considered as segmental construction for the purposes of design. For special design cases, additional provisions for segmental construction found in Article [5.18.2](#) and other Articles in these Specifications may be used where appropriate.

The method of construction assumed for the design shall be shown in the contract documents. All supports required prior to the splicing of the girder shall be shown on the contract documents, including elevations and reactions. The stage of construction during which the temporary supports are removed shall also be shown on the contract documents.

The contract documents shall indicate alternative methods of construction permitted and the Contractor's responsibilities if such methods are chosen.

Stresses due to changes in the statical system, in particular, the effects of the application of load to one structural system and its removal from a different structural system, shall be accounted for. Redistribution of such stresses by creep shall be taken into account and allowance shall be made for possible variations in the creep rate and magnitude.

Spliced girder superstructures which satisfy all service limit state requirements of this Article may be designed as fully continuous at all limit states for loads applied after the girder segments are joined.

Prestress losses in spliced precast girder bridges may be estimated using the provisions for other than segmentally constructed bridges in Article [5.9.5](#). The effects of combined pretensioning and post-tensioning and staged post-tensioning shall be considered.

When required, the effects of creep and shrinkage in spliced precast girder bridges may be estimated using the provisions for other than segmentally constructed bridges in Article [5.4.2.3](#).

Precast deck girder bridges, for which some or all of the deck is cast integrally with a girder, may be spliced. Spliced structures of this type, which have longitudinal joints

in the deck between each deck girder, shall comply with the additional requirements of Article 5.18.4.3.

Spliced precast girders may be made continuous for some permanent loads using details for simple span precast girders made continuous. In such cases, design shall conform to the applicable requirements of Article 5.18.1.4.

2. Joints between Segments

a. General

Joints between girder segments shall be either cast-in-place closure joints or match-cast joints. Match-cast joints shall satisfy the requirements of Article 5.18.2.4.2.

The sequence of placing concrete for the closure joints and deck shall be specified in the contract documents.

b. Details of Closure Joints

Precast concrete girder segments, with or without a cast-in-place slab, may be made longitudinally continuous for both permanent and transient loads with combinations of post-tensioning and/or reinforcement crossing the closure joints.

The width of a closure joint between precast concrete segments shall allow for the splicing of steel whose continuity is required by design considerations and the accommodation of the splicing of post-tensioning ducts. The width of a closure joint shall not be less than 300 mm, except for joints located within a diaphragm, for which the width shall not be less than 100 mm.

If the width of the closure joint exceeds 150 mm, its compressive chord section shall be reinforced for confinement.

If the joint is located in the span, its web reinforcement, A_s/s , shall be the larger of that in the adjacent girders.

The face of the precast segments at closure joints shall be specified as either intentionally roughened to expose coarse aggregate, or having shear keys in accordance with Article 5.18.2.4.2.

c. Details of Match-Cast Joints

Match-cast joints for spliced precast girder bridges shall be detailed in accordance with Article 5.18.2.4.2.

d. Joint Design

Stress limits for temporary concrete stresses in joints before losses specified in Article 5.9.4.1 for segmentally constructed bridges shall apply at each stage of prestressing (pretensioning or post-tensioning). The concrete strength at the time the stage of prestressing is applied shall be substituted for f'_{ci} in the stress limits.

Stress limits for concrete stresses in joints at the service limit state after losses specified in Article 5.9.4.2 for segmentally constructed bridges shall apply. These stress limits shall also apply for intermediate load stages, with the concrete strength at the time of loading substituted for f'_c in the stress limits.

Resistance factors for joints specified in Article 5.5.4.2.2 for segmental construction shall apply.

The compressive strength of the closure joint concrete at a specified age shall be compatible with design stress limitations.

3. Girder Segment Design

Stress limits for temporary concrete stresses in girder segments before losses specified in Article 5.9.4.1 for other than segmentally constructed bridges shall apply at each stage of prestressing (pretensioning or post-tensioning) with due consideration for all applicable loads during construction. The concrete strength at the time the stage of prestressing is applied shall be substituted for f'_{ci} in the stress limits.

Stress limits for concrete stresses in girder segments at the service limit state after losses specified in Article 5.9.4.2 for other than segmentally constructed bridges shall apply. These stress limits shall also apply for intermediate load stages, with the concrete strength at the time of loading substituted for f'_c in the stress limits.

Where girder segments are precast without prestressed reinforcement, the provisions of Article 5.7.3.4 shall apply until post-tensioning is applied.

Where variable depth girder segments are used, the effect of inclined compression shall be considered.

The potential for buckling of tall thin web sections shall be considered.

4. Post-Tensioning

Post-tensioning may be applied either before and/or after placement of deck concrete. Part of the post-tensioning may be applied to provide girder continuity prior to placement of the deck concrete, with the remainder placed after deck concrete placement.

The contract documents shall require that all post-tensioning tendons shall be fully grouted after stressing.

Prior to grouting of post-tensioning ducts, gross cross-section properties shall be reduced by deducting the area of ducts and void areas around tendon couplers.

Post-tensioning shall be shown on the contract documents according to the requirements of Article 5.18.2.3.9.

Where tendons terminate at the top of a girder segment, the contract documents shall require that duct openings be protected during construction to prevent debris accumulation and that drains be provided at tendon low points.

In the case of multistage post-tensioning, draped ducts for tendons to be tensioned before the slab concrete is placed and attains the minimum specified compressive strength f'_{ci} shall not be located in the slab.

Where some or all post-tensioning tendons are stressed after the deck concrete is placed, provisions shall be shown on the contract plans satisfying the provisions of Article 2.6.2.3 on maintainability of the deck.

5.18.1.4. Bridges Composed of Simple Span Precast Girders Made Continuous

1. General

The provisions of this Article shall apply at the service and strength limit states as applicable.

When the requirements of Article 5.18.1.4 are satisfied, multi-span bridges composed of simple-span precast girders with continuity diaphragms cast between ends of girders at interior supports may be considered continuous for loads placed on the bridge after the continuity diaphragms are installed and have cured.

The connection between girders at the continuity diaphragm shall be designed for all effects that cause moment at the connection, including restraint moments from time-dependent effects, except as allowed in Article 5.18.1.4.

The requirements specified in Article 5.18.1.4 supplement the requirements of other sections of these Specifications for fully prestressed concrete components that are not segmentally constructed.

Multi-span bridges composed of precast girders with continuity diaphragms at interior supports that are designed as a series of simple spans are not required to satisfy the requirements of Article 5.18.1.4.

2. Restraint Moments

The bridge shall be designed for restraint moments that may develop because of time-dependent or other deformations, except as allowed in Article 5.18.1.4.4.

Restraint moments shall not be included in any combination when the effect of the restraint moment is to reduce the total moment.

3. Material Properties

Creep and shrinkage properties of the girder concrete and the shrinkage properties of the deck slab concrete shall be determined from either:

- Tests of concrete using the same proportions and materials that will be used in the girders and deck slab. Measurements shall include the time-dependent rate of change of these properties.
- The provisions of Article 5.4.2.3.

The restraining effect of reinforcement on concrete shrinkage may be considered. Because longitudinal reinforcement in the deck slab restrains the shrinkage of the deck concrete, the apparent shrinkage is less than the free shrinkage of the deck concrete. This effect may be estimated using an effective concrete shrinkage strain, $\epsilon_{effective}$, which may be taken as:

$$\epsilon_{effective} = \epsilon_{sh} \left(\frac{A_c}{A_{tr}} \right) \quad (5.193)$$

where:

ϵ_{sh} = unrestrained shrinkage strain for deck concrete (mm/mm)

A_c = gross area of concrete deck slab (mm²)

A_{tr} = area of concrete deck slab transformed longitudinal reinforcement (mm²)
 $= A_c + A_s(n-1)$

A_s = total area of longitudinal deck reinforcement (mm²)

n = modular ratio between deck concrete and reinforcement
 $= E_s / E_{c \text{ deck}}$

E_c = modulus of elasticity of deck concrete (MPa)
 $deck$

4. Age of Girder When Continuity is established

The minimum age of the precast girder when continuity is established should be specified in the contract documents. This age shall be used for calculating restraint moments due to creep and shrinkage. If no age is specified, a reasonable, but conservative estimate of the time continuity is established shall be used for all calculations of restraint moments.

The following simplification may be applied if acceptable to the Owner and if the contract documents require a minimum girder age of at least 90 days when continuity is established:

- Positive restraint moments caused by girder creep and shrinkage and deck slab shrinkage may be taken to be zero.
- Computation of restraint moments shall not be required.
- A positive moment connection shall be provided with a factored resistance, ϕM_n , not less than $1.2 M_{cr}$, as specified in Article [5.18.1.4.9](#).

For other ages at continuity, the age-related design parameters should be determined from the literature, approved by the Owner, and documented in the contract documents.

5. Degree of Continuity at Various Limit States

Both a positive and negative moment connection, as specified in Articles [5.18.1.4.8](#) and [5.18.1.4.9](#) are required for all continuity diaphragms, regardless of the degree of continuity as defined in this Article.

The connection between precast girders at a continuity diaphragm shall be considered fully effective if either of the following is satisfied:

- The calculated stress at the bottom of the continuity diaphragm for the combination of superimposed permanent loads, settlement, creep, shrinkage, 50 percent live load and temperature gradient, if applicable, is compressive.
- The contract documents require that the age of the precast girders shall be at least 90 days when continuity is established and the design simplifications of Article [5.18.1.4.4](#) are used.

If the connection between precast girders at a continuity diaphragm does not satisfy these requirements, the joint shall be considered partially effective.

Superstructures with fully effective connections at interior supports may be designed as fully continuous structures for loads applied after continuity is established.

Superstructures with partially effective connections at interior supports shall be designed as continuous structures for loads applied after continuity is established for strength limit states only.

Gross composite girder section properties, ignoring any deck cracking, may be used for analysis as specified in Article [4.5.2.2](#).

If the negative moment resistance of the section at an interior support is less than the total amount required, the positive design moments in the adjacent spans shall be increased appropriately for each limit state investigated.

6. Service Limit State

Simple-span precast girders made continuous shall be designed to satisfy service limit state stress limits given in Article [5.9.4](#). For service load combinations that involve

traffic loading, tensile stresses in prestressed members shall be investigated using the Service III load combination specified in [Table 3.1](#).

At the service limit state after losses, when tensile stresses develop at the top of the girders near interior supports, the tensile stress limits specified in [Table 5.9](#) for other than segmentally constructed bridges shall apply. The specified compressive strength of the girder concrete, f'_c , shall be substituted for f'_{ci} in the stress limit equations. The Service III load combination shall be used to compute tensile stresses for these locations.

Alternatively, the top of the precast girders at interior supports may be designed as reinforced concrete members at the strength limit state. In this case, the stress limits for the service limit state shall not apply to this region of the precast girder.

A cast-in-place composite deck slab shall not be subject to the tensile stress limits for the service limit state after losses specified in [Table 5.11](#).

7. Strength Limit State

The connections between precast girders and a continuity diaphragm shall be designed for the strength limit state.

The reinforcement in the deck slab shall be proportioned to resist negative design moments at the strength limit state.

8. Negative Moment Connections

The reinforcement in a cast-in-place, composite deck slab in a multi-span precast girder bridge made continuous shall be proportioned to resist negative design moments at the strength limit state.

Longitudinal reinforcement used for the negative moment connection over an interior pier shall be anchored in regions of the slab that are in compression at strength limit states and shall satisfy the requirements of Article [5.16.1.2.3](#). The termination of this reinforcement shall be staggered. All longitudinal reinforcement in the deck slab may be used for the negative moment connection.

Negative moment connections between precast girders into or across the continuity diaphragm shall satisfy the requirements of Article [5.16.5](#). These connections shall be permitted where the bridge is designed with a composite deck slab and shall be required where the bridge is designed without a composite deck slab. Additional connection details shall be permitted if the strength and performance of these connections is verified by analysis or testing.

The requirements of Article [5.7.3](#) shall apply to the reinforcement in the deck slab and at negative moment connections at continuity diaphragms.

9. Positive Moment Connections

a. General

Positive moment connections at continuity diaphragms shall be made with reinforcement developed into both the girder and continuity diaphragm. Three types of connections shall be permitted:

- Reinforcing bars embedded in the precast girders and developed into the continuity diaphragm.
- Pretensioning strands extended beyond the end of the girder and anchored into the continuity diaphragm. These strands shall not be de-bonded at the end of the girder.

- Any connection detail shown by analysis, testing or as approved by the bridge owner to provide adequate positive moment resistance.

Additional requirements for connections made using each type of reinforcement are given in subsequent Articles.

The critical section for the development of positive moment reinforcement into the continuity diaphragm shall be taken at the face of the girder. The critical section for the development of positive moment reinforcement into the precast girder shall consider conditions in the girder as specified in this Article for the type of reinforcement used.

The requirements of Article 5.7.3, except Article 5.7.3.3.2, shall apply to the reinforcement at positive moment connections at continuity diaphragms. This reinforcement shall be proportioned to resist the larger of the following, except when using the design simplifications of Article 5.18.1.4.4:

- Factored positive restraint moment, or
- $0.6 M_{cr}$

The cracking moment M_{cr} shall be computed using Eq. (5.39) with the gross composite section properties for the girder and the effective width of composite deck slab, if any, and the material properties of the concrete in the continuity diaphragm.

The precast girders shall be designed for any positive restraint moments that are used in design. Near the ends of girders, the reduced effect of prestress within the transfer length shall be considered.

b. Positive Moment Connection Using Reinforcing Bars

The anchorage of reinforcing bars used for positive moment connections shall satisfy the requirements of Article 5.16 and the additional requirements of this Article. Where positive moment reinforcement is added between pretensioned strands, consolidation of concrete and bond of reinforcement shall be considered.

The critical section for the development of positive moment reinforcement into the precast girder shall consider conditions in the girder. The reinforcement shall be developed beyond the inside edge of the bearing area. The reinforcement shall also be detailed so that, for strands considered in resisting positive moments within the end of the girder, de-bonding of strands does not terminate within the development length.

Where multiple bars are used for a positive moment connection, the termination of the reinforcement shall be staggered in pairs symmetrical about the centerline of the precast girder.

c. Positive Moment Connection Using Prestressing Strand

Pretensioning strands that are not de-bonded at the end of the girder may be extended into the continuity diaphragm as positive moment reinforcement. The extended strands shall be anchored into the diaphragm by bending the strands into a 90-degree hook or by providing a development length as specified in Article 5.16.4.

The stress in the strands used for design, as a function of the total length of the strand, shall not exceed:

$$f_{psl} = \frac{(\ell_{dsh} - 203)}{0.840} \quad (5.194)$$

$$f_{pul} = \frac{(\ell_{dsh} - 203)}{0.600} \quad (5.195)$$

where:

- ℓ_{dsh} = total length of extended strand (mm)
- f_{psl} = stress in the strand at the service limit state Cracked section shall be assumed (MPa)
- f_{pul} = stress in the strand at the strength limit state (MPa)

Strands shall project at least 200 mm from the face of the girder before they are bent.

d. Details of Positive Moment Connection

Positive moment reinforcement shall be placed in a pattern that is symmetrical, or as nearly symmetrical as possible, about the centerline of the cross-section.

Fabrication and erection issues shall be considered in the detailing of positive moment reinforcement in the continuity diaphragm. Reinforcement from opposing girders shall be detailed to mesh during erection without significant conflicts. Reinforcement shall be detailed to enable placement of anchor bars and other reinforcement in the continuity diaphragm.

10. Continuity Diaphragms

The design of continuity diaphragms at interior supports may be based on the strength of the concrete in the precast girders.

Precast girders may be embedded into continuity diaphragms.

If horizontal diaphragm reinforcement is passed through holes in the precast beam or is attached to the precast element using mechanical connectors, the end precast element shall be designed to resist positive moments caused by superimposed dead loads, live loads, creep and shrinkage of the girders, shrinkage of the deck slab, and temperature effects. Design of the end of the girder shall account for the reduced effect of prestress within the transfer length.

Where ends of girders are not directly opposite each other across a continuity diaphragm, the diaphragm must be designed to transfer forces between girders. Continuity diaphragms shall also be designed for situations where an angle change occurs between opposing girders.

5.18.1.5. Cast-in-Place Girders and Box and T-Beams

1. Flange and Web Thickness

a. Top Flange

The thickness of top flanges serving as deck slabs shall be:

- As determined in [Section 7](#);
- As required for anchorage and cover for transverse prestressing, if used; and
- Not less than the clear span between fillets, haunches, or webs divided by 20, unless transverse ribs at a spacing equal to the clear span are used or transverse prestressing is provided.

b. Bottom Flange

The bottom flange thickness shall be not less than:

- 140 mm;
- the distance between fillets or webs of non-prestressed girders and beams divided by 16; or
- the clear span between fillets, haunches, or webs for prestressed girders divided by 30, unless transverse ribs at a spacing equal to the clear span are used.

c. Web

The thickness of webs shall be determined by requirements for shear, torsion, concrete cover, and placement of concrete.

Changes in girder web thickness shall be tapered for a minimum distance of 12.0 times the difference in web thickness.

2. Reinforcement**a. Deck Slab Reinforcement Cast-in- Place in T-Beams and Box Girders**

The reinforcement in the deck slab of cast-in-place T-beams and box girders may be determined by either the traditional or the empirical design methods specified in [Section 7](#).

Where the deck slab does not extend beyond the exterior web, at least one-third of the bottom layer of the transverse reinforcement in the deck slab shall be extended into the exterior face of the outside web and anchored by a standard 90° hook. If the slab extends beyond the exterior web, at least one-third of the bottom layer of the transverse reinforcement shall be extended into the slab overhang and shall have an anchorage beyond the exterior face of the web not less in resistance than that provided by a standard hook.

b. Bottom Slab Reinforcement in Cast-in-Place Box Girders

A uniformly distributed reinforcement of 0.4 percent of the flange area shall be placed in the bottom slab parallel to the girder span, either in single or double layers. The spacing of such reinforcement shall not exceed 450 mm.

A uniformly distributed reinforcement of 0.5 percent of the cross-sectional area of the slab, based on the least slab thickness, shall be placed in the bottom slab transverse to the girder span. Such reinforcement shall be distributed over both surfaces with a maximum spacing of 450 mm. All transverse reinforcement in the bottom slab shall be extended to the exterior face of the outside web in each group and shall be anchored by a standard 90° hook.

5.18.2. Segmental Construction**5.18.2.1. General**

For segmental construction, superstructures of single or multiple box sections are generally used. Segmental construction includes construction by free cantilever, span-by-span, or incremental launching methods using either precast or cast-in-place concrete segments which are joined to produce either continuous or simple spans.

Bridges utilizing beam-type sections may also be constructed using segmental construction techniques. Such bridges, which are referred to as spliced precast girder bridges in these Specifications, are considered to be a special case of conventional concrete bridges. The design of such bridges is covered in Article [5.18.1.3](#).

The span length of bridges considered by these Specifications ranges to 240 000 mm. Bridges supported by stay cables are not specifically covered in this Article, although many of the specification provisions are also applicable to them.

The requirements specified herein shall supplement the requirements of other sections of these Specifications for concrete structures designed to be constructed by the segmental method.

The provisions herein shall apply only to segmental construction using normal-density concrete.

The method of construction and any required temporary support is of paramount importance in the design of segmental concrete bridges. Such considerations often govern final conditions in the selection of section dimensions and reinforcing and/or prestressing.

The method of construction assumed for the design shall be shown in the contract documents. Temporary supports required prior to the time the structure, or component thereof, is capable of supporting itself and subsequently applied loads, shall also be shown in the contract documents.

For segmentally constructed bridges, designs should and generally do allow the Contractor some latitude in choice of construction methods. To ensure that the design features and details to be used are compatible with the proposed construction method, it is essential that the Contractor be required to prepare working drawings and calculations based on his choice of methods for review and approval by the Engineer before work begins.

The contract documents shall indicate alternative methods of construction permitted and the Contractor's responsibilities if such methods are chosen.

5.18.2.2. Analysis of Segmental Bridges

1. General

The analysis of segmentally constructed bridges shall conform to the requirements of [Section 4](#) and those specified herein.

2. Construction Analysis

For the analysis of the structure during the construction stage, the construction load combinations, stresses, and stability considerations shall be as specified in Article [5.18.2.3](#).

3. Analysis of the Final Structural System

The final structural system shall be analyzed for redistribution of construction-stage force effects due to internal deformations and changes in support and restraint conditions, including accumulated locked-in force effects resulting from the construction process.

Because the creep coefficient will be known or determined with reasonable accuracy under the requirements of these Specifications, analysis using a single value

of the creep coefficient is considered satisfactory, and use of low and high values of the creep coefficient in analysis is generally considered unnecessary.

Joints in segmental girders made continuous by un-bonded post-tensioning steel shall be investigated for the simultaneous effect of axial force, moment, and shear that may occur at a joint. These force effects, the opening of the joint, and the remaining contact surface between the components shall be determined by global consideration of strain and deformation. Shear shall be assumed to be transmitted through the contact area only.

As joining components with unbonded tendons may permit the opening of unreinforced joints at or close to strength limit states. The Designer should review the structural consequences of such joint openings.

5.18.2.3. Design

1. Loads

In addition to the loads specified in [Section 3](#), the construction loads specified in Articles [5.18.2.3.2](#) through [5.18.2.3.4](#) shall be considered.

2. Construction Loads

Construction loads comprise all loadings arising from the Designer's anticipated system of temporary supporting works and/or special erection equipment to be used in accordance with the assumed construction sequence and schedule.

Construction loads and conditions that are assumed in the design and that determine section dimensions, camber, and reinforcing and/or prestressing requirements shall be shown as maxima allowed in the contract documents. In addition to erection loads, any required temporary supports or restraints shall be defined as to magnitude or included as part of the design. The acceptable closure forces due to misalignment corrections shall be stated. Due allowance shall be made for all effects of any changes of the statical structural scheme during construction and the application, changes, or removal of the assumed temporary supports of special equipment, taking into account residual force effects, deformations, and any strain-induced effects.

Controls are essential to prevent damage to the structure during construction and to ensure adequacy of the completed structure. It is also essential for the bidders to be able to determine if their equipment and proposed construction methods can be used without modifying the design or the equipment.

The contract documents should require the Engineer's approval of any changes in the assumed erection loadings or conditions.

Construction loads may be imposed on opposing cantilever ends by use of the formtraveler, diagonal alignment bars, a jacking tower, or external weights. Cooling of one cantilever with water has also been used to provide adjustment of misalignment. Any misalignment of interior cantilevers should be corrected at both ends before constructing either closure. The frame connecting cantilever ends at closure pours should be detailed to prevent differential rotation between cantilevers until the final structural connection is complete. The magnitude of closure forces should not induce stresses in the structure in excess of those tabulated in [Table 5.19](#).

The following construction loads shall be considered:

$$DC = \text{weight of the supported structure (N)}$$

- DIFF* = differential load: applicable only to balanced cantilever construction taken as 2 percent of the dead load applied to one cantilever (N).
- DW* = superimposed dead load (N) or (N/mm)
- CLL* = distributed construction live load: an allowance for miscellaneous items of plant, machinery, and other equipment, apart from the major specialized erection equipment; taken as 4.8×10^{-4} MPa of deck area; in cantilever construction, this load is taken as 4.8×10^{-4} MPa on one cantilever and 2.4×10^{-4} MPa on the other; for bridges built by incremental launching, this load may be neglected (MPa)
- CE* = specialized construction equipment: the load from segment delivery trucks and any special equipment, including a formtraveler launching gantry, beam and winch, truss, or similar major auxiliary structure and the maximum loads applied to the structure by the equipment during the lifting of segments (N)
- IE* = dynamic load from equipment: determined according to the type of machinery anticipated (N)
- CLE* = longitudinal construction equipment load: the longitudinal load from the construction equipment (N)
- U* = segment unbalance: the effect of any outof-balance segments or other unusual conditions as applicable; applies primarily to balanced cantilever construction but may be extended to include any unusual lifting sequence that may not be a primary feature of the generic construction system (N)
- WS* = horizontal wind load on structures in accordance with the provisions of [Section 3](#) (MPa)
- WE* = horizontal wind load on equipment; taken as 4.8×10^{-3} MPa of exposed surface (MPa)
- WUP* = wind uplift on cantilever: 2.4×10^{-4} MPa of deck area for balanced cantilever construction applied to one side only, unless an analysis of site conditions or structure configuration indicates otherwise (MPa)
- A* = static weight of precast segment being handled (N)
- AI* = dynamic response due to accidental release or application of a precast segment load or other sudden application of an otherwise static load to be added to the dead load; taken as 100 percent of load *A* (N)
- CR* = creep effects in accordance with Article [5.18.2.3.6](#)
- SH* = shrinkage in accordance with Article [5.18.2.3.6](#)
- T* = thermal: the sum of the effects due to uniform temperature variation (*TU*) and temperature gradients (*TG*) (°)

The load *DIFF* allows for possible variations in cross-section weight due to construction irregularities.

For very gradual lifting of segments, where the load involves small dynamic effects, the dynamic load IE may be taken as 10 percent of the lifted weight.

The following information is based on some past experience and should be considered very preliminary.

Formtravelers for cast-in-place segmental construction for a typical two-lane bridge with 4.50 to 4.90 m segments may be estimated to weigh 710 to 800 kN. Weight of formtravelers for wider doublecelled box sections may range up to approximately 1250 kN. Consultation with contractors or subcontractors experienced in free cantilever construction, with respect to the specific bridge geometry under consideration, is recommended to obtain a design value for formtraveler weight.

3. Construction Load Combinations at the Service Limit State

Flexural tension and principal tension stresses shall be determined at service limit states as specified in [Table 5.19](#), for which the following notes apply:

- Note 1: equipment not working,
- Note 2: normal erection, and
- Note 3: moving equipment.

The stresses in [Table 5.19](#) limit construction load stresses to less than the modulus of rupture of the concrete for structures with internal tendons and Type A joints¹. The construction load stresses should not, therefore, generate any cracking.

Stress limits shall conform to Article [5.9.4](#). The distribution and application of the individual erection loads appropriate to a construction phase shall be selected to produce the most unfavorable effects. The construction load compressive stress in concrete shall not exceed $0.50 f'_c$, where f'_c is the compressive strength at the time of load application.

Tensile stresses in concrete due to construction loads shall not exceed the values specified in [Table 5.19](#), except for structures with Type A joints and less than 60 percent of their tendon capacity provided by internal tendons, the tensile stresses shall not exceed $0.25\sqrt{f'_c}$.

For structures with Type B joints², no tensile stresses shall be permitted.

¹ Type A joints includes cast-in-place concrete joints, wet concrete joints or epoxy joints.

² Type B joints consist of dry joints between precast units.

Table 5.19: Load Factors and Tensile Stress Limits for Construction Load Combinations

Load Combination	LOAD FACTOR														STRESS LIMITS				See Note
	Dead load		Live load		Wind load				Other loads				Earth loads	Flexural tension		Principal tension			
	DC	DIFF	U	CLL	IE	CLE	WS	WUP	WE	CR	SH	TU	TG	WA	EH EV ES	Excluding Other Load	Including Other Load	Excluding Other Load	
a	1.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	γ_{TG}	1.0	1.0	$0.5 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.58 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.289 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.331 \sqrt{f'_c}$	-
b	1.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	γ_{TG}	1.0	1.0	$0.5 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.58 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.289 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.331 \sqrt{f'_c}$	-
c	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	γ_{TG}	1.0	1.0	$0.5 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.58 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.289 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.331 \sqrt{f'_c}$	-
d	1.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	γ_{TG}	1.0	1.0	$0.5 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.58 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.289 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.331 \sqrt{f'_c}$	1
e	1.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	1.0	1.0	γ_{TG}	1.0	1.0	$0.5 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.58 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.289 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.331 \sqrt{f'_c}$	2
f	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	1.0	1.0	γ_{TG}	1.0	1.0	$0.5 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.58 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.289 \sqrt{f'_c}$	$0.331 \sqrt{f'_c}$	3

Note 1: equipment not working,

Note 2: normal erection, and

Note 3: moving equipment.

4. Construction Load Combinations at Strength Limit States

The factored resistance of a component, determined by using resistance factors as specified in Article 5.5.4.2, shall not be less than the following:

- For maximum force effects:

$$\sum \gamma Q = 1.1(DL + DIFF) + 1.3CE + A + AI \quad (5.196)$$

- For minimum force effects:

$$\sum \gamma Q = DC + CE + A + AI \quad (5.197)$$

5. Thermal Effects during Construction

Thermal effects that may occur during the construction of the bridge shall be considered.

If the temperature needed to the design is related annual temperature variations, it should be adjusted for the actual duration of superstructure construction as well as for local conditions.

Transverse analysis for the effects of differential temperature outside and inside box girder sections is not generally considered necessary. However, such an analysis may be necessary for relatively shallow bridges with thick webs. In that case, a $\pm 6.0^\circ\text{C}$ temperature differential is recommended.

The temperature setting variations for bearings and expansion joints shall be stated in the contract documents.

6. Creep and Shrinkage

Creep coefficient $\Psi(t, t_i)$ shall be determined in accordance with Article 5.4.2.3 or by comprehensive tests. Stresses shall be determined for redistribution of restraint stresses developed by creep and shrinkage that are based on the assumed construction schedule as stated in the contract documents.

Creep strains and prestress losses that occur after closure of the structure cause a redistribution of the force effects.

For permanent loads, the behavior of segmental bridges after closure may be approximated by use of an effective modulus of elasticity, E_{eff} , which may be calculated as:

$$E_{eff} = \frac{E_c}{\Psi(t, t_i) + 1} \quad (5.198)$$

where $\Psi(t, t_i)$ is the creep coefficient.

For determining the final post-tensioning forces, prestress losses shall be calculated for the construction schedule stated in the contract documents.

7. Prestress Losses

The applicable provisions of Article 5.9.5 shall apply.

The friction and wobble coefficients in Article 5.9.5.2.2 for galvanized duct were developed for conventional cast-in-place box girder bridges based on job-site tests of various sizes and lengths of tendons. The values are reasonably accurate for tendons comprised of 12 strands of 12.7 mm diameter in a 67-mm diameter galvanized metal sheathing. Tests and experience indicate that the values are conservative for larger

tendons and duct diameters. However, experience with segmental concrete bridges to date has often indicated higher friction and wobble losses due to movement of ducts during concrete placement and misalignment at segment joints. For this reason, in-place friction tests are recommended at an early stage in major projects as a basis for modifying friction and wobble loss values. No reasonable values for friction and wobble coefficients can be recommended to account for gross duct misalignment problems. As a means of compensating for high friction and wobble losses or provisional post-tensioning tendons as well as for other contingencies, additional ducts are required in accordance with Article [5.18.2.3.8](#).

8. Provisional Post-Tensioning Ducts and Anchorages

a. General

Provisions for adjustments of prestressing force to compensate for unexpected losses during construction or at a later time, future dead loads, and control of cracking and deflections shall be considered. Where such adjustments are deemed necessary, the requirements specified herein shall be satisfied.

b. Bridges with Internal Ducts

For bridges with internal ducts, provisional anchorage and duct capacity for negative and positive moment tendons located symmetrically about the bridge centerline shall provide for an increase in the post-tensioning force during original construction. The total provisional force potential of both positive and negative moment anchorages and ducts shall not be less than 5 percent of the total positive and negative moment post-tensioning forces, respectively. Anchorages for the provisional prestressing force shall be distributed uniformly at three segment intervals along the length of the bridge.

Excess capacity may be provided by use of oversize ducts and oversize anchorage hardware at selected anchorage locations.

At least one empty duct per web shall be provided. For continuous bridges, provisional positive moment ducts and anchorage capacity need not be used for 25 percent of the span length on either side of the pier supports.

Any provisional ducts not used for adjustment of the post-tensioning force shall be grouted at the same time as other ducts in the span.

The purpose of grouting unused ducts is to prevent entrapment of water in the ducts.

c. Provision for Future Dead Load or Deflection Adjustment

Provision shall be made for access and for anchorage attachments, pass-through openings, and deviation block attachments to permit future addition of corrosion-protected un-bonded external tendons located inside the box section symmetrically about the bridge centerline for a post-tensioning force of not less than 10 percent of the positive moment and negative moment post-tensioning force.

This provides for future addition of internal unbonded post-tensioning tendons draped from the top of the diaphragm at piers to the intersection of the web and flange at midspan. Tendons from adjacent spans should be lapped at opposite faces of the diaphragm to provide negative moment capacity. The requirement of a force of 10 percent of the positive moment and negative moment post-tensioning force is an arbitrary but reasonable value. Provision for larger amounts of posttensioning might be

developed, as necessary, to carry specific amounts of additional dead load as considered appropriate for the structure.

9. Plan Presentation

Contract documents shall include description of one construction method upon which the design is based. Contract drawings shall be detailed according to the provisions of MA-100-C-V1/1, Section 12, "Prestressing."

Integrated drawings utilizing the assumed system should be defined to a scale and quality required to confirm elimination of interferences by all items embedded in the concrete.

The concrete cross-section shall be proportioned to accommodate an assumed post-tensioning system, reinforcing steel, and all other embedded items. The concrete cross-section should also accommodate comparable anchorage sizes of competitive post-tensioning systems, unless noted otherwise on the plans.

10. Box Girder Cross-Section Dimensions and Details

a. Minimum Flange Thickness

Top and bottom flange thickness shall not be less than any of the following:

- $1/30$ the clear span between webs or haunches. A lesser dimension will require transverse ribs at spacing equal to the clear span between webs or haunches.
- Top flange thickness shall not be less than 225 mm in anchorage zones where transverse post-tensioning is used and 200 mm beyond anchorage zones or for pretensioned slabs.

Transverse post-tensioning or pretensioning shall be used where the clear span between webs or haunches is 4.5 m or larger. Strands used for transverse pretensioning shall be 12.7 mm diameter or less.

b. Minimum Web Thickness

The following minimum values shall apply:

- Webs with no longitudinal or vertical post-tensioning tendons—200 mm
- Webs with only longitudinal (or vertical) post-tensioning tendons—300 mm
- Webs with both longitudinal and vertical tendons—375 mm

The minimum thickness of ribbed webs may be taken as 175 mm.

c. Length of Top Flange Cantilever

The cantilever length of the top flange measured from the centerline of the web should preferably not exceed 0.45 the interior span of the top flange measured between the centerline of the webs.

d. Overall Cross-Section Dimensions

Overall dimensions of the box girder cross-section should preferably not be less than that required to limit live load plus impact deflection calculated using the gross section moment of inertia and the secant modulus of elasticity to $1/1000$ of the span. The live loading shall consist of all traffic lanes fully loaded and adjusted for the

number of loaded lanes as specified in Article 3.6.1.1.2. The live loading shall be considered to be uniformly distributed to all longitudinal flexural members.

Girder depth and web spacing determined in accordance with the following dimensional ranges will generally provide satisfactory deflection behavior:

- Constant depth girder $1/5 > d_o / L > 1/30$ optimum $1/18$ to $1/20$

where:

d_o = girder depth (mm)

L = span length between supports (mm)

In case of incrementally launched girders, the girder depth should preferably be between the following limits:

For $L = 30\,000$ mm, $1/15 > d_o / L > 1/12$

For $L = 60\,000$ mm, $1/13.5 > d_o / L > 1/11.5$

For $L = 90\,000$ mm, $1/12 > d_o / L > 1/11$

- Variable depth girder with straight haunches at pier $1/16 > d_o / L > 1/20$ optimum $1/18$
at center of span $1/22 > d_o / L > 1/28$ optimum $1/24$

A diaphragm will be required at the point where the bottom flange changes direction.

- Variable depth girder with circular or parabolic haunches at pier $1/16 > d_o / L > 1/20$ optimum $1/18$
at center of span $1/30 > d_o / L > 1/50$

- Depth width ratio

A single cell box should preferably be used when $\frac{d_o}{b} \geq 1/6$

where b = width of the top flange

If in a single cell box the limit of depth to width ratio given above is exceeded, a more rigorous analysis is required and longitudinal edge beams at the tip of the cantilever may be required to distribute loads acting on the cantilevers. An analysis for shear lag should be made in such cases. Transverse load distribution is not substantially increased by the use of three or more cells.

e. Overlays

Overlays shall be considered for all bridge decks exposed to freeze thaw cycles and application of deicing chemicals. The MOMRA should consider providing additional protection against penetration of chlorides. For all types of segmental bridges (precast and cast-in-place), it is recommended that this additional protection be provided by the addition of a minimum of 40 mm of concrete cover, added as an overlay or alternatively a waterproof membrane with bituminous overlay. The MOMRA may require specific materials and placement techniques stipulated by local practices.

Overlays are encouraged instead of the inclusion of additional monolithic concrete because an overlay will add protection at the critical segment joint. Delamination of overlays is generally due to poor installation practices or material selection and can be resolved. It is not recommended that the additional cover be obtained by merely increasing concrete covers. The added cover will not add protection across the segment joint which is the area of most concern due to the ability of the water to migrate to the tendon and reinforcement.

Careful attention to detail is required when using overlays to assure the proper railing heights are obtained. All railings next to deck areas to be overlaid should be detailed from the top of the overlay.

The need to remove and replace the overlay can be based on measurement of chloride penetration into the overlay. Use of high performance concrete is an effective means of minimizing chloride penetration into concrete.

Bridges located in other corrosive environments, such as coastal bridges over salt water, should be evaluated for the need for additional protection.

11. Seismic Design

The distinction between bonded tendons and unbonded tendons with respect to seismic behavior reflects the general condition that bonded tendons are effectively bonded at all sections along the span, whereas unbonded tendons are effectively bonded at only their anchorages and intermediate bonded sections, such as deviators. Hence, the overall section strength achieved with bonded tendons is typically larger than that achieved with unbonded tendons. However, both bonded and unbonded tendons have been shown to provide significant displacement ductility.

- C However, bonded tendons in segmental construction provide less ductility due to the concentration of stresses at the joint if joints are open during a seismic event. Whereas, unbonded tendons for the segmental construction are not prone to have this adverse effect of high stress concentrations at joint locations

Segmental superstructure design with moment resisting column to superstructure connections shall consider the inelastic hinging forces from columns in accordance with Article [3.9.9.4.3](#). Bridge superstructures in Seismic Design Categories C and D with moment resisting column to superstructure connections shall be reinforced with ductile details to resist longitudinal and transverse flexural demands produced by column plastic hinging.

Segment joints shall provide capacity to transfer seismic demands.

Superstructure prestressing steel shall be designed to remain below yield for the combined dead load plus seismic demands. The stress in the prestressing steel may be computed by detailed moment curvature analysis, with the stress in bonded prestressing steel computed by strain compatibility with the section and the stress in un-bonded prestressing steel computed using global displacement compatibility between bonded sections of tendons located within the span.

Superstructures are designed for forces to resist plastic-hinging of the column(s). Frames are modeled using soil springs on the substructure, and stress-strain relationships for the concrete and steel. The frame is pushed, to incur plastic hinges in the columns, and reaches a point of collapse. The resulting displacement must be greater than that from a three-dimensional linear dynamic analysis. The acceleration response spectrum (ARS) may be generic for the soil-type and anticipated acceleration, or be developed for the specific bridge site.

5.18.2.4. Types of Segmental Bridges

1. General

Bridges designed for segmentally placed superstructures shall conform to the requirements specified herein, based on the concrete placement method and the erection methods to be used. This provision intends to limit the magnitude of construction deflections and to prevent erratic construction deflections and creep.

2. Details for Precast Construction

The compressive strength of precast concrete segments shall not be less than 17 MPa prior to removal from the forms and shall have a maturity equivalent to 14 days at 21°C prior to assembly into the structure.

Multiple small-amplitude shear keys at match-cast joints in webs of precast segmental bridges shall extend over as much of the web as is compatible with other details. Details of shear keys in webs should be similar to those shown in [Figure 5.53](#). Shear keys shall also be provided in top and bottom slabs. Keys in the top and bottom slabs may be larger single-element keys.

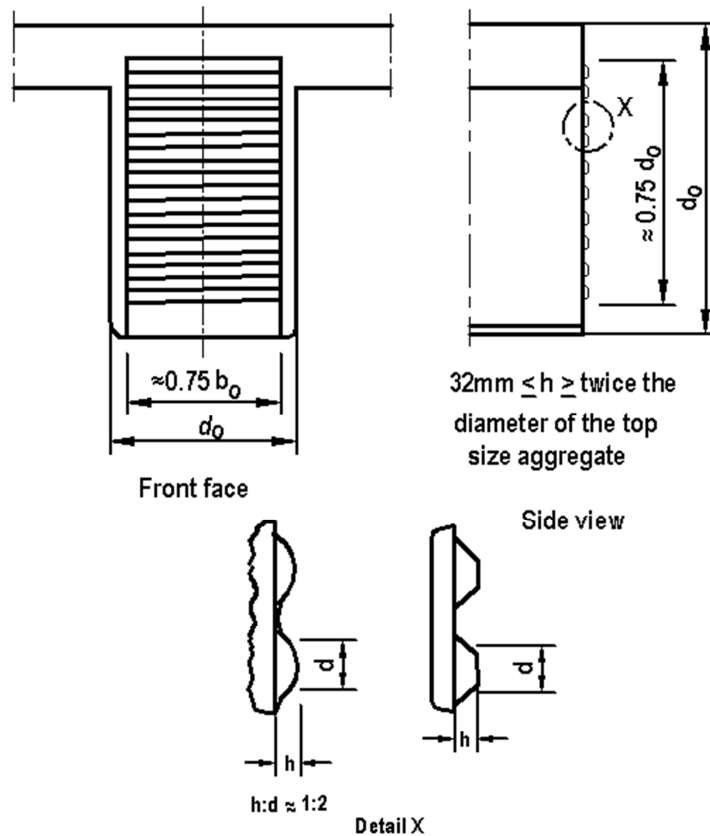


Figure 5.53: Example of Fine Indentation Shear Keys.

Joints in precast segmental bridges shall be either cast-in-place closures or match cast epoxied joints.

Match casting is necessary to ensure control of the geometry upon reassembly of the segments.

Precast segmental bridges using internal post-tensioning tendons and bridges located in areas subject to freezing temperatures or deicing chemicals shall employ bonded joints.

The use of dry joints (identified as Type B) is no more needed because of critical nature of post-tensioning reinforcing the need of multiple layers protection system to protect

A temporary prestressing system shall provide a minimum compressive stress of 0.21 MPa and an average stress of 0.28 MPa across the joint until the epoxy has cured. MA-100-C-V1/1 requires this temporary stress to ensure full bond and to prevent uneven epoxy thickness. Such variations could lead to a systematic accumulation of geometric error. Large stress changes on epoxy joints should be avoided during the initial curing period.

3. Details for Cast-in-Place Construction

Joints between cast-in-place segments shall be specified as either intentionally roughened to expose coarse aggregate or keyed.

The width of closure joints shall permit the coupling of the tendon ducts. Diaphragms shall be provided at abutments, piers, hinge joints, and bottom flange angle points in structures with straight haunches. Diaphragms shall be substantially solid at piers and abutments, except for access openings and utility holes. Diaphragms shall be sufficiently wide as required by design, with a minimum overhang over bearings of not less than 150 mm.

4. Cantilever Construction

The provisions specified herein shall apply to both precast and cast-in-place cantilever construction.

Longitudinal tendons may be anchored in the webs, in the slab, or in blisters built out from the web or slab.

A minimum of two longitudinal tendons shall be anchored in each segment.

The cantilevered portion of the structure shall be investigated for overturning during erection. The factor of safety against overturning shall not be less than 1.5 under any combination of loads, as specified in Article [5.18.2.3.3](#). Minimum wind velocity for erection stability analyses shall be 90 km/h, unless a better estimate of probable wind velocity is obtained by analysis or meteorological records.

Continuity tendons shall be anchored at least one segment beyond the point where they are theoretically required for stresses.

The segment lengths assumed in the design shall be shown on the plans. Any changes proposed by the Contractor shall be supported by reanalysis of the construction and computation of the final stresses.

The form-traveler weight assumed in stress and camber calculations shall be stated on the plans.

5. Span-by-Span Construction

Span-by-span construction is defined as construction where the segments, either precast or cast-in-place, are assembled or cast on falsework supporting one entire span between permanent piers. The falsework is removed after application of post-tensioning to make the span capable of supporting its own weight and any construction loads.

Additional stressing may be utilized after adjacent spans are in place to develop continuity over piers.

Provisions shall be made in design of span-by-span construction for accumulated construction stresses due to the change in the structural system as construction progresses.

Stresses due to the changes in the structural system, in particular the effects of the application of a load to one system and its removal from a different system, shall be accounted for. Redistribution of such stresses by creep shall be taken into account and allowance made for possible variations in the creep rate and magnitude.

6. Incrementally Launched Construction

a. General

Incrementally launched girders are subject to reversal of moments during launching. Temporary piers and/or a launching nose may be used to reduce launching stresses.

Stresses under all stages of launching shall not exceed the limits specified in Article 5.9.4 for members with bonded reinforcement through the joint and internal tendons.

Provision shall be made to resist the frictional forces on the substructure during launching and to restrain the superstructure if the structure is launched down a gradient. For determining the critical frictional forces, the friction on launching bearings shall be assumed to vary between 0 and 4 percent, whichever is critical. The upper value may be reduced to 3.5 percent if pier deflections and launching jack forces are monitored during construction.

These friction coefficients are only applicable to bearings employing a combination of virgin Teflon and stainless steel with a roughness of less than 2.5×10^{-3} mm.

b. Force Effects Due to Construction Tolerances

Force effects due to the following permissible construction tolerances shall be superimposed upon those resulting from gravity loads:

In the longitudinal direction between two adjacent bearings	5 mm
In the transverse direction between two adjacent bearings	2.5 mm
Between the fabrication area and the launching equipment in the longitudinal and transverse direction	2.5 mm
Lateral deviation at the outside of the webs	2.5 mm

The horizontal force acting on the lateral guides of the launching bearings shall not be taken to be less than 1 percent of the vertical support reaction.

For stresses during construction, one-half of the force effects due to construction tolerances and one-half of the force effects due to temperature in accordance with Article 5.18.2.3 shall be superimposed upon those from gravity loads. Concrete tensile stresses due to the combined moments shall not exceed $0.58\sqrt{f'_c}$.

c. Design Details

Piers and superstructure diaphragms at piers shall be designed to permit jacking of the superstructure during all launching stages and for the installation of permanent bearings. Frictional forces during launching shall be considered.

Local stresses that may develop at the underside of the web during launching shall be investigated. The following requirements shall be satisfied:

Launching pads shall be placed not closer than 75 mm to the outside of the web, Concrete cover between the soffit and post-tensioning ducts shall not be less than 150 mm, and

Bearing pressures at the web/soffit corner shall be investigated and the effects of un-grouted ducts and any eccentricity between the intersection of the centerlines of the web and the bottom slab and the centerline of the bearing shall be considered.

The straight tendons required for launching shall be placed in the top and bottom slabs for box girders and in the lower third of the web for T-sections. Not more than 50 percent of the tendons shall be coupled at one construction joint. Anchorages and locations for the straight tendons shall be designed for the concrete strength at the time of tensioning.

The faces of construction joints shall be provided with shear keys or a roughened surface with minimum roughness amplitude of 6 mm. Bonded non-prestressed reinforcement shall be provided longitudinally and transversely at all concrete surfaces crossing the joint and over a distance of 2100 mm on either side of the joint. Minimum reinforcing shall be equivalent to 14 mm Dia. bars spaced at 125 mm.

The dimensional restrictions on placement of launching bearings are shown in [Figure 5.54](#). Eccentricity between the intersection of the centerlines of the web and the bottom slab and the centerline of the bearing is illustrated in [Figure 5.55](#).

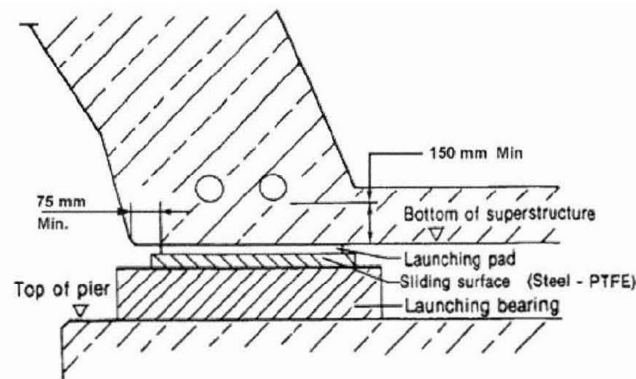


Figure 5.54: Location of Launching Pads.

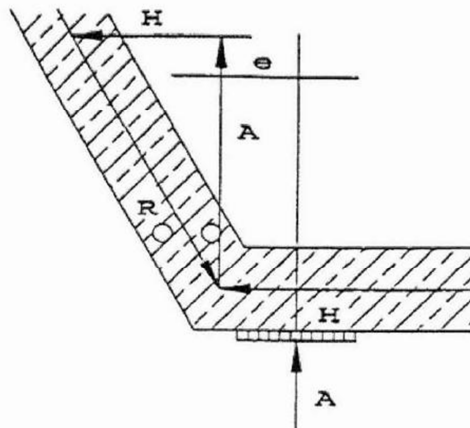


Figure 5.55: Eccentric Reaction at Launching Pads.

d. Design of Construction Equipment

Where construction equipment for incremental launching is shown on the contract documents, the design of such equipment shall include, but not be limited to the following features:

- The construction tolerances in the sliding surface at the bottom of the launching nose shall be limited to those of the superstructure, as specified in Article [5.18.2.4.6.b](#).
- The introduction of the support reactions in the launching nose shall be investigated with respect to strength, stability, and deformation.
- Launching bearings shall be designed in such a way that they can compensate for local deviations of the sliding surface of up to 2 mm by elastic deformation.
- The launching equipment shall be sized for friction in accordance with Article [5.18.2.4.6.a](#) and the actual superstructure gradient.
- The launching equipment shall be designed to ensure that a power failure will not lead to uncontrolled sliding of the superstructure.
- The friction coefficient between concrete and the hardened profiled steel surfaces of the launching equipment shall be taken as 60 percent at the service limit state and the friction shall exceed the driving forces by 30 percent.

The forms for the sliding surfaces underneath and outside the web shall be wear-resistant and sufficiently stiff so that their deflection during casting does not exceed 2 mm.

5.18.2.5. Segmental Bridge Substructures

1. General

Pier and abutment design shall conform to [Section 9](#) and to the provisions of this section. Consideration shall be given to erection loads, moments, and shears imposed

on piers and abutments by the construction method shown in the contract documents. Auxiliary supports and bracing shall be shown as required.

Hollow, rectangular precast segmental piers shall be designed in accordance with Article 5.7.4.7. The area of discontinuous longitudinal non-prestressed reinforcement may be as specified in Article 5.18.2.5.3.

2. Construction Load Combinations

Tensile stresses in segmental substructures during construction shall be computed for applicable load combinations of Table 5.19.

3. Longitudinal Reinforcement of Hollow, Rectangular Precast Segmental Piers

The minimum area of discontinuous longitudinal non-prestressed reinforcement in hollow, rectangular precast segmental piers shall satisfy the shrinkage and temperature reinforcement provisions specified in Article 5.10.6.

5.18.3. Arches

5.18.3.1. General

The shape of an arch shall be selected with the objective of minimizing flexure under the effect of combined permanent and transient loads.

5.18.3.2. Arch Ribs

The in-plane stability of the arch rib(s) shall be investigated using a modulus of elasticity and moment of inertia appropriate for the combination of loads and moment in the rib(s).

Stability under long-term loads with a reduced modulus of elasticity may govern the stability. In this condition, there would typically be little flexural moment in the rib, the appropriate modulus of elasticity would be the long-term tangent modulus, and the appropriate moment of inertia would be the transformed section inertia.

Under transient load conditions, the appropriate modulus of elasticity would be the short-term tangent modulus, and the appropriate moment of inertia would be the cracked section inertia, including the effects of the factored axial load.

The long-term modulus may be found by dividing the short-term modulus by the creep coefficient.

In lieu of a rigorous analysis, the effective length for buckling may be estimated as the product of the arch half span length and the factor as specified in Table 4.1.

For the analysis of arch ribs, the provisions of Article 4.5.3.2.2 may be applied. When using the approximate second-order correction for moment specified in Article 4.5.3.2.2.c, an estimate of the short-term secant modulus of elasticity may be calculated, as specified in Article 5.4.2.4, based on strength of $0.40 f'_c$.

Arch ribs shall be reinforced as compression members. The minimum reinforcing of 1 percent of the gross concrete area shall be evenly distributed about the section of the rib. Confinement reinforcement shall be provided as required for columns.

Unfilled spandrel walls greater than 7500 mm in height shall be braced by counterforts or diaphragms.

Spandrel walls shall be provided with expansion joints. Temperature reinforcing shall be provided corresponding to the joint spacing. The ACI 207.2R73 Manual of

Concrete Practice contains a discussion of joint spacing and temperature reinforcement of restrained walls.

The spandrel wall shall be jointed at the springline.

The spandrel fill shall be provided with effective drainage. Filters shall be provided to prevent clogging of drains with fine material. Drainage details should keep the drainage water from running down the ribs.

5.18.4. Slab Superstructures

5.18.4.1. Cast-in-Place Solid Slab Superstructures

Cast-in-place, longitudinally reinforced slabs may be either conventionally reinforced or prestressed and may be used as slab-type bridges.

The distribution of live load may be determined by a refined analysis or as specified in Article 4.6.2.3. Slabs and slab bridges designed for moment in conformance with Article 4.6.2.3 may be considered satisfactory for shear.

Edge beams shall be provided as specified in Article 7.7.1.4.

Transverse distribution reinforcement shall be placed in the bottoms of all slabs, except culvert tops or bridge slabs, where the depth of fill over the slab exceeds 600 mm. The amount of the bottom transverse reinforcement may be determined by two-dimensional analysis, or the amount of distribution reinforcement may be taken as the percentage of the main reinforcement required for positive moment taken as:

- For longitudinal reinforced concrete construction:

$$\frac{1750}{\sqrt{L}} \leq 50\% \quad (5.199)$$

- For longitudinal prestressed construction:

$$\frac{1750}{\sqrt{L}} \frac{f_{pe}}{410} \leq 50\% \quad (5.200)$$

where:

L = span length (mm)

f_{pe} = effective stress in the prestressing steel after losses (MPa)

Transverse shrinkage and temperature reinforcement in the tops of slabs shall conform to the requirements of Article 5.10.6.

5.18.4.2. Cast-in-Place Voids Slab Superstructures

1. Cross-Section Dimensions

Cast-in-place voided slab superstructures may be post-tensioned both longitudinally and transversely.

For circular voids, the center-to-center spacing of the voids should not be less than the total depth of the slab, and the minimum thickness of concrete taken at the centerline of the void perpendicular to the outside surface shall not be less than 140 mm.

For rectangular voids, the transverse width of the void should not exceed 1.5 times the depth of the void, the thickness of the web between voids should not be less than 20

percent of the total depth of the deck, and the minimum thickness of concrete above the voids shall not be less than 175 mm.

The bottom flange depth shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 5.18.1.5.1.b.

Where the voids conform to the dimensional requirements herein and where the void ratio, based on cross-sectional area, does not exceed 40 percent, the superstructure may be analyzed as a slab, using either the provisions of Article 4.6.2.3 or a two-dimensional analysis for isotropic plates.

Cross-sections of alternative typical round-voided concrete deck system, taken between piers, are shown in Figure 5.56, in which PT denotes post-tensioning.

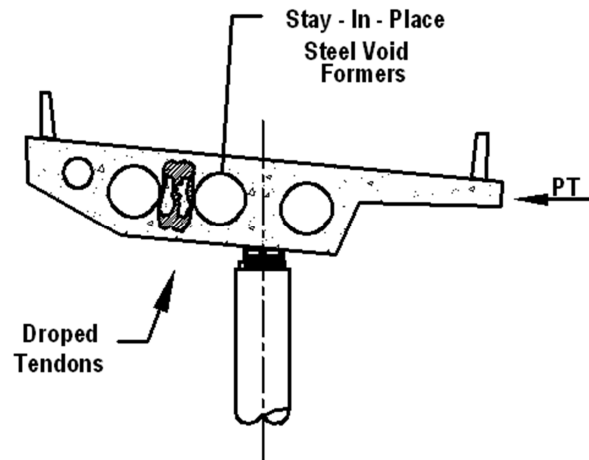


Figure 5.56: Cross-Section of Typical Voided Concrete Deck System.

If the void ratio exceeds 40 percent, the superstructure shall be treated as cellular construction and analyzed as:

- A monolithic multi-cell box, as specified in Article 4.6.2.2.1, Type d,
- An orthotropic plate, or
- A three-dimensional continuum.

The dimensions provided for spacing and size of voids in this Article are based on past experience and are expected to provide safe results. They may be taken as preliminary design values.

2. Minimum Number of Bearings

Columns may be framed into the superstructure, or a single bearing may be used for the internal supports of continuous structures. A minimum of two bearings shall be employed at end supports.

The transverse rotation of the superstructure shall not exceed 0.5 percent at service limit states.

3. Solid End Sections

A solid section at least 900 mm long but not less than 5 percent of the length of the span shall be provided at either end of a span. Post-tensioned anchorage zones shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 5.13.

In the absence of more refined analysis, the solid sections of the deck may be analyzed as a transverse beam distributing forces to bridge bearings and to post-tensioning anchorages.

4. General Design Requirements

For voided slabs conforming to the provisions of Article 5.18.4.2.1, global and local force effects due to wheel loads need not be combined. The top flange of deck with rectangular voids may be analyzed and designed as a framed slab or designed with the provisions of the empirical process, as specified in Article 7.7.2.

The top part of the slab over circular voids made with steel void-formers shall be post-tensioned transversely. At the minimum thickness of concrete, the average precompression after all losses, as specified in Article 5.9.5, shall not be less than 3.5 MPa. When transversely post-tensioned, no additional reinforcing steel need be applied to the concrete above the circular voids.

Transverse shrinkage and temperature steel at the bottom of the voided slab shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 5.10.6.

5. Compressive Zones in Negative Moment Area

At internal piers, the part of the cross-section under compressive stresses may be considered as a horizontal column and reinforced accordingly.

6. Drainage of Voids

Adequate drainage of the voids shall be provided in accordance with the provisions of Article 2.7.6.5.

5.18.4.3. Precast Deck Bridges

1. General

Precast units may have solid, voided, box, T- and double-T cross-sections.

Differential creep and shrinkage due to differences in age, concrete mix, environmental, and support conditions have been observed to cause internal force effects that are difficult to predict at the design phase. These force effects are often relieved by separation of the joints, causing maintenance problems and negatively affecting structural performance.

Precast concrete units placed adjacent to each other in the longitudinal direction may be joined together transversely to form a deck system. Precast concrete units may be continuous either for transient loads only or for both permanent and transient loads. Span-to-span continuity, where provided, shall be in accordance with the provisions of Article 5.18.1.3.2.

Where structural concrete overlay is not provided, the minimum thickness of concrete shall be 90 mm at the top of round voided components and 140 mm for all other components.

2. Shear Transfer Joints

Precast longitudinal components may be joined together transversely by a shear key not less than 175 mm in depth. For the purpose of analysis, the longitudinal shear transfer joints shall be modeled as hinges.

The joint shall be filled with non-shrinking grout with a minimum compressive strength of 35 MPa at 24 hours.

3. Shear-Flexure Transfer Joints

a. General

Precast longitudinal components may be joined together by transverse post-tensioning, cast-in-place closure joints, a structural overlay, or a combination thereof.

b. Design

Decks with shear-flexure transfer joints should be modeled as continuous plates, except that the empirical design procedure of Article 7.7.2 shall not be used. The joints shall be designed as flexural components, satisfying the provisions of Article 5.18.4.3.3.d.

c. Post-Tensioning

Transverse post-tensioning shall be uniformly distributed in the longitudinal direction. Block-outs may be used to facilitate splicing of the post-tensioning ducts. The compressed depth of the joint shall not be less than 175 mm, and the prestress after all losses shall not be less than 1.7 MPa therein.

d. Longitudinal Construction Joints

Longitudinal construction joints between precast concrete flexural components shall consist of a key filled with a non-shrinkage mortar attaining a compressive strength of 35 MPa within 24 hours. The depth of the key should not be less than 125 mm.

If the components are post-tensioned together transversely, the top flanges may be assumed to act as a monolithic slab. However, the empirical slab design specified in Article 7.7.2 is not applicable.

The amount of transverse prestress may be determined by either the strip method or two-dimensional analysis. The transverse prestress, after all losses, shall not be less than 1.7 MPa through the key. In the last 900 mm at a free end, the required transverse prestress shall be doubled.

e. Cast-in-Place Closure Joint

Concrete in the closure joint should have strength comparable to that of the precast components. The width of the longitudinal joint shall be large enough to accommodate development of reinforcement in the joint, but in no case shall the width of the joint be less than 300 mm.

f. Structural Overlay

Where a structural overlay is used to qualify for improved load distribution as provided in Articles 4.6.2.2 and 4.6.2.2.3, the thickness of structural concrete overlay shall not be less than 115 mm. An isotropic layer of reinforcement shall be provided in accordance with the requirements of Article 5.10.6. The top surface of the precast components shall be roughened.

5.18.5. Additional Provisions for Culverts

5.18.5.1. General

The soil structure aspects of culvert design are specified in [Section 10](#).

5.18.5.2. Design for Flexure

The provisions of Article [5.7](#) shall apply.

5.18.5.3. Design for Shear in Slabs of Box Culverts

The provisions of Article [5.8](#) apply unless modified herein. For slabs of box culverts equal to 600 mm or more fill, shear strength V_c may be computed by:

$$V_c = \left(0.178\sqrt{f'_c} + 32 \frac{A_s}{bd_e} \frac{V_u d_e}{M_u} \right) bd_e \leq \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{f'_c} bd_e \quad (5.201)$$

where:

- A_s = area of reinforcing steel in the design width (mm²)
- d_e = effective depth from extreme compression fiber to the centroid of the tensile force in the tensile reinforcement (mm)
- V_u = shear from factored loads (N)
- M_u = factored moment occurring simultaneously with V_u at the section considered (N-mm)
- b = design width usually taken as 1000 (mm)

For single-cell box culverts only, V_c shall not be greater than the values below:

For slabs monolithic with walls	$V_c \geq 0.25\sqrt{f'_c} bd_e$
.....	

For slabs simply supported	$V_c \geq 0.207\sqrt{f'_c} bd_e$
.....	

The lower limits of $0.25\sqrt{f'_c}$, and $0.207\sqrt{f'_c}$ are compared with test results in [Figure 5.57](#).

The quantity $V_u d_e / M_u$ shall not be taken to be greater than 1.0.

The provisions of Articles [5.8](#) and [5.17.3.6](#) shall apply to slabs of box culverts under less than 600 mm of fill and to sidewalls.

The Designer may include the effect of axial compression by multiplying the results of Eq. [\(5.201\)](#) by the quantity $(1 + 0.04 N_u / V_u)$.

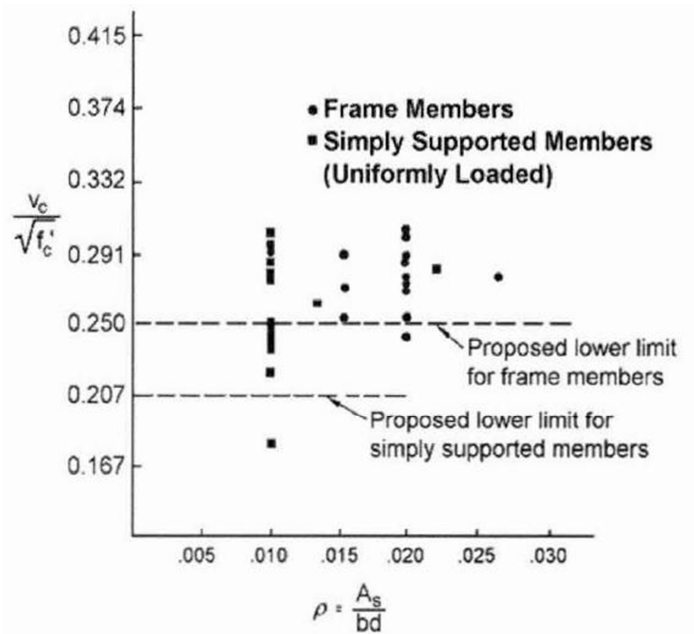


Figure 5.57: Culvert Test Results.

5.19. REFERENCES

AASHTO LRFD BRIDGE DESIGN SPECIFICATION, 4th Edition 2007

AASHTO LRFD BRIDGE DESIGN SPECIFICATION 2007, Interim Revision 2008.

ACI. 2002. Building Code 318-02. American Concrete Institute.

ASCE7-05, American Society of Civil Engineers "Minimum Design Loads for Buildings and Other Structures"

Canadian Highway Bridge Design Code 2006.

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Structural Welding Code

SECTION 6. STEEL STRUCTURES

6.1. SCOPE

This Section covers the design of steel components, splices and connections for straight or horizontally curved beam and girder structures, frames, trusses and arches, cable-stayed and suspension systems, and metal deck systems, as applicable.

When applied to curved steel girders, these provisions shall be taken to apply to the design and construction of highway superstructures with horizontally curved steel I-shaped or single-cell box-shaped longitudinal girders with radii greater than 30.5 m. Exceptions to this limit shall be based on a thorough evaluation of the application of the bridge under consideration consistent with basic structural fundamentals.

- C The LRFD provisions have no span limit. There has been a history of construction problems associated with curved bridges with spans greater than about 105 000 mm. Large girder self-weight may cause critical stresses and deflections during erection when the steel work is incomplete. Large lateral deflections and girder rotations associated with longer spans tend to make it difficult to fit up cross-frames. Large curved steel bridges have been built successfully; however, these bridges deserve special considerations such as the possible need for more than one temporary support in large spans.
- C Most of the provisions for proportioning main elements are grouped by structural action:
 - Tension and combined tension and flexure (Article [6.8](#))
 - Compression and combined compression and flexure (Article [6.9](#))
 - Flexure, flexural shear and torsion:
 - I-sections (Article [6.10](#))
 - Box sections (Article [6.11](#))
 - Miscellaneous sections (Article [6.12](#))
- C Provisions for connections and splices are contained in Article [6.13](#).
- C Article [6.14](#) contains provisions specific to particular assemblages or structural types, e.g., through-girder spans, trusses, orthotropic deck systems, and arches.

6.2. DEFINITIONS

<i>Abutment</i>	: An end support for a bridge superstructure.
<i>Aspect Ratio</i>	: In any rectangular configuration, the ratio of the lengths of the sides.
<i>Beam</i>	: A structural member whose primary function is to transmit loads to the support primarily through flexure and shear. Generally, this term is used when the component is made of rolled shapes.
<i>Beam-Column</i>	: A structural member whose primary function is to resist both axial loads and bending moments.
<i>Bend-Buckling Resistance</i>	: The maximum load that can be carried by a web plate without experiencing theoretical elastic local buckling due to bending.

<i>Biaxial Bending</i>	: Simultaneous bending of a member or component about two perpendicular axes.
<i>Bifurcation</i>	: The phenomenon whereby an ideally straight or flat member or component under compression may either assume a deflected position or may remain undeflected, or an ideally straight member under flexure may either deflect and twist out-of-plane or remain in its in-plane deflected position.
<i>Bifurcation Analysis</i>	: An analysis used to determine the buckling or bifurcation load.
<i>Block Shear Rupture</i>	: Failure of a bolted web connection of coped beams or any tension connection by the tearing out of a portion of a plate along the perimeter of the connecting bolts.
<i>Bolt Assembly</i>	: The bolt, nut(s), and washer(s).
<i>Box Flange</i>	: A flange that is connected to two webs. The flange may be a flat unstiffened plate, a stiffened plate or a flat plate with reinforced concrete attached to the plate with shear connectors.
<i>Bracing Member</i>	: A member intended to brace a main member or part thereof against lateral movement.
<i>Buckling Load</i>	: The load at which an ideally straight member or component under compression assumes a deflected position.
<i>Built-Up Member</i>	: A member made of structural steel elements that are welded, bolted or riveted together.
<i>Charpy V-Notch Impact Requirement</i>	: The minimum energy required to be absorbed in a Charpy V-notch test conducted at a specified temperature.
<i>Charpy V-Notch Test</i>	: An impact test complying with AASHTO T 243M (ASTM A 673M).
<i>Clear Distance of Bolts</i>	: The distance between edges of adjacent bolt holes.
<i>Clear End Distance of Bolts</i>	: The distance between the edge of a bolt hole and the end of a member.
<i>Closed-Box Section</i>	: A flexural member having a cross-section composed of two vertical or inclined webs which has at least one completely enclosed cell. A closed-section member is effective in resisting applied torsion by developing shear flow in the webs and flanges.
<i>Collapse Load</i>	: That load that can be borne by a structural member or structure just before failure becomes apparent.

- Compact Flange* : For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, a discretely braced compression flange with a slenderness at or below which the flange can sustain sufficient strains such that the maximum potential flexural resistance is achieved prior to flange local buckling having a statistically significant influence on the response, provided that sufficient lateral bracing requirements are satisfied to develop the maximum potential flexural resistance.
- Compact Section* : A composite section in positive flexure satisfying specific steel grade, web slenderness and ductility requirements that is capable of developing a nominal resistance exceeding the moment at first yield, but not to exceed the plastic moment.
- Compact Unbraced Length* : For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, the limiting unbraced length of a discretely braced compression flange at or below which the maximum potential flexural resistance can be achieved prior to lateral torsional buckling having a statistically significant influence on the response, provided that sufficient flange slenderness requirements are satisfied to develop the maximum potential flexural resistance.
- Compact Web* : For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, a web with a slenderness at or below which the section can achieve a maximum flexural resistance equal to the plastic moment prior to web bend-buckling having a statistically significant influence on the response, provided that sufficient steel grade, ductility, flange slenderness and/or lateral bracing requirements are satisfied.
- Component* : A constituent part of a structure.
- Composite Beam* : A steel beam connected to a deck so that they respond to force effects as a unit.
- Composite Column* : A structural compression member consisting of either structural shapes embedded in concrete, or a steel tube filled with concrete designed to respond to force effects as a unit.
- Composite Girder* : A steel flexural member connected to a concrete slab so that the steel element and the concrete slab, or the longitudinal reinforcement within the slab, respond to force effects as a unit.
- Connection* : A weld or arrangement of bolts that transfers normal and/or shear stresses from one element to another.
- Constant Amplitude Fatigue Threshold* : The nominal stress range below which a particular detail can withstand an infinite number of repetitions without fatigue failure.
- Continuously Braced Flange* : A flange encased in concrete or anchored by shear connectors for which flange lateral bending effects need not be considered. A continuously braced flange in compression is also assumed not to be subject to local or lateral torsional buckling.

<i>Controlling Flange</i>	: Top or bottom flange for the smaller section at a point of splice, whichever flange has the maximum ratio of the elastic flexural stress at its midthickness due to the factored loads to its factored flexural resistance.
<i>Cracked Section</i>	: A composite section in which the concrete is assumed to carry no tensile stress.
<i>Critical Load</i>	: The load at which bifurcation occurs as determined by a theoretical stability analysis.
<i>Cross-Frame</i>	: A transverse truss framework connecting adjacent longitudinal flexural components or inside a tub section or closed box used to transfer and distribute vertical and lateral loads and to provide stability to the compression flanges. Sometimes synonymous with the term diaphragm.
<i>Cross-Section Distortion</i>	: Distortion of the cross-section of a closed-box or tub section due to torsional loading.
<i>Curved Girder</i>	: An I-, closed-box, or tub girder that is curved in a horizontal plane.
<i>Deck</i>	: A component, with or without wearing surface, that supports wheel loads directly and is supported by other components.
<i>Deck System</i>	: A superstructure, in which the deck is integral with its supporting components, or in which the effects of deformation of supporting components on the behavior of the deck is significant.
<i>Deck Truss</i>	: A truss system in which the roadway is at or above the level of the top chord of the truss.
<i>Detail Category</i>	: A grouping of components and details having essentially the same fatigue resistance.
<i>Diaphragm</i>	: A vertically oriented solid transverse member connecting adjacent longitudinal flexural components or inside a closed-box or tub section to transfer and distribute vertical and lateral loads and to provide stability to the compression flanges.
<i>Discretely Braced Flange</i>	: A flange supported at discrete intervals by bracing sufficient to restrain lateral deflection of the flange and twisting of the entire cross-section at the brace points.
<i>Distortion-Induced Fatigue</i>	: Fatigue effects due to secondary stresses not normally quantified in the typical analysis and design of a bridge.
<i>Edge Distance of Bolts</i>	: The distance perpendicular to the line of force between the center of a hole and the edge of the component.
<i>Effective Length</i>	: The equivalent length KL used in compression formulas and determined by a bifurcation analysis.
<i>Effective Length Factor</i>	: The ratio between the effective length and the unbraced length of the member measured between the centers of gravity of the bracing members.

<i>Effective Width</i>	: The reduced width of a plate or concrete slab which, with an assumed uniform stress distribution, produces the same effect on the behavior of a structural member as the actual plate width with its nonuniform stress distribution.
<i>Elastic</i>	: A structural response in which stress is directly proportional to strain and no deformation remains upon removal of loading.
<i>Elastic Analysis</i>	: Determination of load effects on members and connections based on the assumption that the material stress-strain response is linear and the material deformation disappears on removal of the force that produced it.
<i>Elastic-Perfectly Plastic (Elastic-Plastic)</i>	: An idealized material stress-strain curve that varies linearly from the point of zero strain and zero stress up to the yield point of the material, and then increases in strain at the value of the yield stress without any further increases in stress.
<i>End Distance of Bolts</i>	: The distance along the line of force between the center of a hole and the end of the component.
<i>End Panel</i>	: The end section of a truss or girder.
<i>Engineer</i>	: A licensed structural engineer responsible for the design of the bridge or review of the bridge construction.
<i>Eyebar</i>	: A tension member with a rectangular section and enlarged ends for a pin connection.
<i>Factored Load</i>	: The product of the nominal load and a load factor.
<i>Fastener</i>	: Generic term for welds, bolts, rivets, or other connecting device.
<i>Fatigue</i>	: The initiation and/or propagation of cracks due to a repeated variation of normal stress with a tensile component.
<i>Fatigue Design Life</i>	: The number of years that a detail is expected to resist the assumed traffic loads without fatigue cracking. In the development of these Specifications it has been taken as 75 years.
<i>Fatigue Life</i>	: The number of repeated stress cycles that results in fatigue failure of a detail.
<i>Fatigue Resistance</i>	: The maximum stress range that can be sustained without failure of the detail for a specified number of cycles.
<i>Finite Fatigue Life</i>	: The number of cycles to failure of a detail when the maximum probable stress range exceeds the constant amplitude fatigue threshold.
<i>First-Order Analysis</i>	: Analysis in which equilibrium conditions are formulated on the undeformed structure; that is, the effect of deflections is not considered in writing equations of equilibrium.
<i>Flange Lateral Bending</i>	: Bending of a flange about an axis perpendicular to the flange plate due to lateral loads applied to the flange and/or nonuniform torsion in the member.

<i>Force</i>	: Resultant of distribution of stress over a prescribed area. Generic term signifying axial loads, bending moment, torques, and shears.
<i>Fracture-Critical Member (FCM)</i>	: Component in tension whose failure is expected to result in the collapse of the bridge or the inability of the bridge to perform its function.
<i>Fracture Toughness</i>	: A measure of the ability of a structural material or element to absorb energy without fracture. It is generally determined by the Charpy V-notch test.
<i>Gage of Bolts</i>	: The distance between adjacent lines of bolts; the distance from the back of an angle or other shape to the first line of bolts.
<i>Girder</i>	: A structural component whose primary function is to resist loads in flexure and shear. Generally, this term is used for fabricated sections.
<i>Grip</i>	: Distance between the nut and the bolt head.
<i>Gusset Plate</i>	: Plate material used to interconnect vertical, diagonal, and horizontal truss members at a panel point.
<i>Half Through-Truss Spans</i>	: A truss system with the roadway located somewhere between the top and bottom chords. It precludes the use of a top lateral system.
<i>Hybrid Girder</i>	: A fabricated steel girder with a web that has a specified minimum yield strength lower than one or both flanges.
<i>Inelastic Action</i>	: A condition in which deformation is not fully recovered upon removal of the load that produced it.
<i>Inelastic Redistribution</i>	: The redistribution of internal force effects in a component or structure caused by inelastic deformations at one or more sections.
<i>Instability</i>	: A condition reached in the loading of a component or structure in which continued deformation results in a decrease of load-resisting capacity.
<i>Interior Panel</i>	: The interior section of a truss or girder component.
<i>Joint</i>	: Area where two or more ends, surfaces, or edges are attached. Categorized by type of fastener used and method of force transfer.
<i>Lacing</i>	: Plates or bars to connect components of a member.
<i>Lateral Bending Stress</i>	: The normal stress caused by flange lateral bending.
<i>Lateral Bracing</i>	: A truss placed in a horizontal plane between two I-girders or two flanges of a tub girder to maintain cross-sectional geometry, and provide additional stiffness and stability to the bridge system.
<i>Lateral Bracing Component</i>	: A component utilized individually or as part of a lateral bracing system to prevent buckling of components and/or to resist lateral loads.

<i>Lateral-Torsional Buckling</i>	: Buckling of a component involving lateral deflection and twist.
<i>Level</i>	: That portion of a rigid frame that includes one horizontal member and all columns between that member and the base of the frame or the next lower horizontal member.
<i>Limit State</i>	: A condition in which a component or structure becomes unfit for service and is judged either to be no longer useful for its intended function or to be unsafe. Limits of structural usefulness include brittle fracture, plastic collapse, excessive deformation, durability, fatigue, instability, and serviceability.
<i>Load Effect</i>	: Moment, shear, axial force or torque induced in a member by loads applied to the structure.
<i>Load Path</i>	: A succession of components and joints through which a load is transmitted from its origin to its destination.
<i>Load-Induced Fatigue</i>	: Fatigue effects due to the in-plane stresses for which components and details are explicitly designed.
<i>Local Buckling</i>	: The buckling of a plate element in compression.
<i>Longitudinally Loaded Weld</i>	: Weld with applied stress parallel to the longitudinal axis of the weld.
<i>Major Axis</i>	: The centroidal axis about which the moment of inertia is a maximum; also referred to as the major principal axis.
<i>Net Tensile Stress</i>	: The algebraic sum of two or more stresses in which the total is tension.
<i>Noncompact Flange</i>	: For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, a discretely braced compression flange with a slenderness at or below the limit at which localized yielding within the member cross-section associated with a hybrid web, residual stresses and/or cross-section monosymmetry has a statistically significant effect on the nominal flexural resistance.
<i>Noncompact Section</i>	: A composite section in positive flexure for which the nominal resistance is not permitted to exceed the moment at first yield.
<i>Noncompact Unbraced Length</i>	: For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, the limiting unbraced length of a discretely braced compression flange at or below the limit at which the onset of yielding in either flange of the cross-section with consideration of compression-flange residual stress effects has a statistically significant effect on the nominal flexural resistance.

- Noncompact Web* : For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, a web satisfying steel grade requirements and with a slenderness at or below the limit at which theoretical elastic web bend-buckling does not occur for elastic stress values, computed according to beam theory, smaller than the limit of the nominal flexural resistance.
- Noncomposite Section* : A steel beam where the deck is not connected to the steel section by shear connectors.
- Noncontrolling Flange* : The flange at a point of splice opposite the controlling flange.
- Nonuniform Torsion* : An internal resisting torsion in thin-walled sections, also known as warping torsion, producing shear stress and normal stresses, and under which cross-sections do not remain plane. Members developing nonuniform torsion resist the externally applied torsion by warping torsion and St. Venant torsion. Each of these components of internal resisting torsion varies along the member length, although the externally applied concentrated torsion may be uniform along the member between two adjacent points of torsional restraint. Warping torsion is dominant over St. Venant torsion in members having open cross-sections, whereas St. Venant torsion is dominant over warping torsion in members having closed cross-sections.
- Open Section* : A flexural member having a cross-section which has no enclosed cell. An open-section member resists torsion primarily by nonuniform torsion, which causes normal stresses at the flange tips.
- Orthotropic Deck* : A deck made of a steel plate stiffened with open or closed steel ribs welded to the underside of a steel plate.
- Permanent Deflection* : A type of inelastic action in which a deflection remains in a component or system after the load is removed.
- Pier* : A column or connected group of columns or other configuration designed to be an interior support for a bridge superstructure.
- Pitch* : The distance between the centers of adjacent bolt holes or shear connectors along the line of force.
- Plastic Analysis* : Determination of load effects on members and connections based on the assumption of rigid-plastic behavior; i.e., that equilibrium is satisfied throughout the structure and yield is not exceeded anywhere. Second-order effects may need to be considered.
- Plastic Hinge* : A yielded zone which forms in a structural member when the plastic moment is attained. The beam is assumed to rotate as if hinged, except that the plastic moment capacity is maintained within the hinge.
- Plastic Moment* : The resisting moment of a fully-yielded cross-section.
- Plastic Strain* : The difference between total strain and elastic strain.

<i>Plastification</i>	: The process of successive yielding of fibers in the cross-section of a member as bending moment is increased.
<i>Plate</i>	: A flat rolled product whose thickness exceeds 6.0 mm.
<i>Portal Frames</i>	: End transverse truss bracing or Vierendeel bracing to provide for stability and to resist wind or seismic loads.
<i>Post-Buckling Resistance</i>	: The load that can be carried by a member or component after buckling.
<i>Primary Member</i>	: A member designed to carry the internal forces determined from an analysis.
<i>Prying Action</i>	: Lever action that exists in connections in which the line of application of the applied load is eccentric to the axis of the bolt, causing deformation of the fitting and an amplification of the axial force in the bolt.
<i>Redistribution Moment</i>	: An internal moment caused by yielding in a continuous span bending component and held in equilibrium by external reactions.
<i>Redistribution of Moments</i>	: A process that results from formation of inelastic deformations in continuous structures.
<i>Redistribution Stress</i>	: The bending stress resulting from the redistribution moment.
<i>Redundancy</i>	: The quality of a bridge that enables it to perform its design function in a damaged state.
<i>Redundant Member</i>	: A member whose failure does not cause failure of the bridge.
<i>Required Fatigue Life</i>	: A product of the single-lane average daily truck traffic, the number of cycles per truck passage, and the design life in days.
<i>Residual Stress</i>	: The stresses that remain in an unloaded member or component after it has been formed into a finished product by cold bending, and/or cooling after rolling or welding.
<i>Reverse Curvature Bending</i>	: A bending condition in which end moments on a member cause the member to assume an S shape.
<i>Rigid Frame</i>	: A structure in which connections maintain the angular relationship between beam and column members under load.
<i>St. Venant Torsion</i>	: That portion of the internal resisting torsion in a member producing only pure shear stresses on a crosssection, also referred to as pure torsion or uniform torsion.
<i>Second-Order Analysis</i>	: Analysis in which equilibrium conditions are formulated on the deformed structure; that is, in which the deflected position of the structure is used in writing the equations of equilibrium.

<i>Secondary Member</i>	: A member in which stress is not normally evaluated in the analysis.
<i>Service Loads</i>	: Loads expected to be supported by the structure under normal usage.
<i>Shape Factor</i>	: The ratio of the plastic moment to the yield moment, or the ratio of the plastic section modulus to the elastic section modulus.
<i>Shear-Buckling Resistance</i>	: The maximum load that can be supported by a web plate without experiencing theoretical buckling due to shear.
<i>Shear Connector</i>	: A mechanical device that prevents relative movements both normal and parallel to an interface.
<i>Shear Flow</i>	: Shear force per unit width acting parallel to the edge of a plate element.
<i>Shear Lag</i>	: Nonlinear distribution of normal stress across a component due to shear distortions.
<i>Sheet</i>	: A flat rolled product whose thickness is between 0.15 and 6.0 mm.
<i>Single Curvature Bending</i>	: A deformed shape of a member in which the center of curvature is on the same side of the member throughout the unbraced length.
<i>Skew Angle</i>	: The angle between the axis of support relative to a line normal to the longitudinal axis of the bridge, i.e. a 0° skew denotes a rectangular bridge.
<i>Slab</i>	: A deck composed of concrete and reinforcement.
<i>Slender Flange</i>	: For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, a discretely braced compression flange with a slenderness at or above which the nominal flexural resistance is governed by elastic flange local buckling, provided that sufficient lateral bracing requirements are satisfied.
<i>Slender Unbraced Length</i>	: For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, the limiting unbraced length of a discretely braced compression flange at or above which the nominal flexural resistance is governed by elastic lateral torsional buckling.
<i>Slender Web</i>	: For a composite section in negative flexure or a noncomposite section, a web with a slenderness at or above which the theoretical elastic bend-buckling stress in flexure is reached in the web prior to reaching the yield strength of the compression flange.
<i>Slenderness Ratio</i>	: The ratio of the effective length of a member to the radius of gyration of the member cross-section, both with respect to the same axis of bending, or the full or partial width or depth of a component divided by its thickness.
<i>Splice</i>	: A group of bolted connections, or a welded connection, sufficient to transfer the moment, shear, axial force, or torque between two structural elements joined at their ends to form a single, longer element.

<i>Stay-in-Place Formwork</i>	: Permanent metal or precast concrete forms that remain in place after construction is finished.
<i>Stiffener</i>	: A member, usually an angle or plate, attached to a plate or web of a beam or girder to distribute load, to transfer shear, or to prevent buckling of the member to which it is attached.
<i>Stiffness</i>	: The resistance to deformation of a member or structure measured by the ratio of the applied force to the corresponding displacement.
<i>Strain Hardening</i>	: Phenomenon wherein ductile steel, after undergoing considerable deformation at or just above the yield point, exhibits the capacity to resist substantially higher loading than that which caused initial yielding.
<i>Strain-Hardening Strain</i>	: For structural steels that have a flat or nearly flat plastic region in the stress -strain relationship, the value of the strain at the onset of strain hardening.
<i>Stress Range</i>	: The algebraic difference between extreme stresses resulting from the passage of a load.
<i>Strong-Axis</i>	: The centroidal axis about which the moment of inertia is a maximum.
<i>Subpanel</i>	: A stiffened web panel divided by one or more longitudinal stiffeners.
<i>Sway Bracing</i>	: Transverse vertical bracing between truss members.
<i>Tensile Strength</i>	: The maximum tensile stress that a material is capable of sustaining.
<i>Tension-Field Action</i>	: The behavior of a girder panel under shear in which diagonal tensile stresses develop in the web and compressive forces develop in the transverse stiffeners in a manner analogous to a Pratt truss.
<i>Through-Girder Spans</i>	: A girder system where the roadway is below the top flange.
<i>Through-Thickness Stress</i>	: Bending stress in a web or box flange induced by distortion of the cross-section.
<i>Through-Truss Spans</i>	: A truss system where the roadway is located near the bottom chord and where a top chord lateral system is provided.
<i>Tie Plates</i>	: Plates used to connect components of a member.
<i>Tied Arch</i>	: An arch in which the horizontal thrust of the arch rib is resisted by a horizontal tie.
<i>Toe of the Fillet</i>	: Termination point of a fillet weld or a rolled section fillet.
<i>Torsional Shear Stress</i>	: Shear stress induced by St. Venant torsion.
<i>Transversely Loaded Weld</i>	: Weld with applied stress perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the weld.

<i>Trough-Type Box Section</i>	: A U-shaped section without a common top flange.
<i>True Arch</i>	: An arch in which the horizontal component of the force in the arch rib is resisted by an external force supplied by its foundation.
<i>Tub Section</i>	: An open-topped steel girder which is composed of a bottom flange plate, two inclined or vertical web plates, and an independent top flange attached to the top of each web. The top flanges are connected with lateral bracing members.
<i>Unbraced Length</i>	: Distance between brace points resisting the mode of buckling or distortion under consideration; generally, the distance between panel points or brace locations.
<i>Von Mises Yield Criterion</i>	: A theory which states that the inelastic action at a point under a combination of stresses begins when the strain energy of distortion per unit volume is equal to the strain energy of distortion per unit volume in a simple tensile bar stressed to the elastic limit under a state of uniaxial stress. This theory is also called the maximum strain-energy-of-distortion theory. Accordingly, shear yield occurs at 0.58 times the yield strength.
<i>Warping Stress</i>	: Normal stress induced in the cross-section by warping torsion and/or by distortion of the cross-section.
<i>Warping Torsion</i>	: That portion of the total resistance to torsion in a member producing shear and normal stresses that is provided by resistance to out-of-plane warping of the cross-section.
<i>Web Crippling</i>	: The local failure of a web plate in the immediate vicinity of a concentrated load or bearing reaction due to the transverse compression introduced by this load.
<i>Web Slenderness Ratio</i>	: The depth of a web between flanges divided by the web thickness.
<i>Yield Moment</i>	: In a member subjected to flexure, the moment at which an outer fiber first attains the yield stress.
<i>Yield Strength</i>	: The stress at which a material exhibits a specified limiting deviation from the proportionality of stress to strain.
<i>Yield-Stress Level</i>	: The stress determined in a tension test when the strain reaches 0.005 mm per mm.

6.3. NOTATION

A	= detail category constant; area enclosed within centerlines of plates of box members (mm^2)
A_b	= projected bearing area on a pin plate (mm^2); cross-sectional area of a bolt (mm^2)
A_{bot}	= area of the bottom flange (mm^2)

A_c	=	area of concrete (mm^2); area of the concrete deck (mm^2)
Ad	=	minimum required cross-sectional area of a diagonal member of top lateral bracing for tub sections (mm^2)
$A_{d, \text{eff}}$	=	effective cross-section area of an orthotropic deck, including the longitudinal ribs (mm^2)
$ADTT$	=	average daily truck traffic over the design life
$ADTT_{SL}$	=	single-lane $ADTT$
A_e	=	effective flange area (mm^2)
A_f	=	area of the inclined bottom flange (mm^2); area of a box flange including longitudinal flange stiffeners (mm^2); sum of the area of fillers on the top and bottom of a connecting plate (mm^2); area of flange transmitting a concentrated load (mm^2)
A_{fn}	=	sum of the flange area and the area of any cover plates on the side of the neutral axis corresponding to Dn in a hybrid section (mm^2)
A_g	=	gross cross-section area of a compression member (mm^2); gross area of a flange (mm^2)
A_n	=	net cross-section area of a tension member (mm^2); net area of a flange (mm^2)
A_o	=	enclosed area within a box section (mm^2)
A_p	=	smaller of either the connected plate area or the sum of the splice plate area on the top and bottom of the connected plate (mm^2)
A_{pn}	=	area of the projecting elements of a stiffener outside of the web-to-flange welds but not beyond the edge of the flange (mm^2)
A_r	=	area of the longitudinal reinforcement (mm^2)
A_{rb}	=	area of the bottom layer of longitudinal reinforcement within the effective concrete deck width (mm^2)
A_{rs}	=	total area of the longitudinal reinforcement within the effective concrete deck width (mm^2)
A_{rt}	=	area of the top layer of longitudinal reinforcement within the effective concrete deck width (mm^2)
A_s	=	area of a structural steel shape (mm^2); total area of longitudinal reinforcement over the interior support within the effective concrete deck width (mm^2); gross area of a splice plate (mm^2); area of the concrete deck (mm^2)
A_{sc}	=	cross-sectional area of a stud shear connector (mm^2)
A_t	=	area of the tension flange (mm^2)
A_{tg}	=	gross area along the cut carrying tension stress in block shear (mm^2)
A_m	=	net area along the cut carrying tension stress in block shear (mm^2)

A_v	= cross-sectional area of transverse reinforcement that intercepts a diagonal shear crack in a concrete-encased shape (mm^2)
A_{vg}	= gross area along the cut carrying shear stress in block shear (mm^2)
A_{vn}	= net area along the cut carrying shear stress in block shear (mm^2)
A_w	= area of the web of a steel section (mm^2)
a	= distance between connectors (mm); center-to-center distance between flanges of adjacent boxes in a multiple box section (mm); longitudinal spacing of transverse flange stiffeners (mm); distance from the center of a bolt to the edge of a plate subject to a tensile force due to prying action (mm)
a_{wc}	= ratio of two times the web area in compression to the area of the compression flange
b	= width of a rectangular plate element (mm); width of the body of an eyerbar (mm); widest flange width (mm); distance from the edge of a plate or the edge of a perforation to the point of support or distance between supports (mm); clear distance between plates (mm); the smaller of d_o and D (mm); width of a rectangular tube (mm); overall thickness of the composite cross-section of a concrete-encased steel shape in the plane of buckling (mm); distance from the center of a bolt to the toe of the fillet of a connected part (mm)
b_c	= full width of the compression flange (mm)
b_f	= full width of the flange (mm); for I-sections, full width of the widest flange within the field section under consideration; for tub sections, full width of the widest top flange within the field section under consideration; for closed box sections, the limit of $b_f/4$ does not apply (mm)
b_{fc}	= full width of the compression flange (mm); width of a box flange in compression between webs (mm)
b_{ft}	= full width of the tension flange (mm); width of a box flange in tension between webs (mm)
b_ℓ	= projecting width of a longitudinal stiffener (mm)
b_s	= effective width of the concrete deck (mm)
b_t	= projecting width of a transverse or bearing stiffener (mm); full width of the tension flange (mm)
C	= ratio of the shear-buckling resistance to the shear specified minimum yield strength
C_b	= moment gradient modifier
C_1, C_2, C_3	= composite column constants
c	= distance from the center of the longitudinal reinforcement to the nearest face of a concrete-encased shape in the plane of bending (mm)

c_{rb}	= distance from the top of the concrete deck to the centerline of the bottom layer of longitudinal concrete deck reinforcement (mm)
c_{rt}	= distance from the top of the concrete deck to the centerline of the top layer of longitudinal concrete deck reinforcement (mm)
D	= diameter of a pin (mm); clear distance between flanges (mm); outside diameter of a circular steel tube (mm); web depth (mm); depth of the web plate measured along the slope (mm)
D'	= depth at which a composite section reaches its theoretical plastic moment capacity when the maximum strain in the concrete deck is at its theoretical crushing strain (mm)
D_c	= depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm)
$DC1$	= permanent load acting on the noncomposite section
$DC2$	= permanent load acting on the long-term composite section
D_{cp}	= depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment (mm)
D_n	= larger of the distances from the elastic neutral axis of the cross-section to the inside face of either flange in a hybrid section, or the distance from the neutral axis to the inside face of the flange on the side of the neutral axis where yielding occurs first when the neutral axis is at the mid-depth of the web (mm)
D_p	= distance from the top of the concrete deck to the neutral axis of the composite section at the plastic moment (mm)
D_t	= total depth of the composite section (mm)
DW	= wearing surface load
d	= total depth of the steel section (mm); diameter of a stud shear connector (mm); depth of the member in the plane of flexure (mm); depth of the member in the plane of shear (mm); nominal diameter of a bolt (mm)
d_b	= depth of a beam in a rigid frame (mm)
d_c	= depth of a column in a rigid frame (mm); distance from the plastic neutral axis to the midthickness of the compression flange used to compute the plastic moment (mm)
d_o	= transverse stiffener spacing (mm); the smaller of the adjacent web panel widths (mm)
d_{rb}	= distance from the plastic neutral axis to the centerline of the bottom layer of longitudinal concrete deck reinforcement used to compute the plastic moment (mm)
d_{rt}	= distance from the plastic neutral axis to the centerline of the top layer of longitudinal concrete deck reinforcement used to compute the plastic moment (mm)

d_s	= distance from the centerline of the closest plate longitudinal stiffener or from the gage line of the closest angle longitudinal stiffener to the inner surface or leg of the compression-flange element (mm); distance from the plastic neutral axis to the midthickness of the concrete deck used to compute the plastic moment (mm)
d_t	= distance from the plastic neutral axis to the midthickness of the tension flange used to compute the plastic moment (mm)
d_w	= distance from the plastic neutral axis to the middepth of the web used to compute the plastic moment (mm)
E	= modulus of elasticity of steel (MPa)
E_c	= modulus of elasticity of concrete (MPa)
E_e	= modified modulus of elasticity of steel for a composite column (MPa)
EXX	= classification number for weld metal
F_{cf}	= design stress for the controlling flange at a point of splice (MPa)
FCM	= fracture-critical member
F_{cr}	= critical buckling stress for plates (MPa); elastic lateral torsional buckling stress (MPa)
F_{crs}	= local buckling stress for the stiffener (MPa)
F_{crw}	= nominal web bend-buckling resistance (MPa)
F_e	= nominal compressive resistance of composite members (MPa)
F_{exx}	= classification strength of weld metal (MPa)
F_{fat}	= radial fatigue shear range per unit length, taken as the larger of either F_{fat1} or F_{fat2} (N/mm)
F_{fat1}	= radial fatigue shear range per unit length due to the effect of any curvature between brace points (N/mm)
F_{fat2}	= radial fatigue shear range per unit length due to torsion caused by effects other than curvature, such as skew (N/mm)
F_ℓ	= statically equivalent uniformly distributed lateral force due to the factored loads from concrete deck overhang brackets (N/mm)
FLB	= flange local buckling
F_{max}	= maximum potential compression-flange flexural resistance (MPa)
F_n	= nominal flexural resistance of a flange (MPa)
F_{nc}	= nominal flexural resistance of a compression flange (MPa)
$F_{nc(FLB)}$	= nominal compression-flange local buckling flexural resistance (MPa)
F_{nt}	= nominal flexural resistance of a tension flange (MPa)

F_p	= total radial shear force in the concrete deck at the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state, taken equal to zero for straight spans or segments (N)
F_{rc}	= net range of cross-frame force at the top flange (N)
F_s	= vertical force on the connection between a longitudinal and a transverse flange stiffener (N); Service II design stress for the flange under consideration at a point of splice (MPa)
F_T	= total radial shear force in the concrete deck between the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support for the design of shear connectors at the strength limit state, taken equal to zero for straight spans or segments (N)
F_u	= specified minimum tensile strength of steel (MPa); specified minimum tensile strength of a stud shear connector (MPa); specified minimum tensile strength of a connected part (MPa)
F_{ub}	= specified minimum tensile strength of a bolt (MPa)
F_{vr}	= factored torsional shear resistance of a box flange (MPa)
F_w	= vertical force on the connection between a transverse flange stiffener and a box section web (MPa)
F_y	= specified minimum yield strength of steel (MPa); specified minimum yield strength of a pin (MPa); specified minimum yield strength of a pin plate (MPa); specified minimum yield strength of a connected part (MPa); specified minimum yield strength of a splice plate (MPa)
F_{yc}	= specified minimum yield strength of a compression flange (MPa)
F_{yf}	= specified minimum yield strength of a flange (MPa)
F_{yr}	= compression-flange stress at the onset of nominal yielding within the cross-section, including residual stress effects but not including compression-flange lateral bending, taken as the smaller of $0.7F_{yc}$ and F_{yw} , but not less than $0.5F_{yc}$ (MPa)
F_{yrb}	= specified minimum yield strength of the bottom layer of longitudinal concrete deck reinforcement (MPa)
F_{yrs}	= specified minimum yield strength of the longitudinal concrete deck reinforcement (MPa)
F_{yrt}	= specified minimum yield strength of the top layer of longitudinal concrete deck reinforcement (MPa)
F_{ys}	= specified minimum yield strength of the stiffener (MPa)
F_{yt}	= specified minimum yield strength of a tension flange (MPa)
F_{yw}	= specified minimum yield strength of a web (MPa)
f	= axial or interaction stress range in various components of an orthotropic deck (MPa); shear flow in a box section (N/mm)

f_0	= stress due to the factored loads without consideration of flange lateral bending at a brace point opposite to the one corresponding to f_2 , calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression; positive for compression and negative for tension (MPa)
f_1	= axial stress range in various components of an orthotropic deck (MPa); stress at the opposite end of an unbraced length from f_2 representing the intercept of the most critical assumed linear stress distribution through either f_2 and f_{mid} , or through f_2 and f_0 , taken as $2f_{mid} - f_2 \geq f_0$ (MPa)
f_2	= local bending stress range in various components of an orthotropic deck caused by rib-floorbeam interaction (MPa); largest compressive stress due to the factored loads without consideration of lateral bending at either end of an unbraced length calculated from the critical moment envelope value; always taken as positive unless stress is zero or tensile at both ends of the unbraced length in which case f_2 is taken as zero (MPa)
f_a	= axial stress due to the factored loads in a solid web arch (MPa)
f_b	= maximum stress due to factored loadings, including moment amplification, in a solid web arch (MPa)
f_{bu}	= largest value of the compressive stress throughout the unbraced length in the flange under consideration, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
f_{by}	= stress in a box flange at an interior pier due to the factored loads caused by major-axis bending of the internal diaphragm over the bearing sole plate (MPa)
f_c	= compression-flange stress due to the Service II loads calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa); sum of the various compression-flange flexural stresses caused by the different loads, i.e., $DC1$, $DC2$, DW and $LL+IM$, acting on their respective sections (MPa)
f'_c	= minimum specified 28-day compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
f_{cf}	= maximum flexural stress due to the factored loads at the midthickness of the controlling flange at a point of splice (MPa)
f_d	= shear stress in a box flange at an interior pier caused by the internal diaphragm vertical shear due to the factored loads (MPa)
f_{DC1}	= compression-flange stress caused by the factored permanent load applied before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
f_{DC2}	= compression-flange stress caused by the factored permanent load acting on the long-term composite section, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
f_f	= flange stress due to the Service II loads calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
f_g	= axial global stress in an orthotropic deck (MPa)

- f_t = flange lateral bending stress (MPa); second-order compression-flange lateral bending stress (MPa); flange lateral bending stress due to the Service II loads (MPa); lateral bending stress in the flange under consideration at an interior-pier section (MPa)
- f_{tl} = first-order compression-flange lateral bending stress at a section, or the maximum first-order lateral bending stress in the compression flange throughout the unbraced length, as applicable (MPa)
- f_{LL+IM} = compression-flange stress caused by the factored vehicular live load plus impact acting on the short-term composite section, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
- f_{mid} = stress due to the factored loads without consideration of flange lateral bending at the middle of the unbraced length of the flange under consideration, calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression; positive for compression and negative for tension (MPa)
- f_n = normal stress in the inclined bottom flange of a variable web depth member (MPa); largest of the specified minimum yield strengths of each component included in the calculation of A_{fn} for a hybrid section when yielding occurs first in one of the components, or the largest of the elastic stresses in each component on the side of the neutral axis corresponding to D_n at first yield on the opposite side of the neutral axis (MPa)
- f_{ncf} = flexural stress due to the factored loads at the midthickness of the noncontrolling flange at a point of splice concurrent with f_{cf} (MPa)
- f_{os} = flexural stress due to the Service II loads at the midthickness of the other flange at a point of splice concurrent with f_s in the flange under consideration (MPa)
- f_r = modulus of rupture of concrete (MPa)
- f_s = flexural stress due to the factored loads in a longitudinal web stiffener (MPa); largest of the longitudinal stresses due to the factored loads in the panels of a box flange on either side of a transverse flange stiffener (MPa); maximum flexural stress due to the Service II loads at the midthickness of the flange under consideration at a point of splice (MPa)
- f_{sr} = bending stress range in the longitudinal reinforcement over an interior pier (MPa)
- f_t = stress due to the factored loads on the gross area of a tension flange calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa); sum of the various tension-flange flexural stresses caused by the different loads, i.e., $DC1$, $DC2$, DW and $LL+IM$, acting on their respective sections (MPa)
- f_v = St. Venant torsional shear stress in a box flange due to the factored loads (MPa)
- f_{vg} = global shear stress in an orthotropic deck (MPa)

f_{xx}	= various compression-flange flexural stresses caused by the different factored loads, i.e., $DC1$, $DC2$, DW and $LL+IM$, acting on their respective sections (MPa)
G	= shear modulus of steel (MPa)
g	= distance between lines of bolts (mm); horizontal pitch of bolts in a web splice (mm)
H	= effective throat of a fillet weld (mm)
H_{uw}	= design horizontal force resultant at the middepth of the web at a point of splice (N)
h	= distance between centroids of individual component shapes perpendicular to the member axis of buckling (mm); depth between the centerline of the flanges (mm)
I	= moment of inertia of the short-term composite section, or optionally in regions of negative flexure of straight girders only, the moment of inertia of the steel section plus the longitudinal reinforcement if the concrete is not considered to be effective in tension in computing the range of longitudinal stress (mm^4); moment of inertia of the effective internal interior-pier diaphragm within a box section (mm^4)
I_ℓ	= moment of inertia of a longitudinal web stiffener including an effective width of web taken about the neutral axis of the combined section (mm^4); required moment of inertia of a longitudinal flange stiffener taken about an axis parallel to a box flange and taken at the base of the stiffener (mm^4)
I_p	= polar moment of inertia of a web-splice bolt group (mm^2)
I_s	= actual moment of inertia of a longitudinal flange stiffener taken about an axis parallel to a box flange and taken at the base of the stiffener (mm^4); moment of inertia of an arch rib stiffener (mm^4)
I_t	= moment of inertia of the transverse stiffener taken about the edge in contact with the web for single stiffeners and about the mid-thickness of the web for stiffener pairs (mm^4); moment of inertia of a transverse flange stiffener taken about an axis through its centroid and parallel to its bottom edge (mm^4)
I_y	= moment of inertia of a box-shaped member about an axis perpendicular to the axis of bending (mm^4)
I_{yc}	= moment of inertia of the compression flange of a steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm^4)
I_{yt}	= moment of inertia of the tension flange of a steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm^4)
IM	= dynamic load allowance
J	= St. Venant torsional constant (mm^4); stiffener bending rigidity parameter
K	= effective length factor
K_h	= hole size factor for bolted connections

K_s	= surface condition factor for bolted connections
$K\ell/r$	= slenderness ratio
K	= plate buckling coefficient specified in Table 6.11 ; elastic web bend-buckling coefficient; shear-buckling coefficient for webs; plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress in box flanges; distance from the outer face of the flange to the toe of a web fillet of a rigid frame member to be stiffened (mm); plate stability factor for an arch rib specified in Table 6.20 ; distance from the outer face of a flange resisting a concentrated load or a bearing reaction to the web toe of the fillet (mm)
k_c	= flange local buckling coefficient
k_s	= plate-buckling coefficient for shear stress in a box flange
k_{sf}	= elastic web bend-buckling coefficient for fully restrained longitudinal edge conditions
k_{ss}	= elastic web bend-buckling coefficient for simply-supported longitudinal edge conditions
L	= effective span length for determining additional camber to compensate for possible loss of camber in a heatcurved girder (mm); length of a girder shipping piece (mm); distance from a single bolt to the free edge of the member measured parallel to the line of applied force (mm)
L_b	= unbraced length (mm)
L_c	= length of a channel shear connector (mm); clear distance between bolt holes or between the bolt hole and the end of the member in the direction of the applied bearing force (mm)
L_{cp}	= length of a cover plate (mm)
LFD	= load factor design
LL	= vehicular live load
L_n	= arc length between the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support (mm)
L_p	= limiting unbraced length to achieve the nominal flexural resistance of $R_b R_h F_{yc}$ under uniform bending (mm); arc length between an end of the girder and an adjacent point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment (mm)
L_r	= limiting unbraced length to achieve the onset of nominal yielding in either flange under uniform bending with consideration of compression-flange residual stress effects (mm)
$LRFD$	= load and resistance factor design
LTB	= lateral torsional buckling
ℓ	= unbraced member length (mm)
M	= bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section (N-mm)

M_0	= bending moment due to the factored loads at a brace point opposite to the one corresponding to M_2 , calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point in the flange under consideration, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression; positive when it causes compression and negative when it causes tension in the flange under consideration (N-mm)
M_1	= bending moment at the opposite end of an unbraced length from M_2 representing the intercept of the most critical assumed linear stress distribution through either M_2 and M_{mid} , or through M_2 and M_0 , taken as $2M_{mid} - M_2 \geq M_0$ (N-mm); bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section at the brace point with the lower moment due to the factored loads adjacent to an interior-pier section from which moments are redistributed taken as either the maximum or minimum moment envelope value, whichever produces the smallest permissible unbraced length (N-mm)
M_2	= largest major-axis bending moment due to the factored loads at either end of an unbraced length causing compression in the flange under consideration, calculated from the critical moment envelope value; always taken as positive unless the moment is zero or causes tension in the flange under consideration at both ends of the unbraced length in which case M_2 is taken as zero (N-mm); bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section at the brace point with the higher moment due to the factored loads adjacent to an interior-pier section from which moments are redistributed taken as the critical moment envelope value (N-mm)
M_{AD}	= additional bending moment that must be applied to the short-term composite section to cause nominal yielding in either steel flange (N-mm)
M_c	= column moment due to the factored loading in a rigid frame (N-mm)
M_{cr}	= elastic lateral-torsional buckling moment (N-mm)
M_{D1}	= bending moment caused by the factored permanent load applied before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite (N-mm)
M_{D2}	= bending moment caused by the factored permanent load applied to the long-term composite section (N-mm)
M_e	= critical elastic moment envelope value due to the factored loads at an interior-pier section from which moments are redistributed (N-mm)
M_{fb}	= applied moment due to the factored loads in a transverse beam supporting an orthotropic deck (N-mm)
M_{ft}	= applied transverse moment due to the factored loads in an orthotropic deck plate as a result of the plate carrying wheel loads to adjacent longitudinal ribs (N-mm)
M_ℓ	= lateral bending moment in the flanges due to the eccentric loadings from concrete deck overhang brackets (N-mm)
M_{max}	= maximum potential flexural resistance based on the compression flange (N-mm)

M_{mid}	= major-axis bending moment due to the factored loads at the middle of an unbraced length, calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point in the flange under consideration, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression; positive when it causes compression and negative when it causes tension in the flange under consideration (N-mm)
M_n	= nominal flexural resistance of a section (N-mm)
M_{nc}	= nominal flexural resistance based on the compression flange (N-mm)
$M_{nc(FLB)}$	= nominal flexural resistance based on compression flange local buckling (N-mm)
M_{nt}	= nominal flexural resistance based on the tension flange (N-mm)
M_p	= plastic moment (N-mm)
M_{pe}	= negative-flexure effective plastic moment at interior-pier sections from which moments are redistributed (N-mm)
M_{ps}	= plastic moment resistance of the steel section of a concrete-encased member (N-mm)
M_r	= factored flexural resistance (N-mm)
M_{rb}	= factored flexural resistance of a transverse beam supporting an orthotropic deck (N-mm)
M_{rd}	= redistribution moment (N-mm)
M_{rr}	= factored flexural resistance of a longitudinal rib of an orthotropic deck (N-mm) (6.14.3.3.2)
M_{rt}	= factored flexural resistance of an orthotropic deck plate in carrying wheel loads to adjacent ribs (N-mm)
M_{rx}, M_{ry}	= factored flexural resistance about the x- and y-axes, respectively (N-mm)
M_u	= moment due to the factored loads (N-mm); largest value of the major-axis bending moment throughout the unbraced length causing compression in the flange under consideration (N-mm)
M_{ur}	= factored local flexural moment in a longitudinal rib of an orthotropic deck (N-mm)
M_{uw}	= design moment at the middepth of the web at a point of splice (N-mm)
M_{ux}, M_{uy}	= flexural moments due to the factored loads about the x- and y-axes, respectively (N-mm)
M_y	= yield moment (N-mm)
M_{yc}	= yield moment with respect to the compression flange (N-mm); yield moment of the composite section of a concrete-encased shape (N-mm)
M_{yt}	= yield moment with respect to the tension flange (N-mm)

M	= number of vertical rows of bolts in a web splice
N	= number of cycles of stress range; length of bearing, taken greater than or equal to k at end bearing locations (mm)
NDT	= nondestructive testing
N_s	= number of shear planes per bolt; number of slip planes per bolt
N	= number of cycles per truck passage; modular ratio; number of shear connectors in a cross-section; minimum number of shear connectors over the region under consideration; number of equally spaced longitudinal flange stiffeners; number of bolts in one vertical row of a web splice
n_{ac}	= number of additional shear connectors required in the regions of points of permanent load contraflexure for sections that are noncomposite in negative-flexure regions
P	= total nominal shear force in the concrete deck for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state (N)
P_{1n}	= longitudinal force in the girder over an interior support for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state (N)
P_{1p}	= longitudinal force in the concrete deck at the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state (N)
P_{2n}	= longitudinal force in the concrete deck over an interior support for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state (N)
P_{2p}	= longitudinal force in the girder at the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state (N)
P_c	= plastic force in the compression flange used to compute the plastic moment (N)
P_h	= horizontal component of the flange force in the inclined bottom flange of a variable web depth member (N)
P_ℓ	= statically equivalent concentrated lateral concrete deck overhang bracket force placed at the middle of the unbraced length (N)
P_n	= nominal bearing resistance on pin plates (N); nominal axial compressive resistance (N); total longitudinal shear force in the concrete deck over an interior support for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state, taken as the lesser of either P_{1n} or P_{2n} (N)
P_{nu}	= nominal axial tensile resistance for fracture in the net section (N)
P_{ny}	= nominal axial tensile resistance for yielding in the gross section (N)
P_p	= total longitudinal shear force in the concrete deck at the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state, taken as the lesser of either P_{1p} or P_{2p} (N)

P_r	= factored axial tensile or compressive resistance (N); factored bearing resistance on pin plates (N); factored axial resistance of bearing stiffeners (N); nominal flexural resistance of an orthotropic deck, with consideration of the effective width of the deck (N); factored axial compressive resistance of a steel pile (N)
P_{rb}	= plastic force in the bottom layer of longitudinal deck reinforcement used to compute the plastic moment (N)
P_{rt}	= plastic force in the top layer of longitudinal deck reinforcement used to compute the plastic moment (N)
P_s	= plastic compressive force in the concrete deck used to compute the plastic moment (N)
P_T	= total longitudinal shear force in the concrete deck between the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support for the design of the shear connectors at the strength limit state, taken as the sum of P_p and P_n (N)
P_t	= minimum required bolt tension (N); plastic force in the tension flange used to compute the plastic moment (N)
P_u	= applied axial force due to the factored loads (N); direct tension or shear force on a bolt due to the factored loads (N); global tension due to the factored loads on an orthotropic deck (N)
P_v	= vertical component of the flange force in the inclined bottom flange of a variable web depth member (N)
P_w	= plastic force in the web used to compute the plastic moment (N)
P	= pitch of shear connectors along the longitudinal axis (mm); staggered pitch between two adjacent lines of staggered bolt holes (mm)
Q	= first moment of the transformed short-term area of the concrete deck about the neutral axis of the short-term composite section, or optionally in regions of negative flexure of straight girders only, the first area of the longitudinal reinforcement about the neutral axis of the composite section if the concrete is not considered to be effective in tension in computing the range of longitudinal stress (mm ³); first moment of one-half the effective box-flange area at an interior pier about the neutral axis of the effective internal diaphragm section (mm ³)
Q_n	= nominal shear resistance of a single shear connector (N)
Q_r	= factored shear resistance of a single shear connector (N)
Q_u	= prying tension per bolt due to the factored loads (N)
R	= transition radius of welded attachments as shown in Figure 6.1 (mm); minimum girder radius within a panel (mm); radius of curvature (mm); reduction factor applied to the factored shear resistance of bolts passing through fillers

R_1	= constant which when multiplied by $\sqrt{(kE/F_{yc})}$ defines the slenderness ratio for a box flange equal to 0.6 times the flange slenderness at which the elastic buckling stress for the flange equals the resistance for yielding under combined normal and shear stress
R_2	= constant which when multiplied by $\sqrt{(kE/F_{yc})}$ defines the slenderness ratio for a box flange equal to the flange slenderness at which the elastic buckling stress for the flange equals F_{yr}
R_b	= web load-shedding factor
R_{cf}	= absolute value of the ratio of F_{cf} to f_{cf} at a point of splice
R_h	= hybrid factor
R_n	= nominal resistance of a bolt, connection or connected material (N) or (MPa); nominal resistance to a concentrated loading (N)
$(R_{pB})_n$	= nominal bearing resistance on pins (N)
$(R_{pB})_r$	= factored bearing resistance on pins (N)
R_{pc}	= web plastification factor for the compression flange
R_{pt}	= web plastification factor for the tension flange
R_r	= factored resistance of a bolt, connection or connected material (N) or (MPa)
$(R_{sb})_n$	= nominal bearing resistance for the fitted end of bearing stiffeners (N)
$(R_{sb})_r$	= factored bearing resistance for the fitted end of bearing stiffeners (N)
R_u	= factored concentrated load or bearing reaction (N)
R	= minimum radius of gyration of a tension or compression member (mm); radius of gyration of a built-up member about an axis perpendicular to a perforated plate (mm); radius of gyration of a longitudinal web stiffener including an effective width of web taken about the neutral axis of the combined section (mm)
r_i	= minimum radius of gyration of an individual component shape (mm)
r_{ib}	= radius of gyration of an individual component shape relative to its centroidal axis parallel to the member axis of buckling (mm)
r_n	= nominal bearing pressure at bolt holes (MPa)
r_s	= radius of gyration of a structural steel shape, pipe or tubing about the plane of buckling (mm)
r_t	= effective radius of gyration for lateral torsional buckling (mm)
r_y	= radius of gyration of a steel section with respect to a vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm)
r_{yc}	= radius of gyration of the compression flange with respect to a vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm)

r_σ	= desired bending stress ratio in a horizontally curved I-girder, taken equal to f_ℓ / f_{bu}
S	= elastic section modulus (mm^3)
S_{LT}	= long-term composite elastic section modulus (mm^3)
S_{NC}	= noncomposite elastic section modulus (mm^3)
S_s	= elastic section modulus of a transverse flange stiffener (mm^3)
S_{ST}	= short-term composite elastic section modulus (mm^3)
S_x	= elastic section modulus to an inclined bottom flange of a variable web depth member (mm^3)
S_{xc}	= elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the compression flange taken as M_{yc}/F_{yc} (mm^3)
S_{xt}	= elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the tension flange taken as M_{yt}/F_{yt} (mm^3)
S_y	= elastic section modulus about the axis parallel with the web (mm^3)
s	= pitch of any two consecutive bolts in a staggered chain (mm); longitudinal spacing of transverse reinforcement in a concrete-encased shape (mm); spacing of bolts on a single line or in a staggered pattern adjacent to a free edge of an outside plate or shape (mm); vertical pitch of bolts in a web splice (mm)
s_t	= maximum transverse spacing between shear connectors on a composite box flange (mm)
T	= internal torque in a box section due to the factored loads (N-mm); base metal thickness of the thicker part joined in a fillet-welded connection given in Table 6.19 (mm)
T_n	= nominal resistance of a bolt in axial tension or in combined axial tension and shear (N)
T_r	= factored resistance of a bolt in axial tension or in combined axial tension and shear (N)
T_u	= tensile force per bolt due to Load Combination Service II (N)
t	= thickness of plate or plates (mm); thickness of tube or wall (mm); thickness of the thinner outside plate or shape (mm); thickness of the connected material (mm); thickness of the thinnest connected part (mm)
t_b	= thickness of the flange transmitting the concentrated force in a rigid-frame connection (mm)
t_c	= thickness of the flange of the member to be stiffened in a rigid-frame connection (mm)
t_f	= flange thickness (mm); flange thickness of a channel shear connector (mm); thickness of the flange resisting a concentrated load or bearing reaction (mm)

t_{fc}	= thickness of the compression flange (mm)
t_{ft}	= thickness of the tension flange (mm)
t_p	= thickness of a transversely loaded plate (mm); thickness of a projecting stiffener element (mm)
t_s	= thickness of a concrete deck (mm); thickness of a longitudinal web or flange stiffener (mm); thickness of an arch-rib stiffener (mm)
t_w	= web thickness (mm); web or tube thickness (mm); web thickness of a channel shear connector (mm); thickness of the web to be stiffened in a rigid-frame connection (mm); web thickness of an arch rib (mm)
U	= reduction factor to account for shear lag in connections subjected to a tension load
V	= additional shear force for built-up members with perforated plates (N); factored vertical shear force in the internal interior-pier diaphragm of a box section due to flexure plus St. Venant torsion (N)
V_{cr}	= shear-buckling resistance (N)
V_f	= vertical shear force range under the Fatigue Load Combination (N)
V_{fat}	= longitudinal fatigue shear range per unit length (N/mm)
V_n	= nominal shear resistance (N)
V_p	= plastic shear force (N)
V_r	= factored shear resistance (N)
V_{sr}	= horizontal fatigue shear range per unit length (N/mm); vector sum of the horizontal fatigue shear range and the torsional fatigue shear range in the concrete deck for a composite box flange (N/mm)
V_u	= shear due to the factored loads (N); vertical shear due to the factored loads on one inclined web of a box section (N)
V_{ui}	= shear due to the factored loads along one inclined web of a box section (N)
V_{uw}	= design shear for the web at a point of splice (N)
w	= center-to-center distance between the top flanges of a box section (mm); effective length of deck assumed acting radial to the girder (mm); larger of the width of a box flange between longitudinal flange stiffeners or the distance from a web to the nearest longitudinal flange stiffener (mm)
Y_o	= distance from the neutral axis to the extreme outer fiber of the cross-section (mm)
Y	= distance from the plastic neutral axis to the top of the element where the plastic neutral axis is located (mm)
Z	= curvature parameter for determining required longitudinal web stiffener rigidity; plastic section modulus (mm ³)

Z_r	=	shear fatigue resistance of an individual shear connector (N)
Z_y	=	plastic section modulus about the axis parallel with the web (mm^3)
α	=	separation ratio = $h/2r_{ib}$; factor defining the sloping straight line representing the finite-life portion of the fatigue shear resistance of an individual stud shear connector; factor for flange splice design generally equal to 1.0, except that a lower value equal to F_n/F_{yf} may be used for flanges where F_n is less than F_{yf}
β	=	factor equal to two times the area of the web based on D_n divided by A_{fn} used in computing the hybrid factor; factor defining the approximate ratio of D_p to $D_t/7.5$ at which a composite section in positive flexure reaches M_p ; curvature correction factor for longitudinal web stiffener rigidity
η	=	load modifier related to ductility, redundancy and operational importance
γ	=	load factor specified in Table 3.1 ; the ratio of A_f to A_p for filler plate design
Δ	=	total camber at any section along the effective span length of a heat-curved girder, including compensatory camber to account for possible camber loss (mm); reduction factor for the maximum stress in a box flange
Δ_{DL}	=	camber at any point along the effective span length of a heat-curved girder to compensate for deflection due to dead load or any other specified loads (mm)
Δf	=	live load stress range due to the passage of the fatigue load (MPa)
$(\Delta F)_n^c$	=	nominal fatigue resistance for Detail Category C (MPa)
$(\Delta F)_n$	=	nominal fatigue resistance (MPa)
ΔF_{TH}	=	constant amplitude fatigue threshold (MPa)
Δ_M	=	maximum value of Δ_{DL} within the effective span length of a heat-curved girder (mm)
Δ_R	=	additional camber to compensate for the possible loss of camber in a heat-curved girder (mm)
λ	=	normalized column slenderness factor
λ_f	=	slenderness ratio for the compression flange; slenderness ratio for the flange
λ_{pf}	=	limiting slenderness ratio for a compact flange
$\lambda_{pw}(D_c)$	=	limiting slenderness ratio for a compact web corresponding to $2D_c/t_w$
$\lambda_{pw}(D_{cp})$	=	limiting slenderness ratio for a compact web corresponding to $2D_{cp}/t_w$
λ_{rf}	=	limiting slenderness ratio for a noncompact flange
λ_{rw}	=	limiting slenderness ratio for a noncompact web
λ_w	=	slenderness ratio for the web based on the elastic moment

ψ	= ratio of the total cross-sectional area to the cross-sectional area of both flanges; constant used in determining the required moment of inertia of longitudinal stiffeners for box flanges
ρ	= factor equal to the smaller of F_{yw}/f_n and 1.0 used in computing the hybrid factor
ρ_t	= the larger of F_{yw}/F_{crs} and 1.0
θ	= angle of inclination of the bottom flange of a variable web depth member in degrees ($^{\circ}$); angle of inclination of the web plate of a box section to the vertical in degrees ($^{\circ}$)
θ_p	= plastic rotation at an interior-pier section (radians)
θ_{RL}	= plastic rotation at which the moment at an interior-pier section nominally begins to decrease with increasing θ_p (radians)
σ_{flg}	= range of longitudinal fatigue stress in the bottom flange without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
ϕ	= resistance factor; resistance factor for resistance during pile driving; resistance factor for concrete in tension
ϕ_b	= resistance factor for bearing
ϕ_{bb}	= resistance factor for bolts bearing on material
ϕ_{bs}	= resistance factor for block shear
ϕ_c	= resistance factor for axial compression
ϕ_{el}	= resistance factor for shear on the effective area of the weld metal in complete penetration welds; resistance factor for tension normal to the effective area of the weld metal in partial penetration welds
ϕ_{e2}	= resistance factor for shear parallel to the axis of the weld metal in partial penetration welds; resistance factor for shear in the throat of the weld metal in fillet welds
ϕ_f	= resistance factor for flexure
ϕ_s	= resistance factor for shear in bolts
ϕ_{sc}	= resistance factor for shear connectors
ϕ_{sd}	= resistance factor for shakedown
ϕ_t	= resistance factor for tension in bolts
ϕ_u	= resistance factor for fracture on the net section of tension members
ϕ_v	= resistance factor for shear
ϕ_w	= resistance factor for web crippling
ϕ_y	= resistance factor for yielding on the gross section of tension members

6.4. MATERIALS

6.4.1. Structural Steels

Structural steels shall conform to the requirements specified in [Table 6.1](#), and the design shall be based on the minimum properties indicated.

The modulus of elasticity and the thermal coefficient of expansion of all grades of structural steel shall be assumed as 2×10^5 MPa and 11.7×10^{-6} mm/mm/°C, respectively.

AASHTO M 270/M 270, Grade 250, (**ASTM A 709/A 709M**, Grade 250) may be used in thicknesses over 100 mm for nonstructural applications or bearing assembly components.

Quenched and tempered alloy steel structural shapes and seamless mechanical tubing with a specified maximum tensile strength not exceeding 965 MPa for structural shapes or 1000 MPa for seamless mechanical tubing may be used, provided that:

- The material meets all other mechanical and chemical requirements of either **AASHTO M270/M 270** (**ASTM A 709/A 709M**, Grade 690 or 690W), and
- The design is based upon the minimum properties specified for **ASTM A 709M**, Grades 690 and 690W, steel.

Structural tubing shall be either cold-formed welded or seamless tubing conforming to **ASTM A 500**, Grade B, or hot-formed welded or seamless tubing conforming to **ASTM A 501**.

Thickness limitations relative to rolled shapes and groups shall comply with **AASHTO M 160/M 160** (**ASTM A 6/A 6M**).

- C The term "yield strength" is used in these Specifications as a generic term to denote either the specified minimum yield point or the specified minimum yield strength.
- C The main difference, and in most cases the only difference, between **AASHTO** and **ASTM** requirements is the inclusion of mandatory notch toughness and weldability requirements in the **AASHTO Material Standards**. Steels meeting the **AASHTO Material requirements** are prequalified for use in welded bridges.
- C The yield strength in the direction parallel to the direction of rolling is of primary interest in the design of most steel structures. In welded bridges, notch toughness is of equal importance. Other mechanical and physical properties of rolled steel, such as anisotropy, ductility, formability, and corrosion resistance, may also be important to ensure the satisfactory performance of the structure.
- C No specification can anticipate all of the unique or especially demanding applications that may arise. The literature on specific properties of concern and appropriate supplementary material production or quality requirements, provided in the **AASHTO** and **ASTM** Material Specifications and the **AASHTO/AWS D1.5M/D1.5 Bridge Welding Code**, should be considered, if appropriate.
- C **AASHTO M 270M/M270** (**ASTM A 709/A 709M**), Grade HPS 485W, has replaced **AASHTO M 270M/M270** (**ASTM A 709 A 709M**), Grade 485W, in [Table 6.1](#). The intent of this replacement is to encourage the use of HPS steel over conventional bridge steels due to its enhanced properties. **AASHTO M 270M/M270** (**ASTM A 709/A 709M**), Grade 485W, is still available, but should be used only with the Owner's approval. The available lengths of **AASHTO M 270M/M270** (**ASTM A 709/A 709M**), Grade HPS 485W, are a function of the processing of the plate, with longer lengths produced as as-rolled plate.

Table 6.1: Minimum Mechanical Properties of Structural Steel by Shape, Strength, and Thickness.

AASHTO Designation	M 270/M 270 Grade 250	M 270/M 270 Grade 345	M 270/M 270 Grade 345S	M 270/M 270 Grade 345W	M 270/M 270 Grade HPS 345W	M 270/M 270 Grade HPS 485W	M 270/M 270 Grades 690/690W
Equivalent ASTM Designation	A 709/A 709 M Grade 250	A 709/A 709 M Grade 345	A 709/A 709 M Grade 345S	A 709/A 709 M Grade 345W	A 709/A 709 M Grade HPS 345W	A 709/A 709 M Grade HPS 485W	A 709/A 709 M Grades 690/690W
Thickness of Plates, mm.	Up to 100 incl.	Up to 100 incl.	Not Applicable	Up to 100 incl.	Up to 100 incl.	Up to 100 incl.	Up to 65 incl. Over 65 to 100 incl.
Shapes	All Groups	All Groups	All Groups	All Groups	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Not Applicable
Minimum Tensile Strength, Fu, MPa	400	450	450	485	485	585	760 690
Specified Minimum Yield Point or Specified Minimum Yield Strength, Fy, MPa	250	345	345	345	345	485	690 620

6.4.2. Pins, Rollers, and Rockers

Steel for pins, rollers, and expansion rockers shall conform to the requirements [Table 6.2](#), [Table 6.1](#), or Article [6.4.7](#).

Expansion rollers shall be not less than 100 mm in diameter.

Table 6.2: Minimum Mechanical Properties of Pins, Rollers, and Rockers by Size and Strength.

AASHTO Designation with Size Limitations	M 169 100 mm in dia. or less	M 102M/ M 102 to 500 mm in dia.	M 102M/ M 102 to 500 mm in dia.	M 102M/ M 102 to 250 mm in dia.	M 102M/ M 102 to 500 mm in dia.
ASTM Designation Grade or Class	A 108 Grades 1016 to 1030 incl.	A 668/ A 668M Class C	A 668/ A 668M Class D	A 668/ A 668M Class F	A 668/ A 668M Class G
Specified Minimum Yield Point, F_y , MPa	250	230	260	345	345

6.4.3. Bolts, Nuts, and Washers

6.4.3.1. Bolts

Bolts used as structural fasteners shall conform to one of the following:

- The Standard Specification for Carbon Steel Bolts and Studs, 420 MPa Tensile Strength, [ASTM A 307](#) Grade A or B.
- The Standard Specification for High-Strength Bolts for Structural Steel Joints with a required minimum tensile strength of 830 MPa, AASHTO M 164M ([ASTM A 325M](#)), or
- The Standard Specification for High-Strength Bolts, Classes 10.9 and 10.9.3, for Structural Steel Joints, AASHTO M 253M ([ASTM A 490M](#)).
- Type 1 bolts should be used with steels other than weathering steel. Type 3 bolts conforming with either

AASHTO M 164M ([ASTM A 325M](#)) or AASHTO M 253M ([ASTM A 490M](#)) shall be used with weathering steels. AASHTO M 164M ([ASTM A 325M](#)) Type 1 bolts may be either hot-dip galvanized in accordance with AASHTO M 232M/M 232 ([ASTM A 153/A 153 M](#)), Class C, or mechanically galvanized in accordance with AASHTO M 298 ([ASTM B 695](#)), Class 345 (50), when approved by the Engineer. Galvanized bolts shall be retested after galvanizing, as required by AASHTO M 164M ([ASTM A 325M](#)).

AASHTO M 253M ([ASTM A 490M](#)) bolts shall not be galvanized.

- C The ASTM standard for A 307 bolts covers two grades of fasteners. There is no corresponding AASHTO standard. Either grade may be used under these Specifications; however, Grade B is intended for pipe flange bolting, and Grade A is the quality traditionally used for structural applications.

Washers, nuts, and bolts of any assembly shall be galvanized by the same process. The nuts should be overtapped to the minimum amount required for the fastener assembly and shall be lubricated with a lubricant containing a visible dye.

Anchor Bolts shall conform to one of the following:

- ASTM A 307 Grade C,
- ASTM F 1554.

- C The purpose of the dye is to allow a visual check to be made for the lubricant at the time of field installation.
- C Black bolts must be oily to the touch when delivered and installed.

6.4.3.2. Nuts

1. Nuts Used with Structural Fasteners

Nuts used with structural fasteners shall conform to the following as appropriate.

Except as noted below, nuts for AASHTO M 164M ([ASTM A 325M](#)) bolts shall conform to the Standard Specification for Carbon and Alloy Steel Nuts, AASHTO M 291M ([ASTM A 563M](#)), Property Class 8S, 8S3, 10S or 10S3.

Nuts for AASHTO M 253M ([ASTM A 490M](#)) bolts shall conform to the requirements of AASHTO M 291M ([ASTM A 563M](#)), Property Class 10S or 10S3.

Nuts to be galvanized shall be heat treated Property Class 10S. The provisions of Article [6.4.3.1](#) shall apply. All galvanized nuts shall be lubricated with lubricant containing a visible dye.

Plain nuts shall have a minimum hardness of 89 HRB.

Nuts to be used with AASHTO M 164M ([ASTM A 325M](#)), Type 3 bolts shall be Property Class 8S3 or 10S3. Nuts to be used with AASHTO M 253M ([ASTM A 490M](#)) Type 3 bolts shall be Property Class 10S3.

2. Nuts Used with Anchor Bolts

Nuts used with anchor bolts shall conform to the following as appropriate.

Nuts for ASTM A 307 Grade C and for ASTM F 1554 anchor bolts shall conform to AASHTO M 291 ([ASTM A 563](#)) for appropriate grade and size of anchor bolt.

Nuts to be galvanized shall be heat treated Grade DH or DH3. the provisions of Article [6.4.3.1](#) shall apply. All galvanized nuts should be lubricated with a lubricant containing a visible dye.

6.4.3.3. Washers

Washers shall conform to the Standard Specification for Hardened Steel Washers, AASHTO M 293M ([ASTM F 436M](#)).

The provisions of Article [6.4.3.1](#) shall apply to galvanized washers.

- C Installation provisions for washers are covered in the [AASHTO LRFD Bridge Construction Specifications \(2004\)](#).

6.4.3.4. Alternative Fasteners

Other fasteners or fastener assemblies not specified heretofore, such as those conforming to the requirements of [ASTM F 1852](#), may be used subject to the approval of the Engineer, provided that:

- They meet materials, manufacturing, and chemical composition requirements of AASHTO M 164M ([ASTM A 325M](#)) or AASHTO M 253M ([ASTM A 490M](#)),

- They meet mechanical property requirements of the same specification in full size tests, and
 - The body diameter and bearing areas under the head and nut, or their equivalent, shall not be less than those provided by a bolt and nut of the same nominal dimensions prescribed in Articles [6.4.3.1](#) and [6.4.3.2](#).
- C An equivalent SI version of the [ASTM F 1852](#) specification is not currently available. Therefore, reference is made here to the Customary US units version of the specification.

Such alternate fasteners may differ in other dimensions from those of the bolts, nuts, and washers specified in Articles [6.4.3.1](#) through [6.4.3.3](#)

6.4.3.5. Load Indicator Devices

Load-indicating devices conforming to the requirements of the Standard Specification for Compressible-Washer Type Direct Tension Indicators for Use with Structural Fasteners, [ASTM F 959M](#), may be used in conjunction with bolts, nuts and washers.

Alternate direct tension indicating devices may be used, subject to the approval of the Engineer.

- C Installation provisions for load-indicating devices are covered in the [AASHTO LRFD Bridge Construction Specifications \(2004\)](#).

6.4.4. Stud Shear Connectors

Shear connector studs shall be made from cold-drawn bars, Grades 1015, 1018, or 1020, either semi or fully killed, conforming to AASHTO M 169 ([ASTM A 108](#))

Standard Specification for Steel Bars, Carbon, Cold-Finished, Standard Quality, and shall have a specified minimum yield and tensile strength of 345 MPa and 415 MPa, respectively. If flux retaining caps are used, the steel for the caps shall be of a low carbon grade suitable for welding and shall conform to [ASTM A 109M](#)— Standard Specification for Steel, Carbon, Cold-rolled Strip.

- C Physical properties, test methods and certification of steel shear connectors are covered in the [AASHTO LRFD Bridge Construction Specifications \(2004\)](#).

6.4.5. Weld Metal

Weld metal shall conform to the requirements of the [AASHTO/AWS D1.5M/D1.5 Bridge Welding Code](#).

- C The [AWS designation systems](#) are not consistent. For example, there are differences between the system used for designating electrodes for shielded metal arc welding and the system used for designating submerged arc welding.
- C Therefore, when specifying weld metal and/or flux by [AWS designation](#), the applicable specification should be reviewed to ensure a complete understanding of the designation reference.

6.4.6. Cast Metal

6.4.6.1. Cast Steel and Ductile Iron

Cast steel shall conform to one of the following:

- AASHTO M 103M/M 103 ([ASTM A 27/A 27M](#)), Grade 485-250, unless otherwise specified;
- AASHTO M 163M/M 163 ([ASTM A 743/A 743M](#)), Grade CA15, unless otherwise specified.

Ductile iron castings shall conform to the Standard Specification for Ductile Iron Castings, [ASTM A 536](#), Grade 414-276-18, unless otherwise specified.

6.4.6.2. Malleable Castings

Malleable castings shall conform to [ASTM A 47M](#), Grade 24118—Standard Specification for Ferritic Malleable Iron Castings. The specified minimum yield strength shall not be less than 241 MPa.

6.4.6.3. Cast Iron

Cast iron castings shall conform to AASHTO M 105 ([ASTM A 48M](#)), Class 30—Standard Specification for Gray Alloy Castings.

6.4.7. Stainless Steel

Stainless steel may conform to one of the following:

- 1) [ASTM A 176](#)—Standard Specification for Stainless and Heat-Resisting Chromium Steel Plate, Sheet, and Strip;
- 2) [ASTM A 240M](#)—Standard Specification for Heat-Resisting Chromium and Chromium-Nickel Stainless Steel Plate, Sheet, and Strip for Pressure Vessels;
- 3) [ASTM A 276](#)—Standard Specification for Stainless and Heat-Resistant Steel Bars and Shapes; or
- 4) [ASTM A 666](#)—Standard Specification for Austenitic Stainless Steel Sheet, Strip, Plate and Flat Bar for Structural Applications.

Stainless steel not conforming to the above-listed specifications may be used, provided that it conforms to the chemical and mechanical requirements of one of the above-listed specifications or other published specifications that establish its properties and suitability and that it is subjected to analyses, tests, and other controls to the extent and in the manner prescribed by one of the listed specifications.

6.4.8. Cables

6.4.8.1. Bright Wire

Bright wire shall conform to [ASTM A 510M](#)— Standard Specification for General Requirements for Wire Rods and Coarse Round Wire, Carbon Steel.

6.4.8.2. Galvanized Wire

Galvanized wire shall conform to [ASTM A 641M](#)— Standard Specification for Zinc-Coated (Galvanized) Carbon Steel Wire.

6.4.8.3. Epoxy-Coated Wire

Epoxy-coated wire shall conform to [ASTM A 99](#)— Standard Specification for Steel Wire Epoxy-Coated.

6.4.8.4. Bridge Strand

Bridge strand shall conform to [ASTM A 586](#)— Standard Specification for Zinc-Coated Parallel and Helical Steel Wire Structural Strand, or [ASTM A 603](#)— Standard Specification for Zinc-Coated Steel Structural Wire Rope.

6.5. LIMIT STATES

6.5.1. General

The structural behavior of components made of steel or steel in combination with other materials shall be investigated for each stage that may be critical during construction, handling, transportation, and erection as well as during the service life of the structure of which they are part.

Structural components shall be proportioned to satisfy the requirements at strength, extreme event, service, and fatigue limit states.

6.5.2. Service Limit State

The provisions of Article 2.6.2.6 shall apply as applicable.

Flexural members shall be investigated at the service limit state as specified in Articles 6.10 and 6.11.

- C The intent of the service limit state provisions specified for flexural members in Articles 6.10 and 6.11 is primarily to prevent objectionable permanent deformations due to localized yielding that would impair rideability under expected severe traffic loadings.

6.5.3. Fatigue and Fracture Limit State

Components and details shall be investigated for fatigue as specified in Article 6.6.

The fatigue load combination specified in Table 3.1 and the fatigue live load specified in Article 3.6.1.4 shall apply.

Flexural members shall be investigated at the fatigue and fracture limit state as specified in Articles 6.10 and 6.11.

Bolts subject to tensile fatigue shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.13.2.10.3.

Fracture toughness requirements shall be in conformance with Article 6.6.2.

6.5.4. Strength Limit State

6.5.4.1. General

Strength and stability shall be considered using the applicable strength load combinations specified in Table 3.1.

6.5.4.2. Resistance Factors

- C Base metal ϕ as appropriate for resistance under consideration.

Resistance factors, ϕ , for the strength limit state shall be taken as follows:

For flexure	$\phi_f = 0.90$
For shear	$\phi_v = 0.90$
For axial compression, steel only	$\phi_c = 0.85$
For axial compression, composite	$\phi_c = 0.85$
For tension, fracture in net section	$\phi_u = 0.75$
For tension, yielding in gross section	$\phi_y = 0.95$
For bearing on pins in reamed, drilled or bored holes and on milled surfaces	$\phi_b = 1.00$

For bolts bearing on material	$\phi_{bb} = 0.75$
For shear connectors	$\phi_{sc} = 0.75$
For A 325M and A 490M bolts in tension	$\phi_t = 0.75$
For A 307 bolts in tension	$\phi_t = 0.75$
For F 1554 bolts in tension	$\phi_t = 0.75$
For A 307 bolts in shear	$\phi_s = 0.75$
For F 1554 bolts in shear	$\phi_t = 0.75$
For A 325M and A 490M bolts in shear	$\phi_s = 0.75$
For block shear	$\phi_{bs} = 0.75$
For web crippling	$\phi_w = 0.75$
For weld metal in complete penetration welds:	
shear on effective area	$\phi_{el} = 0.85$
tension or compression normal to effective area	Same as base metal
tension or compression parallel to axis of the weld	Same as base metal
For weld metal in partial penetration welds:	
shear parallel to axis of weld	$\phi_{e2} = 0.75$
tension or compression parallel to axis of weld	Same as base metal
compression normal to the effective area	Same as base metal
tension normal to the effective area	$\phi_{e2} = 0.80$
For weld metal in fillet welds:	
tension or compression parallel to axis of the weld	Same as base metal
shear in throat of weld metal	$\phi_{e2} = 0.80$
For resistance during pile driving	$\phi = 0.90$
For axial resistance of piles in compression and subject to damage due to severe driving conditions where use of a pile tip is necessary:	
H-piles	$\phi_c = 0.50$
Pipe piles	$\phi_c = 0.60$
For axial resistance of piles in compression under good driving conditions where use of a pile tip is not necessary:	
H-piles	$\phi_c = 0.60$
pipe piles	$\phi_c = 0.70$
The basis for the resistance factors for driven steel piles is described in Article 6.15.2. Further limitations on usable resistance during driving are specified in Article 10.7.8.	
For combined axial and flexural resistance of undamaged piles:	
axial resistance for H-piles	$\phi_c = 0.70$
axial resistance for pipe piles	$\phi_c = 0.80$
flexural resistance	$\phi_c = 0.90$

- C Indicated values of ϕ_c and ϕ_f for combined axial and flexural resistance are for use in interaction equations in Article [6.9.2.2](#).

6.5.5. Extreme Event Limit State

All applicable extreme event load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) shall be investigated.

All resistance factors for the extreme event limit state, except for bolts, shall be taken as 1.0.

All resistance factors for ASTM A 307 Grade C and ASTM F 1554 bolts used as anchor bolts for the extreme event limit state shall be taken to be 1.0.

Bolted joints not protected by capacity design or structural fuses may be assumed to behave as bearing-type connections at the extreme event limit state, and the values of resistance factors for bolts given in Article [6.5.4.2](#) shall apply.

6.6. FATIGUE AND FRACTURE CONSIDERATIONS

6.6.1. Fatigue

6.6.1.1. General

Fatigue shall be categorized as load- or distortion induced fatigue.

- C In the [AASHTO Standard Specifications for Highway Bridges \(2002\)](#), the provisions explicitly relating to fatigue deal only with load-induced fatigue.

6.6.1.2. Load-Induced Fatigue

1. Application

The force effect considered for the fatigue design of a steel bridge detail shall be the live load stress range. For flexural members with shear connectors provided throughout their entire length, and with concrete deck reinforcement satisfying the provisions of Article [6.10.1.7](#), live load stresses and stress ranges for fatigue design may be computed using the short-term composite section assuming the concrete deck to be effective for both positive and negative flexure.

Residual stresses shall not be considered in investigating fatigue.

- C Concrete can provide significant resistance to tensile stress at service load levels. Recognizing this behavior will have a significantly beneficial effect on the computation of fatigue stress ranges in top flanges in regions of stress reversal and in regions of negative flexure. By utilizing shear connectors in these regions to ensure composite action in combination with the required one percent longitudinal reinforcement wherever the longitudinal tensile stress in the concrete deck exceeds the factored modulus of rupture of the concrete, crack length and width can be controlled so that full-depth cracks should not occur. When a crack does occur, the stress in the longitudinal reinforcement increases until the crack is arrested. Ultimately, the cracked concrete and the reinforcement reach equilibrium. Thus, the concrete deck may contain a small number of staggered cracks at any given section. Properly placed longitudinal reinforcement prevents coalescence of these cracks.
- C It has been shown that the level of total applied stress is insignificant for a welded steel detail. Residual stresses due to welding are implicitly included through the specification of stress range as the sole dominant stress parameter for fatigue design. This same concept of considering only stress range has been applied to rolled, bolted, and riveted details where far different residual stress fields exist. The application to non-welded details is conservative.

These provisions shall be applied only to details subjected to a net applied tensile stress. In regions where the unfactored permanent loads produce compression, fatigue shall be considered only if the compressive stress is less than twice the maximum

tensile live load stress resulting from the fatigue load combination specified in Table [Table 3.1](#).

- C The live load stress due to the passage of the fatigue load is approximately one-half that of the heaviest truck expected to cross the bridge in 75 years.
- C Cross-frames and diaphragms connecting adjacent girders are stressed when one girder deflects with respect to the adjacent girder connected by the diaphragm or cross-frame. The sense of stress is reversed when the vehicle is placed over the adjacent girder. These two transverse positions of the vehicle usually create the largest stress range in these bracing members. To simulate such a stress cycle, two vehicles traverse the bridge in adjacent lanes, one vehicle leading the other. For cases where the force effects in these members are available from an analysis, it may be desirable in some instances to check fatigue-sensitive details on a bracing member subjected to a net applied tensile stress determined as specified herein. For such cases, it is recommended that one cycle of stress be taken as 75 percent of the stress range in the member determined by the passage of the factored fatigue load in two different transverse positions. The factor of 0.75 is distinct from the load factor of 0.75 specified for the fatigue load combination in [Table 3.1](#), i.e., both apply. It accounts in an approximate fashion for the probability of two vehicles being located in the critical relative position. However, in no case should the calculated range of stress be less than the stress range due to a single passage of the factored fatigue load. If the maximum stress in a bracing member is caused by a single axle, the number of cycles of stress range should be taken equal to two times the number of truck passages. There is no allowance in this recommended procedure for the fact that two trucks are required to cause the critical stress range. When the nominal fatigue resistance is calculated based on a finite life, the Engineer may wish to consider a reduction in the number of cycles.

2. Design Criteria

For load-induced fatigue considerations, each detail shall satisfy:

$$\gamma(\Delta f) \leq (\Delta F)_n \quad (6.1)$$

where:

- γ = load factor specified in [Table 3.1](#) for the fatigue load combination
- Δf = force effect, live load stress range due to the passage of the fatigue load as specified in Article [3.6.1.4](#) (MPa)
- $(\Delta F)_n$ = nominal fatigue resistance as specified in Article [6.6.1.2.5](#) (MPa)

- C Eq. [\(6.2\)](#) may be developed by rewriting Eq. [\(1.1\)](#) in terms of fatigue load and resistance parameters:

$$\eta\gamma(\Delta f) \leq \phi(\Delta F)_n \quad (6.2)$$

- C But for the fatigue limit state,

$$\begin{aligned} \eta &= 1.0 \\ \phi &= 1.0 \end{aligned}$$

3. Detail Categories

Components and details with fatigue resistance less than or equal to Detail Category C shall be designed to satisfy the requirements of their respective detail categories, summarized in [Table 6.3](#) and [Table 6.4](#) and shown in [Figure 6.1](#).

- C Components and details susceptible to load-induced fatigue cracking have been grouped into eight categories, called detail categories, by fatigue resistance.
- C Experience indicates that in the design process the fatigue considerations for Detail Categories A through B rarely, if ever, govern. Components and details with fatigue resistances greater than Detail Category C have been included in [Table 6.3](#) and [Table 6.4](#) for completeness. Investigation of

details with fatigue resistance greater than Detail Category C may be appropriate in unusual design cases.

- C Category F for allowable shear stress range on the throat of a fillet weld has been eliminated from [Table 6.3](#) and replaced by Category E. Category F was not as well defined. Category E can be conservatively applied in place of Category F. When fillet welds are properly sized for strength considerations, Category F should not govern.
- C In [Table 6.3](#), "Longitudinally Loaded" signifies that the direction of applied stress is parallel to the longitudinal axis of the weld. "Transversely Loaded" signifies that the direction of applied stress is perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the weld.
- C Research on end-bolted cover plates is discussed in [Wattar et al. \(1985\)](#).
- C [Table 6.4](#) contains special details for orthotropic plates. These details require careful consideration of not only the specification requirements, but also the application guidelines in the commentary.
 - Welded deck plate field splices, Cases (1), (2), (3)-The current specifications distinguish between the transverse and the longitudinal deck plate splices and treat the transverse splices more conservatively. However, there appears to be no valid reason for such differential treatment; in fact, the longitudinal deck plate splices may be subjected to higher stresses under the effects of local wheel loads. Therefore, only the governing fatigue stress range should govern. One of the disadvantages of field splices with backing bars left in place is possible vertical misalignment and corrosion susceptibility. Intermittent tack welds inside of the groove may be acceptable because the tack welds are ultimately fused with the groove weld material. The same considerations apply to welded closed rib splices.
 - Bolted deck or rib splices, Case (4): Bolted deck splices are not applicable where thin surfacings are intended. However, bolted rib splices, requiring "bolting windows", but having a favorable fatigue rating, combined with welded deck splices, are favored in American practice.
 - Welded deck and rib shop splices: Case (6) corresponds to the current provision. Case (5) gives a more favorable classification for welds ground flush.
 - "Window" rib splice: Case (7) is the method favored by designers for welded splices of closed ribs, offering the advantage of easy adjustment in the field. According to ECSC research, a large welding gap improves fatigue strength. A disadvantage of this splice is inferior quality and reduced fatigue resistance of the manual overhead weld between the rib insert and the deck plate, and fatigue sensitive junction of the shop and the field deck/rib weld.
 - Ribs at intersections with floorbeams: A distinction is made between rib walls subjected to axial stresses only, i.e., Case (8), closed ribs with internal diaphragm, or open rib, and rib walls subjected to additional out-of-plane bending, i.e., Case (9), closed ribs without internal diaphragms, where out-of-plane bending caused by complex interaction of the closed-rib wall with the "tooth" of the floorbeam web between the ribs contributes additional flexural stresses in the rib wall which should be added to the axial stresses in calculations of the governing stress range. Calculation of the interaction forces and additional flexure in the rib walls is extremely complex because of the many geometric parameters involved and may be accomplished only by a refined FEM analysis. Obviously, this is often not a practical design option, and it is expected that the designers will choose Case (8) with an interior diaphragm, in which case there is no cantilever in-plane bending of the floorbeam "tooth" and no associated interaction stress causing bending of the rib wall. However, Case (9) may serve for evaluation of existing decks without internal diaphragms inside the closed ribs.
 - Floorbeam web at intersection with the rib similarly, as in the cases above, distinction is made between the closed ribs with and without internal diaphragms in the plane of the floorbeam web. For the Case (10), the stress flow in the floorbeam web is assumed to be uninterrupted by the cutout for the rib; however, an additional axial stress component acting on the connecting welds due to the tension field in the "tooth" of the floorbeam web caused by shear applied at the floorbeam/deck plate junction must be added to the axial stress f_1 . A local flexural stress f_2 in the floorbeam web is due to the out-of-plane bending of the web caused by the rotation of the rib in its plane under the effects of unsymmetrical live loads on the deck. Both stresses f_1 and f_2 at the toe of the weld are directly additive; however, only stress f_1 is to be included in checking the load carrying capacity of filled welds by Eq. [\(6.5\)](#). The connection between the rib wall and floorbeam web or rib wall and internal diaphragm plate can also be made using a combination groove/fillet weld connection. The fatigue resistance of the combination groove/fillet weld connection has been found to be Category C and is not governed by Eq. [\(6.5\)](#). See also Note e), [Figure 7.8](#). Stress f_2 can be

calculated from considerations of rib rotation under variable live load and geometric parameters accounting for rotational restraints at the rib support, e.g., floorbeam depth, floorbeam web thickness. For Case (11), without an internal diaphragm, the stresses in the web are very complex and comments for Case (9) apply.

- Deck plate at the connection to the floorbeam web. For Case (12) basic considerations apply for a stress flow in the direction parallel to the floorbeam web locally deviated by a longitudinal weld, for which Category E is usually assigned. Tensile stress in the deck, which is relevant for fatigue analysis, will occur in floorbeams continuous over a longitudinal girder, or in a floorbeam cantilever. Additional local stresses in the deck plate in the direction of the floorbeam web will occur in closed-rib decks of traditional design where the deck plate is unsupported over the rib cavity. Resulting stress flow concentration at the edges of floorbeam "teeth" may cause very high peak stresses. This has resulted in severe cracking in some thin deck plates which were 12 mm thick or less. This additional out-of-plane local stress may be reduced by extending the internal diaphragm plate inside the closed rib and fitting it tightly against the underside of the deck plate to provide continuous support (Wolchuk, 1999). Reduction of these stresses in thicker deck plates remains to be studied. A thick surfacing may also contribute to a wider load distribution and deck plate stress reduction. Fatigue tests on a full-scale prototype orthotropic deck demonstrated that a deck plate of 16 mm was sufficient to prevent any cracking after 15.5 million cycles. The applied load was 3.6 times the equivalent fatigue-limit state wheel load and there was no wearing surface on the test specimen. However, the minimum deck plate thickness allowed by these specifications is extending the diaphragms to fit the underside of the deck is suggested as a safety precaution, especially if large rib web spacing is used.
- Additional commentary on the use of internal diaphragms versus cutouts in the floorbeam web can be found in commentary of Article [7.8.3.7.4](#).

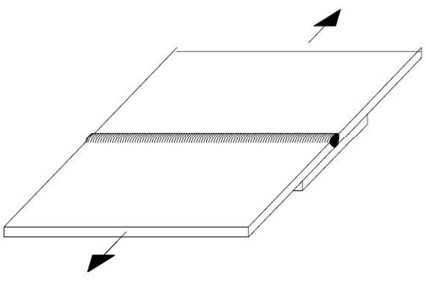
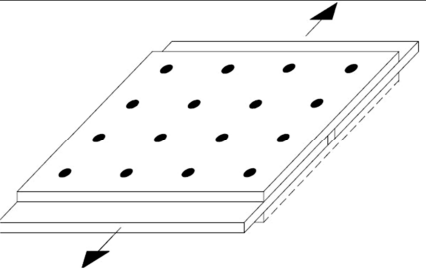
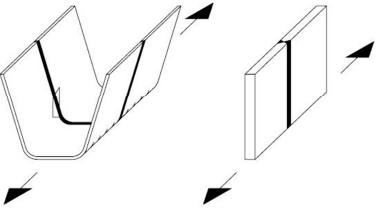
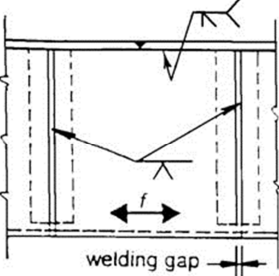
Table 6.3: Detail Categories for Load-Induced Fatigue.

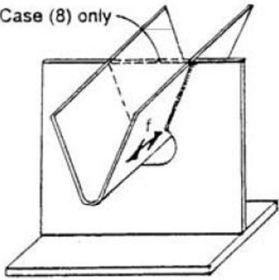
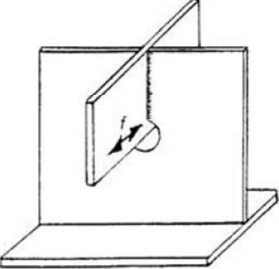
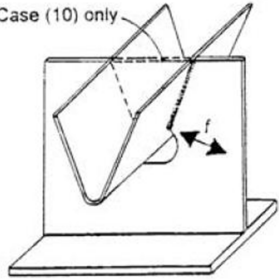
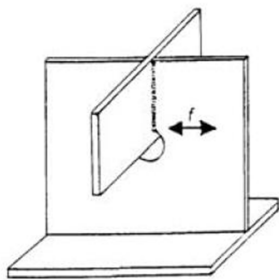
General Condition	Situation	Detail Category	Illustrative Example, See Figure 6.1
Plain Members	Base metal: • With rolled or cleaned surfaces; flame-cut edges with AASHTO/AWS D1.5M/D1.5 (Section 3.2.2) smoothness of 0.025 mm or less • Of unpainted weathering steel, all grades, designed and detailed in accordance with FHWA (1989) • At net section of eyebar heads and pin plates	A B E	1, 2
Builtup Members	• Base metal and weld metal in components, without attachments, connected by: • Continuous full penetration groove welds with backing bars removed, or • Continuous fillet welds parallel to the direction of applied stress • Continuous full penetration groove welds with backing bars in place, or • Continuous partial-penetration groove welds parallel to the direction of applied stress Base metal at ends of partial-length cover plates: • With bolted slip-critical end connections • Narrower than the flange, with or without end welds, or wider than the flange with end welds - flange thickness ≤ 20 mm - flange thickness > 20 mm • Wider than the flange without end welds	B B B' B' B E E' E'	3, 4, 5, 7 22 7
Groove-Welded Splice Connections with Weld Soundness Established by NDT and All Required Grinding in the Direction of the Applied Stresses	Base metal and weld metal at full penetration groove-welded splices: • Of plates of similar cross-sections with welds ground flush • With 600 mm radius transitions in width with welds ground flush • With transitions in width or thickness with welds ground to provide slopes no steeper than 1.0 to 2.5 - grades 690/690W base metal - other base metal grades	B B B' B	8, 10 13 11, 12
	• With or without transitions having slopes no greater than 1.0 to 2.5 when weld reinforcement is not removed	C	8, 10, 11, 12

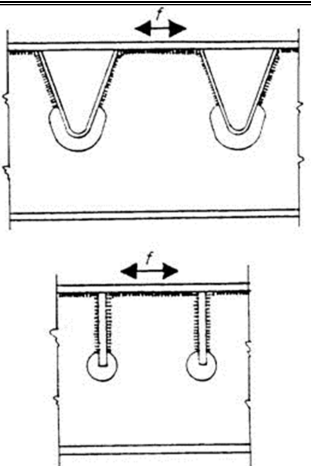
General Condition	Situation	Detail Category	Illustrative Example, See Figure 6.1
Longitudinally Loaded Groove-Welded Attachments	Base metal at details attached by full or partial-penetration groove welds: - When the detail length in the direction of applied stress is: - less than 50 mm - between 50 mm and 12 times the detail thickness, but less than 100 mm - greater than either 12 times the detail thickness or 100 mm - detail thickness < 25 mm - With a transition radius with the end welds ground smooth, regardless of detail length: - transition radius ≥ 600 mm $600 \text{ mm} > \text{transition radius} \geq 150$ mm $150 \text{ mm} > \text{transition radius} \geq 50$ mm - transition radius < 50 mm - With a transition radius with end welds not ground smooth	C D E E' B C D E E	6, 15 15 15 15 16 16
Transversely Loaded Groove-Welded Attachments with Weld Soundness Established by NDT and All Required Grinding Transverse to the Direction of Stress	Base metal at detail attached by full penetration groove welds with a transition radius: - With equal plate thickness and weld reinforcement removed: - transition radius ≥ 600 mm $600 \text{ mm} > \text{transition radius} \geq 150$ mm $150 > \text{transition radius} \geq 50$ mm - transition radius < 50 mm - With equal plate thickness and weld reinforcement not removed: - transition radius ≥ 150 mm $150 \text{ mm} > \text{transition radius} \geq 50$ mm - transition radius < 50 mm - With unequal plate thickness and weld reinforcement removed: - transition radius ≥ 50 mm - transition radius < 50 mm - For any transition radius with unequal plate thickness and weld reinforcement not removed	B C D E C D E D E E	16
Fillet-Welded Connections with Welds Normal to the Direction of Stress	Base metal:		
	- At details other than transverse stiffener-to-flange or transverse stiffener-to-web connections - At the toe of transverse stiffener-to-flange and transverse stiffener-to-web welds	Lesser of C or Eq. (6.5) C'	14 6
Fillet-Welded Connections with Welds	Shear stress on the weld throat Base metal at end of weld	E	9

General Condition	Situation	Detail Category	Illustrative Example, See Figure 6.1
Normal and/or Parallel to the Direction of Stress Longitudinally Loaded Fillet-Welded Attachments	Base metal at details attached by fillet welds:		
	• When the detail length in the direction of applied stress is:		
	o less than 50 mm or stud-type shear connectors	C	15, 17, 18, 20
	o between 50 mm and 12 times the detail thickness, but less than 100 mm	D	15, 17
	o greater than either 12 times the detail thickness or 100 mm - detail thickness <25 mm	E E'	7, 9, 15, 17
	• With a transition radius with the end welds ground smooth, regardless of detail length		16
	o transition radius ≥ 50 mm	D	
	o transition radius <50 mm	E	
	• With a transition radius with end welds not ground smooth	E	16
Transversely Loaded Fillet-Welded Attachments with Welds Parallel to the Direction of Primary Stress	Base metal at details attached by fillet welds:		16
	• With a transition radius with end welds ground smooth:		
	o transition radius ≥ 50 mm	D	
	o transition radius <50 mm	E	
	• With any transition radius with end welds not ground smooth	E	
Mechanically Fastened Connections	Base metal:		21
	• At gross section of high-strength bolted slip-critical connections, except axially loaded joints in which out-of-plane bending is induced in connected materials	B	
	• At net section of high-strength bolted nonslip-critical connections	B	
	• At net section of riveted connections	D	
Eyebars or Pin Plates	Base metal at the net section of eyebars head, or pin plate	E	23, 24
	Base metal in the shank of eyebars, or through the gross section of pin plates with:		
	• Rolled or smoothly ground surfaces	A	23, 24
	• Flame-cut edges	B	23, 24

Table 6.4: Detail Categories for Load-Induced Fatigue of Orthotropic Decks.

Illustrative Example	Detail	Description of Condition	Detail Category
	Transverse or longitudinal deck plate splice or rib splice	(1) Ceramic backing bar. Weld ground flush parallel to stress.	B
	Single-groove butt weld	(2) Ceramic backing bar	C
		(3) Permanent backing bar. Backing bar fillet welds shall be continuous if outside of groove or may be intermittent if inside of groove.	D
	Bolted deck plate or rib splice	(4) In unsymmetrical splices, effects of eccentricity shall be considered in calculating stress.	B
	Deck plate or rib splice	(5) Plates of similar cross-section with welds ground flush. Weld run-off tabs shall be used and subsequently removed, plate edges to be ground flush in direction of stress.	B
	Double-groove welds	(6) The height of weld convexity shall not exceed 20% or weld width. Run-off tabs as for (5).	C
	Welded rib A window at field splice	(7) Permanent backing bar for rib splice	D
	Single groove butt weld	Welding gap > rib wall thickness f = axial stress range in bottom of rib	

Illustrative Example	Detail	Description of Condition	Detail Category
Case (8) only  	Rib wall at rib/floorbeam intersection Fillet welds between rib and floorbeam web	(8) Closed rib with internal diaphragm inside the rib or open rib f = axial stress range in rib wall at the lower end of rib/floorbeam weld	C
		(9) Closed rib, no internal diaphragm inside of rib $f = f_1 + f_2$ f_1 = axial stress range in rib wall f_2 = local bending stress range in rib wall due to out-of-plane bending caused by rib-floorbeam interaction, obtained from a rational analysis	C
Case (10) only  	Floorbeam web at rib/floorbeam intersection Fillet welds between rib and floorbeam web and between rib and internal diaphragm	(10) With internal diaphragm inside of closed rib, or open rib f = axial stress range component in floorbeam web perpendicular to weld $f = f_1 + f_2$ f_1 = axial stress range in web f_2 = bending stress range in web due to out-of-plane bending caused by rib rotation at support Both stresses f_1 and f_2 to be obtained from a rational analysis	Lesser of C or Eq. (6.5) C for combination fillet-groove welds
		(11) No internal diaphragm inside of closed rib $f = f_1 + f_2$ f = interaction stress range between the "tooth" of the floorbeam web and the rib wall obtained from a rational analysis f_2 as defined for (10)	C

Illustrative Example	Detail	Description of Condition	Detail Category
	Deck plate at the connection to floorbeam web	(12) f = axial stress range in the deck plate at the deck/floorbeam weld	E

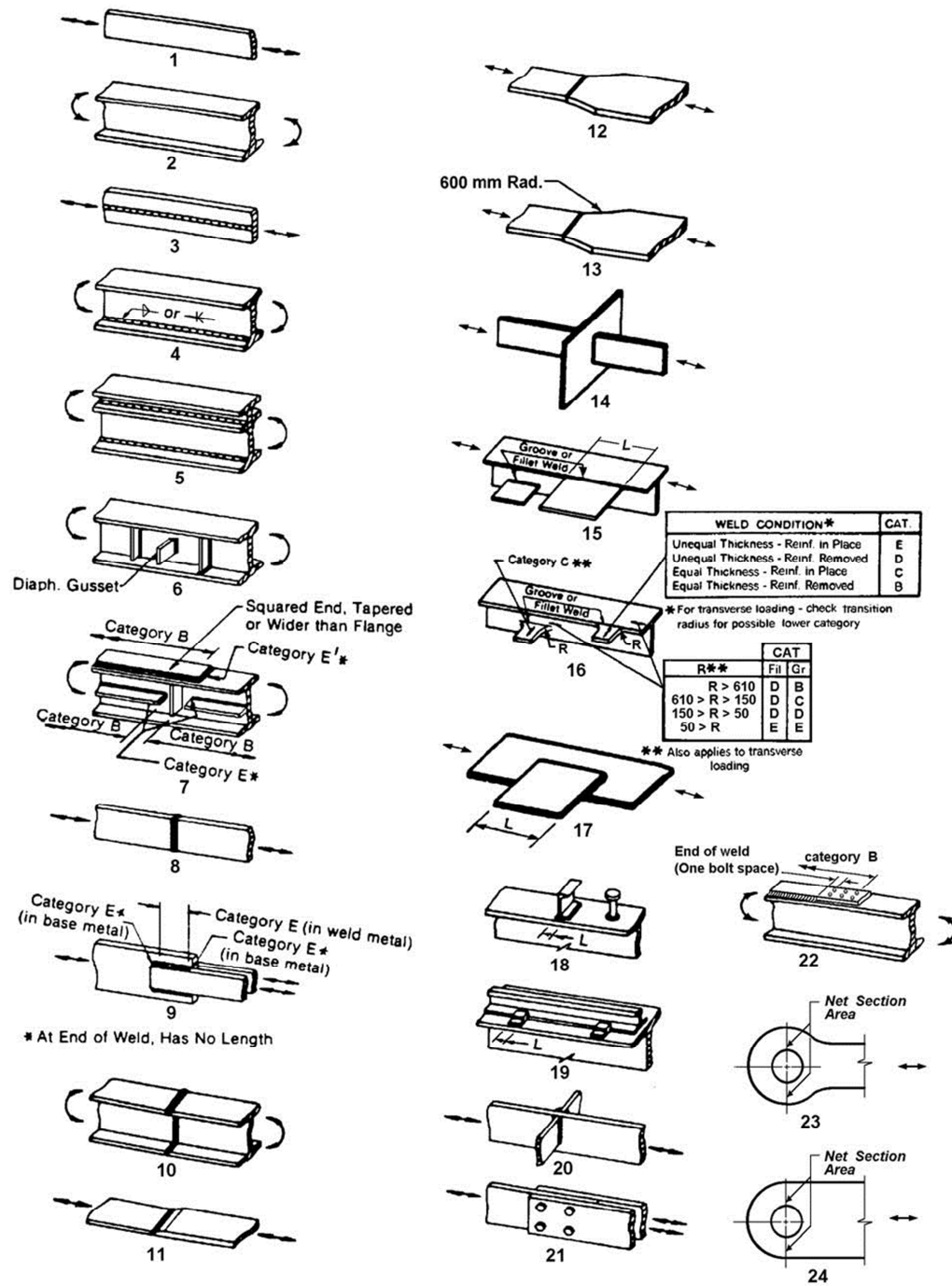


Figure 6.1: Illustrative Examples.

4. Restricted Use Details

Transversely loaded partial penetration groove welds shall not be used, except as permitted in Article [7.8.3.7.2](#).

Gusset plates attached to girder flange surfaces with only transverse fillet welds shall not be used.

5. Fatigue Resistance

Except as specified below, nominal fatigue resistance shall be taken as:

$$(\Delta F)_n = \left(\frac{A}{N} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \geq \frac{1}{2} (\Delta F)_{TH} \quad (6.3)$$

in which:

$$N = (365)(75)_n (ADTT)_{SL} \quad (6.4)$$

where:

A	=	constant taken from Table 6.5 (MPa ³)
n	=	number of stress range cycles per truck passage taken from Table 2
$(ADTT)_{SL}$	=	single-lane ADTT as specified in Article 3.6.1.4
$(\Delta F)_{TH}$	=	constant-amplitude fatigue threshold taken from Table 6.7 (MPa)

- C The fatigue resistance above the constant amplitude fatigue threshold, in terms of cycles, is inversely proportional to the cube of the stress range, e.g., if the stress range is reduced by a factor of 2, the fatigue life increases by a factor of 2³.
- C The requirement on higher-traffic-volume bridges that the maximum stress range experienced by a detail be less than the constant-amplitude fatigue threshold provides a theoretically infinite fatigue life. The maximum stress range is assumed to be twice the live load stress range due to the passage of the fatigue load, factored in accordance with the load factor in [Table 3.1](#) for the fatigue load combination.
- C In the AASHTO 2002 Standard Specifications, the constant amplitude fatigue threshold is termed the allowable fatigue stress range for more than 2 million cycles on a redundant load path structure.
- C The design life has been considered to be 75 years in the overall development of these LRFD Specifications. If a design life other than 75 years is sought, a number other than 75 may be inserted in the equation for N.
- C [Figure 6.2](#) is a graphical representation of the nominal fatigue resistance for Categories A through E'.

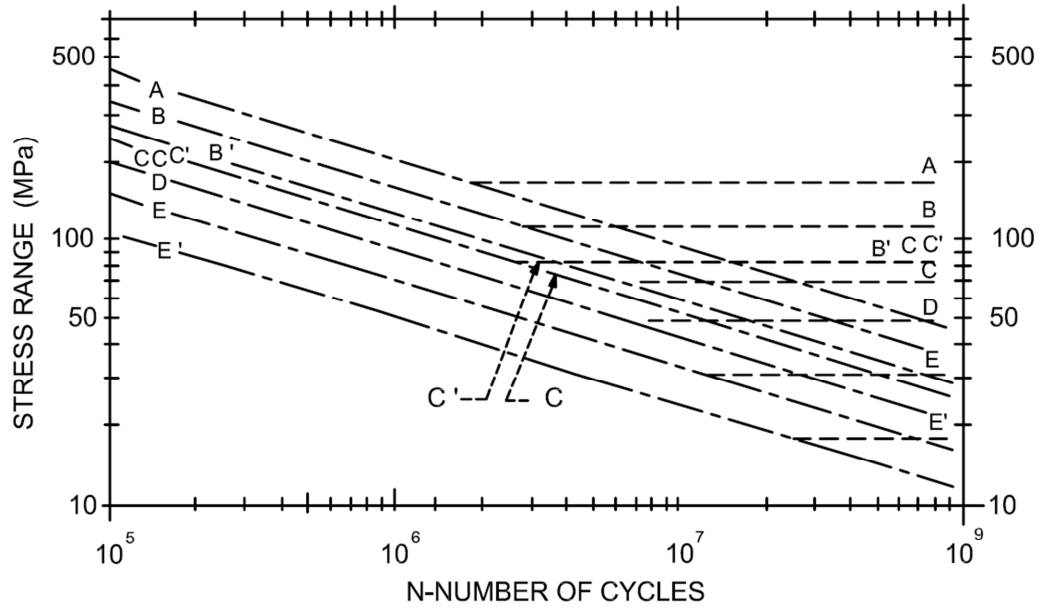


Figure 6.2: Stress Range Versus Number of Cycles.

- C When the design stress range is less than one-half of the constant-amplitude fatigue threshold, the detail will theoretically provide infinite life. Except for Categories E and E', for higher traffic volumes, the design will most often be governed by the infinite life check. [Table 6.5](#) shows the values of $(ADTT)_{SL}$ above which the infinite life check governs, assuming a 75-year design life and one cycle per truck.

Table 6.5: 75-Year $(ADTT)_{SL}$ Equivalent to Infinite Life.

Detail Category	75-Year $(ADTT)_{SL}$ Equivalent to Infinite Life (Trucks per Day)
A	535
B	865
B'	1035
C	1290
C'	745
D	1875
E	3545
E'	6525

- C The values in the above table have been computed using the values for A and $(\Delta F)_{TH}$ specified in [Table 6.6](#) and [Table 6.8](#), respectively. The values in the above table represent the larger value from either version of the Specifications rounded up to the nearest five trucks per day.

The nominal fatigue resistance range for base metal at details connected with transversely loaded fillet welds, where a discontinuous plate is loaded, shall be taken as:

$$(\Delta F)_n = (\Delta F)_n^c \left(\frac{0.094 + 1.23 \frac{H}{t_p}}{t_p^{1/6}} \right) \leq (\Delta F)_n^c \quad (6.5)$$

where:

$(\Delta F)_n^c$ = nominal fatigue resistance for Detail Category C (MPa)

H = effective throat of fillet weld (mm)

t_p = thickness of loaded plate (mm)

- C Eq. (6.5) assumes no penetration at the weld root. Development of Eq. (6.5) is discussed in Frank and Fisher (1979).
- C In the AASHTO 2002 Standard Specifications, allowable stress ranges are specified for both redundant and nonredundant members. The allowable for nonredundant members are arbitrarily specified as 80 percent of those for redundant members due to the more severe consequences of failure of a nonredundant member.
- C However, greater fracture toughness is also specified for nonredundant members. In combination, the reduction in allowable stress range and the greater fracture toughness constitute an unnecessary double penalty for nonredundant members. The requirement for greater fracture toughness has been maintained in these Specifications. Therefore, the allowable stress ranges represented by Eq. (6.3) are applicable to both redundant and nonredundant members.

Table 6.6: Detail Category Constant, A .

DETAIL CATEGORY	CONSTANT, $A \times 10^{11}$ (MPa) ³
A	82.0
B	39.3
B'	20.0
C	14.4
C'	14.4
D	7.21
E	3.61
E'	1.28
M 164M (A 325M) Bolts in Axial Tension	5.61
M 253M (A 490M) Bolts in Axial Tension	10.3

Table 6.7: Cycles per Truck Passage, n .

Longitudinal Members	Span Length	
	>12 000 mm	≤12 000 mm
Simple Span Girders	1.0	2.0
Continuous Girders		
1) near interior support	1.5	2.0
2) elsewhere	1.0	2.0
Cantilever Girders	5.0	
Trusses	1.0	
Transverse Members	Spacing	
	> 6000 mm	≤ 6000 mm
	1.0	2.0

- C For the purpose of determining the stress cycles per truck passage for continuous spans, a distance equal to one-tenth the span on each side of an interior support should be considered to be near the support.

- C The number of cycles per passage is taken as 5.0 for cantilever girders because this type of bridge is susceptible to large vibrations, which cause additional cycles after the truck has left the bridge (Moses et al., 1987; Schilling, 1990).

Table 6.8: Constant-Amplitude Fatigue Thresholds.

Detail Category	Threshold (MPa)
A	165.0
B	110.0
B'	82.7
C	69.0
C'	82.7
D	48.3
E'	31.0
E'	17.9
M 164M (A 325M) Bolts in Axial Tension	214.0
M 253M (A 490M) Bolts in Axial Tension	262.0

6.6.1.3. Distortion-Induced Fatigue

Load paths that are sufficient to transmit all intended and unintended forces shall be provided by connecting all transverse members to appropriate components comprising the cross-section of the longitudinal member. The load paths shall be provided by attaching the various components through either welding or bolting.

To control web buckling and elastic flexing of the web, the provision of Article 6.10.5.3 shall be satisfied.

- C When proper detailing practices are not followed, fatigue cracking has been found to occur due to strains not normally computed in the design process. This type of fatigue cracking is called distortion-induced fatigue.
- C Distortion-induced fatigue often occurs in the web near a flange at a welded connection plate for a cross-frame where a rigid load path has not been provided to adequately transmit the force in the transverse member from the web to the flange.
- C These rigid load paths are required to preclude the development of significant secondary stresses that could induce fatigue crack growth in either the longitudinal or the transverse member (Fisher et al., 1990).

1. Transverse Connection Plates

- C These provisions appear in Article 10.20 of the AASHTO Standard Specifications "Diaphragms and Cross Frames" with no explanation as to the rationale for the requirements and no reference to distortion-induced fatigue.
- C These provisions apply to both diaphragms between longitudinal members and diaphragms internal to longitudinal members.

Connection plates shall be welded or bolted to both the compression and tension flanges of the cross-section where:

- Connecting diaphragms or cross-frames are attached to transverse connection plates or to transverse stiffeners functioning as connection plates,
- Internal or external diaphragms or cross-frames are attached to transverse connection plates or to transverse stiffeners functioning as connection plates, and

- Floorbeams are attached to transverse connection plates or to transverse stiffeners functioning as connection plates.

In the absence of better information, the welded or bolted connection should be designed to resist a 90 000-N lateral load for straight, nonskewed bridges.

- C The 90 000-N load represents a rule of thumb for straight, non-skewed bridges. For curved or skewed bridges, the diaphragm forces should be determined by analysis (Keating et al., 1990).
- C For box sections, webs are often joined to top flanges and cross-frame connection plates and transverse stiffeners are installed, and then these assemblies are attached to the common box flange. In order to weld the webs continuously to the box flange inside the box section, the details in this case must allow the welding head to clear the bottom of the connection plates and stiffeners. Where details are provided to allow clearance for the welding head, a detail must also be provided to permit the subsequent attachment of the connection plates to the box flange, as required in this Article. A similar attachment detail may also be required for any intermediate transverse stiffeners that are to be attached to the box flange. The Engineer is advised to consult with fabricators regarding the preferred approach for fabricating the box section and provide alternate details on the plans, if necessary.

2. Lateral Connection Plates

If it is not practical to attach lateral connection plates to flanges, lateral connection plates on stiffened webs should be located a vertical distance not less than one-half the width of the flange above or below the flange. Lateral connection plates attached to unstiffened webs should be located at least 150 mm above or below the flange but not less than one-half of the width of the flange, as specified above.

- C The specified minimum distance from the flange is intended to reduce out-of-plane distortion concentrated in the web between the lateral connection plate and the flange to a tolerable magnitude. It also provides adequate electrode access and moves the connection plate closer to the neutral axis of the girder to reduce the impact of the weld termination on fatigue strength.

The ends of lateral bracing members on the lateral connection plate shall be kept a minimum of 100 mm from the web and any transverse stiffener.

- C This requirement reduces potential distortion-induced stresses in the gap between the web or stiffener and the lateral members on the lateral plate. These stresses may result from vibration of the lateral system.

Where stiffeners are used, lateral connection plates shall be centered on the stiffener, whether or not the plate is on the same side of the web as the stiffener. Where the lateral connection plate is on the same side of the web as the stiffener, it shall be attached to the stiffener. The transverse stiffener at this location shall be continuous from compression flange to tension flange and shall be attached to both flanges.

3. Orthotropic Decks

Detailing shall satisfy all requirements of Article [7.8.3.7](#).

- C The purpose of this provision is to control distortion-induced fatigue of deck details subject to local secondary stresses due to out-of-plane bending.

6.6.2. Fracture

Except as specified herein, all primary longitudinal superstructure components and connections sustaining tensile force effects due to Strength Load Combination I, as specified in [Table 3.1](#), and transverse floor-beams subject to such effects, shall require mandatory Charpy V-notch fracture toughness. Other primary components and connections sustaining tensile force effects due to the Strength Load Combination I may require mandatory Charpy V-notch fracture toughness at the discretion of the

Owner. All components and connections requiring Charpy V-notch fracture toughness shall be so designated on the contract plans.

Unless otherwise indicated on the contract plans, Charpy V-notch fracture toughness requirements shall not be considered mandatory for the following items:

- Splice plates and filler plates in bolted splices connected in double shear;
- Intermediate transverse web stiffeners not serving as connection plates;
- Bearings, sole plates and masonry plates;
- Expansion dams; and
- Drainage material.

- C The basis and philosophy for the supplemental impact requirements specified in the AASHTO Material Specifications is given in [AISI \(1975\)](#).
- C The specification of mandatory fracture toughness requirements for primary components and connections sustaining tensile force effects under the specified load combination that are transverse to the primary longitudinal components, other than transverse floorbeams, is at the discretion of the Owner.

The appropriate temperature zone shall be determined from the applicable minimum service temperature specified in [Table 6.9](#) and shall be designated in the contract documents.

- C The **Charpy V-notch** impact requirements vary, depending on the type of steel, type of construction, whether welded or mechanically fastened, and the applicable minimum service temperature. **FCMs** are subject to more stringent **Charpy V** -notch fracture toughness requirements than non-fracture-critical components.

Fracture toughness requirements shall be in accordance with [Table 6.10](#) for the appropriate temperature zone. The yield strength shall be taken as the value given in the certified Mill Test Report.

The Engineer shall have the responsibility for determining which, if any, component is an FCM. Unless a rigorous analysis with assumed hypothetical cracked components confirms the strength and stability of the hypothetically damaged structure, the location of all FCMs shall be clearly delineated on the contract plans.

Any attachment having a length in the direction of the tension stress greater than 100 mm that is welded to a tension area of a component of a FCM shall be considered part of the tension component and shall be considered fracture-critical.

- C FCMs must be fabricated according to [Section 12 of the AASHTO/AWS D1.5M/D1.5 Bridge Welding Code](#).
- C Material for fracture-critical members or components designated FCM is to be tested in conformance with [AASHTO T 243M \(ASTM A 673M\)](#) Frequency P, except for plates of [AASHTO M 270M](#), Grades 250, 345, 345W, HPS 345W, and HPS 485W ([ASTM A 709M](#), Grades 250, 345, 345W, HPS 345W, and HPS 485W) material, in which case specimens are to be selected as follows:
- As-rolled plates shall be sampled at each end of each plate-as-rolled.
 - Normalized plates shall be sampled at one end of each plate-as-heat treated.
 - Quenched and tempered plates shall be sampled at each end of each plate-as-heat treated.
- C [AASHTO M 270M](#), Grades 250, 345, 345S, 345W, and HPS 345W ([ASTM A 709M](#), Grades 250, 345, 345S, 345W, and HPS 345W) material for components designated nonfracture-critical is to be tested in conformance with [AASHTO T 243M \(ASTM A 673M\)](#) Frequency H. [AASHTO M 270M](#), Grade HPS 485W, 690, and 690W ([ASTM A 709M](#), Grades HPS 485W, 690 and 690W) material for components designated nonfracture-critical is to be tested in conformance with [AASHTO T 243M \(ASTM A 673M\)](#), Frequency P.
- C The criteria for a refined analysis used to demonstrate that part of a structure is not fracture-critical has not yet been codified. Therefore, the loading cases to be studied, location of potential cracks,

degree to which the dynamic effects associated with a fracture are included in the analysis and fineness of models and choice of element type should all be agreed upon by the Owner and the Engineer. The ability of a particular software product to adequately capture the complexity of the problem should also be considered and the choice of software should be mutually agreed upon by the Owner and the Engineer.

- C Relief from the full factored loads associated with the Strength I Load Combination of [Table 3.1](#) should be considered, as should the number of loaded design lanes versus the number of striped traffic lanes.

Table 6.9: Temperature Zone Designations for Charpy V-Notch Requirements.

Minimum Service Temperature	Temperature Zone
-18°C and above	1
-19°C to -34°C	2
-35°C to -51°C	3

Table 6.10: Fracture Toughness Requirements.

Thickness S (Mm)	Fracture-Critical				Non-fracture-Critical		
	Min. Test Value Energy (Joules)	Zone 1 (Joules @ °C)	Zone 2 (Joules @ °C)	Zone 3 (Joules @ °C)	Zone 1 (Joules @ °C)	Zone 2 (Joules @ °C)	Zone 3 (Joules @ °C)
$t \leq 100$	27	34 @ 21	34 @ 4	34 @ -12	20 @ 21	20 @ 4	20 @ -12
$t \leq 50$	27	34 @ 21	34 @ 4	34 @ -12	20 @ 21	20 @ 4	20 @ -12
$50 < t \leq 100$	33	41 @ 21	41 @ 4	41 @ -12	27 @ 21	27 @ 4	27 @ -12
$t \leq 100$	33	41 @ -12	41 @ -12	41 @ -12	27 @ -12	27 @ -12	27 @ -12
$t \leq 100$	38	48 @ -23	48 @ -23	48 @ -23	34 @ -23	34 @ -23	34 @ -23
$t \leq 65$	38	48 @ -1	48 @ -18	48 @ -34	34 @ -1	34 @ -18	34 @ -34
$65 < t \leq 100$	49	68 @ -1	68 @ -18	Not Permitted	48 @ -1	48 @ -18	48 @ -34
$t \leq 100$	27	34 @ 21	34 @ 4	34 @ -12	20 @ 21	20 @ 4	20 @ -12
$t \leq 100$	27	34 @ 21	34 @ 4	34 @ -12	20 @ 21	20 @ 4	20 @ -12
$t \leq 100$	33	41 @ -12	41 @ -12	41 @ -12	27 @ -12	27 @ -12	27 @ -12
$t \leq 100$	38	48 @ -23	48 @ -23	48 @ -23	34 @ -23	34 @ -23	34 @ -23
$t \leq 100$	38	48 @ -1	48 @ -18	48 @ -34	34 @ -1	34 @ -18	34 @ -34

Grade (Y.P./Y.S.)	250	345/345S/ 345 W	HPS 345W	HPS 485W	690/690W	250	345/345S/ 345W	HPS 345W	HPS 485W	690/690W
Welded or Mech. Fast.	Welded					Mech. Fast.				

6.7. GENERAL DIMENSION AND DETAIL REQUIREMENTS

6.7.1. Effective Length of Span

Span lengths shall be taken as the distance between centers of bearings or other points of support.

6.7.2. Dead Load Camber

Steel structures should be cambered during fabrication to compensate for dead load deflection and vertical alignment.

Deflection due to steel weight and concrete weight shall be reported separately. Deflections due to future wearing surfaces or other loads not applied at the time of construction shall be reported separately.

Vertical camber shall be specified to account for the computed dead load deflection.

When staged construction is specified, the sequence of load application should be considered when determining the cambers.

Selective changes to component length, as appropriate, may be used for truss, arch, and cable-stayed systems to:

- Adjust the dead load deflection to comply with the final geometric position,
- Reduce or eliminate rib shortening, and
- Adjust the dead load moment diagram in indeterminate structures.

For straight skewed I-girder bridges and horizontally curved I-girder bridges with or without skewed supports, the contract documents should clearly state an intended erected position of the girders and the condition under which that position is to be theoretically achieved. The provisions of Article [2.6.2.6.1](#) related to bearing rotations shall also apply.

- C As specified herein, staged construction refers to the situation in which superstructures are built in separate longitudinal units with a longitudinal joint, i.e., it does not refer to the deck pouring sequence.
- C The erection and cambering of straight skewed bridges and horizontally curved bridges with or without skewed supports is a more complex problem than generally considered. As of this writing (2005), there has been a trend toward more complex geometries and more flexible bridges combined with the use of higher strength steels. In some cases, failure to engineer the erection to achieve the intended final position of the girders, or to properly investigate potential outcomes when detailing to achieve an intended final position of the girders, has resulted in construction delays and claims. It is important that Engineers and Owners recognize the need for an engineered construction plan and the implied level of checking of shop drawings of girders and cross-frames or diaphragms, processing of RFIs or Requests for Information, and field inspection.
- C Intended erected positions of I-girders in straight skewed and horizontally curved bridges are defined herein as either:
- girder webs theoretically vertical or plumb, or

- girder webs out-of-plumb.
- C Three common conditions under which these intended erected positions can be theoretically achieved are defined herein as:
- the no-load condition,
 - the steel dead load condition, or
 - the full dead load condition.
- C The no-load condition refers to the condition where the girders are erected under a theoretically zero-stress condition, i.e., neglecting any stress due to the steel dead load acting between points of temporary support. The steel dead load condition refers to the condition after the erection of the steel is completed. The full dead load condition refers to the condition after the full noncomposite dead load, including the concrete deck, is applied.
- C In order for the girder webs of straight skewed I-girder bridges to end up theoretically plumb at the bearings under either the steel or full dead load condition, the cross-frames or diaphragms must be detailed for that condition in order to introduce the necessary twist into the girders during the erection. Although the cross-frames or diaphragms may have to be forced into position in this case, this can usually be accomplished in these types of bridges without inducing significant additional locked-in stresses in the girder flanges or the cross-frames or diaphragms. Alternatively, the girders may be erected plumb in the no-load condition if the resulting out-of-plumbness at the bearings and any potential errors in the horizontal roadway alignment under the full dead load condition are considered. In this case, the cross-frames or diaphragms are detailed to fit theoretically stress-free in the no-load condition. In either case, the rotation capacity of the bearings must either be able to accommodate the twist or the bearings must be installed in a manner to ensure that their rotation capacities are not exceeded.
- C For horizontally curved I-girder bridges with or without skewed supports, where the girders are erected plumb in the no-load condition, with the cross-frames or diaphragms
- C detailed to fit in the no-load condition, the girder webs will not be plumb in the full dead load condition, except at supports that do not deflect vertically in bridges for which all supports are radial. This out-of-plumbness should be considered in the detailing of the deck and bearings, as applicable.
- C In order for the girder webs of horizontally curved I-girder bridges with or without skewed supports to end up theoretically plumb under either the steel or full dead load condition, the cross-frames or diaphragms must again be detailed for that condition in order to introduce the necessary twist into the girders. In this case, however, as the crossframes are forced into place and the girders are twisted out-of-plumb during the erection, the curved-girder flanges act to resist the induced change to their radii. Therefore, the Engineer may need to consider the potential for any problematic locked-in stresses in the girder flanges or the cross-frames or diaphragms when this method of detailing is specified for these types of bridges. The decision as to when these stresses should be evaluated is currently a matter of engineering judgment. It is anticipated that these stresses will be of little consequence in the vast majority of cases and that the resulting twist of the girders will be small enough that the cross-frames or diaphragms will easily pull the girders into their intended position and reverse any locked-in stresses as the dead load is applied.
- C For curved I-girder webs to end up theoretically plumb in the desired final condition without also theoretically inducing any additional locked-in stresses, the girders would have to be fabricated for the no-load position with a twist about the tangential axis of the girder for that particular condition. In such a case, the girder flanges would be welded square with respect to the webs and the cross-frames or diaphragms would be detailed for the desired final condition to correspond with the twist.
- C Such a practice is generally more costly and has found very limited use as of this writing (2005).
- C It should be noted that detailing of the cross-frames or diaphragms for the case where the girder webs are plumb in the no-load condition can result in the potential for many different connection-plate configurations. In this case, the drop of the cross-frames or diaphragms or difference in elevation of the girders at the level of the cross-frames or diaphragms typically varies causing the bolt holes in the connection plates to be different distances from the flanges.
- C Tub girders should be detailed to be normal to the crown of the roadway. Although the twist in I-girders is often greater than in tub girders, twist in tub girders may also be significant. Almost all horizontally curved tub girders are fabricated with a twist and are not erected with the girders plumb in the no-load condition. This is done because the inherent torsional stiffness of tub sections makes field adjustments difficult. Particular care must be taken in analyzing and detailing tub girders; in particular, tub girders in bridges with skewed supports.
- C For cases that begin to push the current limits of the specification or conventional practice, for example, cases with unusually long spans, tight radii, sharp skewes, stiff and/or slender flanges in the

lateral direction, special attention may be required by the Engineer. In cases where twist is introduced into the girders during the erection, slender flanges may be subject to local buckling and unusually stiff flanges may be difficult to push or pull into position in a practical manner.

6.7.3. Minimum Thickness of Steel

Structural steel, including bracing, cross-frames, and all types of gusset plates, except for webs of rolled shapes, closed ribs in orthotropic decks, fillers, and in railings, shall be not less than 8.0 mm in thickness.

The web thickness of rolled beams or channels and of closed ribs in orthotropic decks shall not be less than 7.0 mm.

Where the metal is expected to be exposed to severe corrosive influences, it shall be specially protected against corrosion or sacrificial metal thickness shall be specified.

6.7.4. Diaphragms and Cross-Frames

6.7.4.1. General

Diaphragms or cross-frames may be placed at the end of the structure, across interior supports, and intermittently along the span.

- C The arbitrary requirement for diaphragms spaced at not more than 7600 mm in the AASHTO Standard Specifications has been replaced by a requirement for rational analysis that will often result in the elimination of fatigue-prone attachment details.

The need for diaphragms or cross-frames shall be investigated for all stages of assumed construction procedures and the final condition.

This investigation should include, but not be limited to, the following:

- Transfer of lateral wind loads from the bottom of the girder to the deck and from the deck to the bearings,
- Stability of the bottom flange for all loads when it is in compression,
- Stability of the top flange in compression prior to curing of the deck,
- Consideration of any flange lateral bending effects, and
- Distribution of vertical dead and live loads applied to the structure.

Diaphragms or cross-frames not required for the final condition may be specified to be temporary bracing. Metal stay-in-place deck forms should not be assumed to provide adequate stability to the top flange in compression prior to curing of the deck.

If permanent cross-frames or diaphragms are included in the structural model used to determine force effects, they shall be designed for all applicable limit states for the calculated force effects. At a minimum, diaphragms and cross-frames shall be designed to transfer wind loads according to the provisions of Article 4.6.2.7 and shall meet all applicable slenderness requirements in Article 6.8.4 or Article 6.9.3. Diaphragm and cross-frame members in horizontally curved bridges shall be considered to be primary members.

- C Bracing of horizontally curved members is more critical than for straight members. Diaphragm and cross-frame members resist forces that are critical to the proper functioning of curved-girder bridges. Since they transmit the forces necessary to provide equilibrium, they are considered primary members. Therefore, forces in the bracing members must be computed and considered in the design of these members. When I-section members have been analyzed neglecting the effects of curvature according to the provisions of Article 4.6.1.2.4, the diaphragms or cross-frames may be analyzed by the V-load method (United States Steel, 1984) or other rational means.

- C If the diaphragm flanges or cross-frame chords are not attached directly to the girder flanges, forces from these elements are transferred through the connection plates. The eccentricity between the diaphragm flanges or cross-frame chords and the girder flanges should be recognized in the design of the connection plates and their connection to the web and flange.

Connection plates for diaphragms and cross-frames shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article [6.6.1.3.1](#).

Where the diaphragm flanges or cross-frame chords are not attached directly to the girder flanges, provisions shall be made to transfer the calculated horizontal force in diaphragms or cross-frames to the flanges through connection plates.

- C The term connection plate as used herein refers to a transverse stiffener attached to the girder to which a cross-frame or diaphragm is connected.

At the end of the bridge and intermediate points where the continuity of the slab is broken, the edges of the slab shall be supported by diaphragms or other suitable means as specified in Article [7.4.4](#).

6.7.4.2. I-Section Members

Diaphragms or cross-frames for rolled beams and plate girders should be as deep as practicable, but as a minimum should be at least 0.5 of the beam depth for rolled beams and 0.75 of the girder depth for plate girders.

Cross-frames in horizontally curved bridges should contain diagonals and top and bottom chords.

End diaphragms shall be designed for forces and distortion transmitted by the deck and deck joint. End moments in diaphragms shall be considered in the design of the connection between the longitudinal component and the diaphragm. Diaphragms with span-to-depth ratios greater than 4.0 may be designed as beams. Shear deformation shall be considered in the design of diaphragms having a span-to-depth ratio of 4.0 or less.

Where supports are not skewed, intermediate diaphragms or cross-frames should be placed in contiguous lines normal to the girders.

Where supports are not skewed more than 20°, intermediate diaphragms or cross-frames may be placed in contiguous skewed lines parallel to the skewed supports.

Where supports are skewed more than 20°, diaphragms or cross-frames shall be normal to the girders and may be placed in contiguous lines or in staggered patterns.

Diaphragms or cross-frames are not required along skewed interior supports if diaphragms or cross-frames normal to the girders are provided at bearings that resist lateral forces.

If the end diaphragm or cross-frame is skewed, the effect of the tangential component of force transmitted by the skewed unit on the girder shall be considered.

Diaphragms or cross-frames at supports shall be proportioned to transmit all lateral components of force from the superstructure to the bearings that provide lateral restraint.

The spacing, L_b , of intermediate diaphragms or crossframes in horizontally curved I-girder bridges shall not exceed the following in the erected condition:

$$L_b \leq L_r \leq \frac{R}{10} \quad (6.6)$$

where:

L_r = limiting unbraced length

R = minimum girder radius within the panel (mm)

In no case shall L_b exceed 9 m.

C For more information see Article [6.20.1](#) in Appendix D6.

6.7.4.3. Box Section Members

Diaphragms or cross-frames shall be provided within box sections at each support to resist transverse rotation, displacement, and cross-section distortion of the box and shall be designed to resist torsional moments and transmit vertical and lateral forces from the box to the bearings.

For cross-sections consisting of two or more boxes, external cross-frames or diaphragms shall be used between the boxes at end supports. External crossframes or diaphragms shall be provided between the boxes at end supports. External cross-frames or diaphragms shall be provided between girder lines at interior supports, unless analysis indicates that the boxes are torsionally stable without these members, particularly during erection. Internal cross-frames or diaphragms shall be provided at locations of external cross-frames or diaphragms

If an internal plate diaphragm is provided for continuity or to resist torsional forces generated by structural members, it shall be connected to the webs and flanges of the box section. An access hole at least 460 mm wide and 610 mm high should be provided within each internal intermediate diaphragm. Design of the diaphragm shall consider the effect of the access hole on the stresses. Reinforcement around the hole may be required.

Intermediate internal diaphragms or cross-frames shall be provided. For all single box sections, horizontally curved sections, and multiple box sections in crosssections of bridges not satisfying the requirements of Article [6.11.2.3](#) or with box flanges that are not fully effective according to the provisions of Article [6.11.1.1](#), the spacing of the internal diaphragm or cross-frames shall not exceed 1220 mm.

Webs of internal and external diaphragms shall satisfy Eq. [\(6.57\)](#). The nominal shear resistance of internal and external diaphragm webs shall be determined from Eq. [\(6.122\)](#).

C For more information see Article [6.20.2](#) in Appendix D6

6.7.4.4. Trusses and Arches

Diaphragms shall be provided at the connections to floorbeams and at other connections or points of application of concentrated loads. Internal diaphragms may also be provided to maintain member alignment.

Gusset plates engaging a pedestal pin at the end of a truss shall be connected by a diaphragm. The webs of the pedestal should be connected by a diaphragm wherever practical.

If the end of the web plate or cover plate is 1200 mm or more from the point of intersection of the members, a diaphragm shall be provided between gusset plates engaging main members.

6.7.5. Lateral Bracing

6.7.5.1. General

The need for lateral bracing shall be investigated for all stages of assumed construction procedures and the final condition.

Where required, lateral bracing should be placed either in or near the plane of a flange or chord being braced. Investigation of the requirement for lateral bracing shall include, but not be limited to:

- Transfer of lateral wind loads to the bearings as specified in Article 4.6.2.7,
- Transfer of lateral loads as specified in Article 4.6.2.8, and
- Control of deformations and cross-section geometry during fabrication, erection, and placement of the deck.

Lateral bracing members not required for the final condition should not be considered to be primary members, and may be removed at the Owner's discretion.

If permanent lateral bracing members are included in the structural model used to determine live load force effects, they shall be designed for all applicable limit states and shall be considered to be primary members. The provisions of Articles 6.8.4 and 6.9.3 shall apply.

Connection plates for lateral bracing shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 6.6.1.3.2.

- C In I-girder bridges, bottom flange lateral bracing creates a pseudo-closed section formed by the I-girders connected with the bracing and the hardened deck, and therefore becomes load carrying. Cross-frame forces increase with the addition of bottom flange bracing because the cross-frames act to retain the shape of the pseudo-box section. In addition, moments in the braced girders become more equalized and the bracing members are also subject to significant live load forces.

When lateral bracing is designed for seismic loading, the provisions of Article 4.6.2.8 shall apply.

6.7.5.2. I-Section Members

Continuously braced flanges should not require lateral bracing.

The need for lateral bracing adjacent to supports of I-girder bridges to provide rigidity during construction should be considered.

- C Wind-load stresses in I-sections may be reduced by:
- Changing the flange size,
 - Reducing the diaphragm or cross-frame spacing, or
 - Adding lateral bracing.
- C The relative economy of these methods should be investigated.
- C To help prevent significant relative horizontal movement of the girders in spans greater than 61 m. during construction, it may be desirable to consider providing either temporary or permanent lateral bracing in one or more panels adjacent to the supports of I-girder bridges. For continuous-span bridges, such bracing would only be necessary adjacent to interior supports and should be considered at the free ends of continuous units. Such a system of lateral bracing can also provide a stiffer load path for wind loads acting on the noncomposite structure during construction to help reduce the lateral deflections and flange lateral bending stresses. Top lateral bracing is preferred. Bottom lateral bracing can provide a similar function, but unlike top bracing, would be subject to significant live load forces in the furnished structure that would have to be considered.
- C For horizontally curved bridges, when the curvature is sharp and temporary supports are not practical, it may be desirable to consider providing both top and bottom lateral bracing to ensure pseudo-box action while the bridge is under construction. Top and bottom lateral bracing provides stability to a pair of I-girders.

- C If temporary lateral bracing is used, the analysis method used must be able to recognize influence of the lateral bracing.

6.7.5.3. Tub Section Members

Top lateral bracing shall be provided between common flanges of individual tub sections. For straight girders, the need for a full-length lateral bracing system shall be investigated to ensure that deformations of the tub section are adequately controlled and that stability of the tub section members is provided during erection and placement of the concrete deck. During deck casting, the stability of the compression flange between panel joints of the lateral bracing system shall be investigated. If a full-length lateral bracing system is not provided, the local stability of the top flanges and global stability of the individual tub sections shall be investigated for the Engineer's assumed construction sequence. For horizontally curved girders, a full-length lateral bracing system shall be provided and the stability of compression flanges between panel points of the lateral bracing system shall be investigated during deck casting.

Top lateral bracing shall be designed to resist shear flow in the pseudo-box section due to the factored loads before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite. Forces in the bracing due to flexure of the tub shall also be considered during construction based on the Engineer's assumed construction sequence.

If the bracing is attached to the webs, the crosssectional area of the tub for shear flow shall be reduced to reflect the actual location of the bracing, and a means of transferring the forces from the bracing to the top flange shall be provided.

- C For more information see Article [6.20.3](#) in Appendix D6.

6.7.5.4. Trusses

Through-truss spans and deck truss spans shall have top and bottom lateral bracing. If an x-system of bracing is used, each member may be considered effective simultaneously if the members meet the slenderness requirements for both tension and compression members. The members should be connected at their intersections.

The member providing lateral bracing to compression chords should be as deep as practical and connected to both flanges.

Floorbeam connections should be located so that the lateral bracing system will engage both the floorbeam and the main supporting members. Where the lateral bracing system intersects a joint formed by a floorbeam and a main longitudinal member, the lateral member shall be connected to both members.

6.7.6. Pins

6.7.6.1. Location

Pins should be located so as to minimize the force effects due to eccentricity.

6.7.6.2. Resistance

1. Combined Flexure and Shear

Pins subjected to combined flexure and shear shall be proportioned to satisfy:

$$\frac{6.0M_u}{\phi_f D^3 F_y} + \left(\frac{2.2V_u}{\phi_v D^2 F_y} \right)^3 \leq 0.95 \quad (6.7)$$

where:

- D = diameter of pin (mm)
 M_u = moment due to the factored loads (N-mm)
 V_u = shear due to the factored loads (N)
 F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the pin (MPa)
 ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure as specified in Article 6.5.4.2
 ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear as specified in Article 6.5.4.2

The moment, M_u , and shear, V_u , should be taken at the same design section along the pin.

C The development of Eq. (6.7) is discussed in Kulicki (1983).

2. Bearing

The factored bearing resistance on pins shall be taken as:

$$(R_{pB}) = \phi_b (R_{pB})_n \quad (6.8)$$

in which:

$$(R_{pB})_n = 1.5 t D F_y \quad (6.9)$$

where:

- t = thickness of plate (mm)
 D = diameter of pin (mm)
 ϕ_b = resistance factor for bearing as specified in Article 6.5.4.2

6.7.6.3. Minimum Size Pin for Eyebars

The diameter of the pin, D , shall satisfy:

$$D \geq \left(\frac{3}{4} + \frac{F_y}{2760} \right) b \quad (6.10)$$

where:

- F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the pin (MPa)
 b = width of the body of the eyebar (mm)

6.7.6.4. Pins and Pin Nuts

Pins shall be of sufficient length to secure a full bearing of all parts connected upon the turned body of the pin. The pin shall be secured in position by:

- Hexagonal recessed nuts,
- Hexagonal solid nuts with washers, or
- If the pins are bored through, a pin cap restrained by pin rod assemblies.

Pin or rod nuts shall be malleable castings or steel and shall be secured in position by cotter pins through the threads or by burring the threads. Commercially available lock nuts may be used as an alternate to burring the threads or use of cotter pins.

6.7.7. Heat-Curved Rolled Beams and Welded Plate Girders

6.7.7.1. Scope

This Section pertains to rolled beams and welded I-section plate girders heat-curved to obtain a horizontal curvature. Steels that are manufactured to a specified minimum yield strength greater than 345 MPa, other than Grade HPS 485W, shall not be heat-curved.

6.7.7.2. Minimum Radius of Curvature

For heat-curved beams and girders, the horizontal radius of curvature measured to the centerline of the girder web shall not be less than 45 750 mm and shall not be less than the larger of the values calculated from the following two equations:

$$R = \frac{37bD}{\sqrt{F_{yw}} \psi t_w} \quad (6.11)$$

$$R = \frac{51700b}{F_{yw} \psi} \quad (6.12)$$

where:

- ψ = ratio of the total cross-sectional area to the cross-sectional area of both flanges
- b = widest flange width (mm)
- D = clear distance between flanges (mm)
- F_{yw} = specified minimum yield strength of a web (MPa)
- R = radius of curvature (mm)

In addition to the above requirements, the radius shall not be less than 305 000 mm when the flange thickness exceeds 75 mm or the flange width exceeds 760 mm.

6.7.7.3. Camber

Where additional camber is specified in the contract documents to compensate for possible loss of camber of heat-curved girders in service as residual stresses dissipate, the amount of camber in millimeters, Δ , at any section along the length L of the girder shall be equal to:

$$\Delta = \frac{\Delta_{DL}}{\Delta_M} (\Delta_M + \Delta_R) \quad (6.13)$$

in which

$$\Delta_R = \frac{0.02L^2 F_{yf}}{EY_o} \left(\frac{305\,000 - R}{259\,000} \right) \quad (6.14)$$

where:

- Δ_{DL} = camber at any point along the length L calculated by usual procedures to compensate for deflection due to dead loads or any other specified loads (mm)

- Δ_M = maximum value of Δ_{DL} within the length L (mm)
 F_{yf} = specified minimum yield strength of a flange (MPa)
 Y_o = distance from the neutral axis to the extreme outer fiber of the cross-section (mm)
 R = radius of curvature (mm)
 L = span length for simple spans or for continuous spans, the distance between a simple end support and the permanent load contraflexure point, or the distance between points of permanent load contraflexure (mm)
- C Part of the camber loss is attributable to construction loads and will occur during construction of the bridge; total camber loss will be complete after several months of in-service loads. Therefore, a portion of the camber increase should be included in the bridge profile. In lieu of other guidelines, camber may be adjusted by one-half of the camber increase. Camber losses of this nature, but generally smaller in magnitude, are also known to occur in straight beams and girders.
- C For radii greater than 305 m, Δ_R should be taken equal to zero.

Camber loss between permanent load contraflexure points adjacent to piers is small and may be neglected.

6.8. TENSION MEMBERS

6.8.1. General

Members and splices subjected to axial tension shall be investigated for:

- Yield on the gross section, e.g., Eq. (6.15), and
- Fracture on the net section, e.g., Eq. (6.16).

The determination of the gross section shall require consideration of all holes larger than those typically used for connectors such as bolts.

- C Holes typically deducted where determining the gross section include pin holes, access holes and perforations.

The determination of the net section shall require consideration of:

- The gross area from which deductions will be made or reduction factors applied, as appropriate;
- Deductions for all holes in the design cross-section;
- Correction of the bolt hole deductions for the stagger rule specified in Article 6.8.3;
- Application of the reduction factor U specified in Article 6.8.2.2 for members and Article 6.13.5.2 for splice plates and other splicing elements to account for shear lag; and
- Application of the 85-percent maximum area efficiency factor for splice plates and other splicing elements specified in Article 6.13.5.2.

Tension members shall satisfy the slenderness requirements specified in Article 6.8.4 and the fatigue requirements of Article 6.6.1. Block shear strength shall be investigated at end connections as specified in Article 6.13.4.

6.8.2. Tensile Resistance

6.8.2.1. General

The factored tensile resistance, P_r , shall be taken as the lesser of the values given by Eqs. (6.15) and (6.16).

$$P_r = \phi_y P_{ny} = \phi_y F_y A_g \quad (6.15)$$

$$P_r = \phi_u P_{nu} = \phi_u F_u A_n U \quad (6.16)$$

where:

- P_{ny} = nominal tensile resistance for yielding in gross section (N)
- F_y = specified minimum yield strength (MPa)
- A_g = gross cross-sectional area of the member (mm^2)
- P_{nu} = nominal tensile resistance for fracture in net section (N)
- F_u = tensile strength (MPa)
- A_n = net area of the member as specified in Article 6.8.3 (mm^2)
- U = reduction factor to account for shear lag; 1.0 for components in which force effects are transmitted to all elements, and as specified in Article 6.8.2.2 for other cases
- ϕ_y = resistance factor for yielding of tension members as specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- ϕ_u = resistance factor for fracture of tension members as specified in Article 6.5.4.2

- C The reduction factor, U , does not apply when checking yielding on the gross section because yielding tends to equalize the nonuniform tensile stresses caused over the cross-section by shear lag.
- C Due to strain hardening, ductile steel loaded in axial tension can resist a force greater than the product of its gross area and its yield strength prior to fracture. However, excessive elongation due to uncontrolled yielding of gross area not only marks the limit of usefulness but can precipitate failure of the structural system of which it is a part. Depending on the ratio of net area to gross area and the mechanical properties of the steel, the component can fracture by failure of the net area at a load smaller than that required to yield the gross area. General yielding of the gross area and fracture of the net area both constitute measures of component strength. The relative values of the resistance factors for yielding and fracture reflect the different reliability indices deemed proper for the two modes.
- C The part of the component occupied by the net area at fastener holes generally has a negligible length relative to the total length of the member. As a result, the strain hardening is quickly reached and, therefore, yielding of the net area at fastener holes does not constitute a strength limit of practical significance, except perhaps for some built-up members of unusual proportions.
- C For welded connections, A_n is the gross section less any access holes in the connection region.

6.8.2.2. Reduction Factor, U

In the absence of more refined analysis or tests, the reduction factors specified herein may be used to account for shear lag in connections.

The reduction factor, U , for sections subjected to a tension load transmitted directly to each of the crosssectional elements by bolts or welds may be taken as:

$$U = 1.0$$

For bolted connections, the following values of U may be used:

- For rolled I-shapes with flange widths not less than two-thirds the depth, and structural tees cut from these shapes, provided the connection is to the flanges and has no fewer than three fasteners per line in the direction of stress, $U = 0.90$
- For all other members having no fewer than three fasteners per line in the direction of stress, $U = 0.85$
- For all members having only two fasteners per line in the direction of stress, $U = 0.75$

When a tension load is transmitted by fillet welds to some, but not all, elements of a cross-section, the weld strength shall control.

6.8.2.3. Combined Tension and Flexure

A component subjected to tension and flexure shall satisfy Eqs. (6.17) or (6.18).

If $P_u/P_r < 0.2$, then

$$\frac{P_u}{2.0P_r} + \left(\frac{M_{ux}}{M_{rx}} + \frac{M_{uy}}{M_{ry}} \right) \leq 1.0 \quad (6.17)$$

If $P_u/P_r \geq 0.2$, then

$$\frac{P_u}{P_r} + \frac{8.0}{9.0} \left(\frac{M_{ux}}{M_{rx}} + \frac{M_{uy}}{M_{ry}} \right) \leq 1.0 \quad (6.18)$$

where:

- P_r = factored tensile resistance as specified in Article 6.8.2.1 (N)
- M_{rx} = factored flexural resistance about the x-axis taken as ϕ_f times the nominal flexural resistance about the x-axis determined as specified in Article 6.10, 6.11 or 6.12, as applicable (N-mm)
- M_{ry} = factored flexural resistance about the y-axis taken as ϕ_f times the nominal flexural resistance about the y-axis determined as specified in Article 6.12, as applicable (N-mm)
- M_{ux}, M_{uy} = moments about the x- and y-axes, respectively, resulting from factored loads (N-mm)
- P_u = axial force effect resulting from factored loads (N)
- ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2

- C Interaction equations in tension and compression members are a design simplification. Such equations involving exponents of 1.0 on the moment ratios are usually conservative. More exact, nonlinear interaction curves are also available and are discussed in Galambos (1998). If these interaction equations are used, additional investigation of service limit state stresses is necessary to avoid premature yielding.
- C For sections where the nominal flexural resistance about the x-axis is expressed in terms of stress, the factored flexural resistance about the x-axis in Eqs. 6.17 and 6.18 should be taken as:

$$M_{rx} = \text{the smaller of } \phi_f F_{nc} S_{xc} \text{ and } \phi_f F_{nt} S_{xt} \quad (6.19)$$

- C where:

- F_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange (MPa)
 F_{nt} = nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange (MPa)
 M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
 M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
 S_{xc} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the compression flange taken as M_{yc}/F_{yc} (mm³)
 S_{xt} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the tension flange taken as M_{yt}/F_{yt} (mm³)

- C S_{xc} and S_{xt} are defined in this fashion as equivalent values that account for the combined effects of the loads acting on different sections in composite members.
 C For sections where the nominal flexural resistance about the x-axis is determined according to the provisions of Article 6.17, the factored flexural resistance about the x-axis should be taken as:

$$M_{rx} \text{ the smaller of } \phi_f M_{nc} \text{ and } \phi_f M_{nt} \quad (6.20)$$

- C where:

- M_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance based on the compression flange (N-mm)
 M_{nt} = nominal flexural resistance based on the tension flange (N-mm)

- C For I- and H-shaped sections, the nominal flexural resistance about the y axis is determined according to the provisions of Article 6.12.2.2.1.

The stability of a flange subjected to a net compressive stress due to the tension and flexure shall be investigated for local buckling.

6.8.3. Net Area

The net area, A_n , of an element is the product of the thickness of the element and its smallest net width. The net area, A_n , of a member is the sum of the net areas of each element. The width deducted for all holes; standard, oversize, and slotted; shall be taken as 2 mm greater than the hole size specified in Article 6.13.2.4.2. The net width shall be determined for each chain of holes extending across the member or element along any transverse, diagonal, or zigzag line.

The net width for each chain shall be determined by subtracting from the width of the element the sum of the widths of all holes in the chain and adding the quantity $s^2/4g$ for each space between consecutive holes in the chain, where:

- s = pitch of any two consecutive holes (mm)
 g = gage of the same two holes (mm)

For angles, the gage for holes in opposite adjacent legs shall be the sum of the gages from the back of the angles less the thickness.

- C The development of the " $s^2/4g$ " rule for estimating the effect of a chain of holes on the tensile resistance of a section is described in McGuire (1968). Although it has theoretical shortcomings, it has been used for a long time and has been found to be adequate for ordinary connections.
 C In designing a tension member, it is conservative and convenient to use the least net width for any chain together with the full tensile force in the member. It is sometimes possible to achieve an acceptable, slightly less conservative design by checking each possible chain with a tensile force

obtained by subtracting the force removed by each bolt ahead of that chain, i.e., closer to mid-length of the member from the full tensile force in the member.

- C This approach assumes that the full force is transferred equally by all bolts at one end.

6.8.4. Limiting Slenderness Ratio

Tension members other than rods, eyebars, cables, and plates shall satisfy the slenderness requirements specified below:

- For primary main members subject to stress reversals $\frac{\ell}{r} \leq 140$
- For primary main members not subject to stress reversals $\frac{\ell}{r} \leq 200$
- For bracing members $\frac{\ell}{r} \leq 240$

where:

ℓ = unbraced length (mm)

r = minimum radius of gyration (mm)

6.8.5. Builtup Members

6.8.5.1. General

The main elements of tension members built up from rolled or welded shapes shall be connected by continuous plates with or without perforations or by tie plates with or without lacing. Welded connections between shapes and plates shall be continuous. Bolted connections between shapes and plates shall conform to the provisions of Article [6.13.2](#).

- C Perforated plates, rather than tie plates and/or lacing, are now used almost exclusively in built-up members.
- C However, tie plates with or without lacing may be used where special circumstances warrant. Limiting design proportions are given in [AASHTO \(2002\) and AISC \(2005\)](#).

6.8.5.2. Perforated Plates

The ratio of length in the direction of stress to width of holes shall not exceed 2.0.

The clear distance between holes in the direction of stress shall not be less than the transverse distance between the nearest line of connecting bolts or welds. The clear distance between the end of the plate and the first hole shall not be less than 1.25 times the transverse distance between bolts or welds.

The periphery of the holes shall have a minimum radius of 38 mm.

The unsupported widths at the edges of the holes may be assumed to contribute to the net area of the member.

Where holes are staggered in opposite perforated plates, the net area of the member shall be considered the same as for a section having holes in the same transverse plane.

6.8.6. Eyebars

6.8.6.1. Factored Resistance

The factored resistance of the body of the eye-bar shall be taken as specified in Eq. (6.15).

- C Eq. (6.16) does not control because the net section in the head is at least 1.35 greater than the section in the body.

6.8.6.2. Proportions

Eyebars shall have a uniform thickness not less than 14 mm or more than 50 mm.

The transition radius between the head and the body of an eyebar shall not be less than the width of the head at the centerline of the pin hole.

The net width of the head at the centerline of the pin hole shall not be less than 135 percent the required width of the body.

The net dimension of the head beyond the pin hole taken in the longitudinal direction shall not be less than 75 percent of the width of the body.

The width of the body shall not exceed eight times its thickness.

The center of the pin hole shall be located on the longitudinal axis of the body of the eyebar. The pin-hole diameter shall not be more than 0.8 mm greater than the pin diameter.

For steels having a specified minimum yield strength greater than 485 MPa, the hole diameter shall not exceed five times the eyebar thickness.

- C The limitation on the hole diameter for steel with specified minimum yield strengths above 485 MPa, which is not included in the *AASHTO Standard Specifications* is intended to prevent dishing beyond the pin hole (AISE, 2005).

6.8.6.3. Packing

The eyebars of a set shall be symmetrical about the central plane of the member and as parallel as practicable.

They shall be restrained against lateral movement on the pins and against lateral distortion due to the skew of the bridge.

- C The eyebar assembly should be detailed to prevent corrosion-causing elements from entering the joints.

The eyebars shall be so arranged that adjacent bars in the same panel will be separated by at least 14 mm. Ring-shaped spacers shall be provided to fill any gaps between adjacent eyebars on a pin. Intersecting diagonal bars that are not sufficiently spaced to clear each other at all times shall be clamped together at the intersection.

- C Eyebars sometimes vibrate perpendicular to their plane. The intent of this provision is to prevent repeated eyebar contact by providing adequate spacing or by clamping.

6.8.7. Pin-Connected Plates

6.8.7.1. General

Pin-connected plates should be avoided wherever possible.

The provisions of Article 6.8.2.1 shall be satisfied.

6.8.7.2. Pin Plates

The factored bearing resistance on pin plates, P_r , shall be taken as:

$$P_r = \phi_b P_n = \phi_b A_b F_y \quad (6.21)$$

where:

- P_n = nominal bearing resistance (N)
- A_b = projected bearing area on the plate (mm²)
- F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the plate (MPa)
- ϕ_b = resistance factor for bearing specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

The main plate may be strengthened in the region of the hole by attaching pin plates to increase the thickness of the main plate.

If pin plates are used, they shall be arranged to minimize load eccentricity and shall be attached to the main plate by sufficient welds or bolts to transmit the bearing forces from the pin plates into the main plate.

6.8.7.3. Proportions

- C The proportions specified in this Article assure that the member will not fail in the region of the hole if the strength limit state is satisfied in the main plate away from the hole.

The combined net area of the main plate and pin plates on a transverse cross-section through the centerline of the pin hole shall not be less than 1.4 times the required net area of the main plate away from the hole.

The combined net area of the main plate and pin plates beyond the pin hole taken in a longitudinal direction shall not be less than the required net area of the main plate away from the pin hole.

The center of the pin hole shall be located on the longitudinal axis of the main plate. The pin hole diameter shall not be more than 0.8 mm greater than the pin diameter.

For steels having a specified minimum yield strength greater than 485 MPa, the hole diameter shall not exceed five times the combined thickness of the main plate and pin plates.

The combined thickness of the main plate and pin plates shall not be less than 12 percent of the net width from the edge of the hole to the edge of the plate or plates.

The thickness of the main plate shall not be less than 12 percent of the required width away from the hole.

6.8.7.4. Packing

Pin-connected members shall be restrained against lateral movement on the pin and against lateral distortion due to the skew of the bridge.

- C The pin-connected assembly should be detailed to prevent corrosion-causing elements from entering the joints.

6.9. COMPRESSION MEMBERS

6.9.1. General

The provisions of this Article shall apply to prismatic non-composite and composite steel members with at least one plane of symmetry and subjected to either axial compression or combined axial compression and flexure about an axis of symmetry.

- C Conventional column design formulas contain allowances for imperfections and eccentricities permissible in normal fabrication and erection. The effect of any significant additional eccentricity should be accounted for in bridge design.

Arches shall also satisfy the requirements of Article 6.14.4.

Compression chords of half-through trusses shall also satisfy the requirements of Article 6.14.2.9.

- C Torsional buckling or flexural-torsional buckling of singly symmetric and unsymmetric compression members and doubly-symmetric compression members with very thin walls should be investigated. Pertinent provisions of AISC (1999) can be used to design tapered compression members.

6.9.2. Compressive Resistance

6.9.2.1. Axial Compression

The factored resistance of components in compression, P_r , shall be taken as:

$$P_r = \phi_c P_n \quad (6.22)$$

where:

- P_n = nominal compressive resistance as specified in Articles 6.9.4 or 6.9.5, as applicable (N)
- ϕ_c = resistance factor for compression as specified in Article 6.5.4.2.

6.9.2.2. Combined Axial Compression and Flexure

The axial compressive load, P_u , and concurrent moments, M_{ux} and M_{uy} , calculated for the factored loadings by elastic analytical procedures shall satisfy the following relationship:

- If $\frac{P_u}{P_r} < 0.2$, then:

$$\frac{P_u}{2.0P_r} + \left(\frac{M_{ux}}{M_{rx}} + \frac{M_{uy}}{M_{ry}} \right) \leq 1.0 \quad (6.23)$$

- If $\frac{P_u}{P_r} \geq 0.2$, then :

$$\frac{P_u}{P_r} + \frac{8.0}{9.0} \left(\frac{M_{ux}}{M_{rx}} + \frac{M_{uy}}{M_{ry}} \right) \leq 1.0 \quad (6.24)$$

where:

- P_r = factored compressive resistance as specified in Article 6.9.2.1 (N)
- M_{rx} = factored flexural resistance about the x-axis taken equal to ϕ times the nominal flexural resistance about the x-axis determined as specified in Article 6.10, 6.11 or 6.12, as applicable (N-mm)
- M_{ry} = factored flexural resistance about the y-axis taken equal to ϕ times the nominal flexural resistance about the y-axis determined as specified in Article 6.12, as applicable (N-mm)
- M_{ux} = factored flexural moment about the x-axis calculated as specified below (N-mm)

M_{uy} = factored flexural moment about the y-axis calculated as specified below (N-mm)

ϕ = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#).

M_{ux} and M_{uy} , moments about axes of symmetry, may be determined by:

- A second-order elastic analysis that accounts for the magnification of moment caused by the factored axial load, or
- The approximate single step adjustment specified in Article [4.5.3.2.2.b](#).

- C These equations are identical to Eqs. (H1-1a) and (H1-1b) of AISC (2005). They were selected for use in that Specification after being compared with a number of alternative formulations with the results of refined inelastic analyses of 82 frame sidesway cases (Kanchanalai, 1977).
- C P_u , M_{ux} , and M_{uy} are simultaneous axial and flexural forces on cross-sections determined by analysis under factored loads. The maximum calculated moment in the member in each direction including the second order effects, should be considered. Where maxima occur on different cross-sections, each should be checked.
- C For further information on computing the factored flexural resistances about the x- and y-axes, refer to Article [6.8.2.3](#).

6.9.3. Limiting Slenderness Ratio

Compression members shall satisfy the slenderness requirements specified herein.

- For main members:

$$\frac{K \ell}{r} \leq 120$$

- For bracing members:

$$\frac{K \ell}{r} \leq 140$$

where:

K = effective length factor specified in Article [4.6.2.5](#)

ℓ = unbraced length (mm)

r = minimum radius of gyration (mm)

For the purpose of this Article only, the radius of gyration may be computed on a notional section that neglects part of the area of a component, provided that:

- The capacity of the component based on the actual area and radius of gyration exceeds the factored loads, and
- The capacity of the notional component based on a reduced area and corresponding radius of gyration also exceeds the factored loads.

6.9.4. Noncomposite Members

6.9.4.1. Nominal Compressive Resistance

For members that satisfy the width/thickness requirements specified in Article [6.9.4.2](#), the nominal compressive resistance, P_n , shall be taken as:

- If $\lambda \leq 2.25$, then:

$$P_n = 0.66^\lambda F_y A_s \quad (6.25)$$

- If $\lambda > 2.25$, then:

$$P_n = \frac{0.88 F_y A_s}{\lambda} \quad (6.26)$$

in which:

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{K \ell}{r_s \pi} \right)^2 \frac{F_y}{E} \quad (6.27)$$

where:

- A_s = gross cross-sectional area (mm²)
- F_y = specified minimum yield strength (MPa)
- E = modulus of elasticity (MPa)
- K = effective length factor specified in Article [4.6.2.5](#)
- ℓ = unbraced length (mm)
- r_s = governing radius of gyration (mm)

- C Singly symmetric and unsymmetric compression members, such as angles or tees, and doubly-symmetric compression members, such as cruciform members or built-up members with very thin walls, may be governed by the modes of flexural-torsional buckling or torsional buckling rather than the conventional axial buckling mode reflected by Eqs. [\(6.25\)](#) and [\(6.26\)](#). The design of these members for these less conventional buckling modes is covered in [AISC \(2005\)](#).
- C Member elements not satisfying the width/thickness requirements of Article [6.9.4.2](#) should be classified as slender elements. The design of members including such elements is covered in [AISC \(2005\)](#).

6.9.4.2. Plate Buckling Coefficients and Width of Plates for Axial Compression

- C The purpose of this Article is to ensure that uniformly compressed components can develop the yield strength in compression before the onset of local buckling. This does not guarantee that the component has the ability to strain inelastically at constant stress sufficient to permit full plastification of the cross-section for which the more stringent width-to-thickness requirements of the applicable portion of Article [6.10](#) apply.

Unless otherwise specified herein, the slenderness of plates shall satisfy:

$$\frac{b}{t} \leq k \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}} \quad (6.28)$$

where:

- k = plate buckling coefficient as specified in [Table 6.11](#)
- b = width of plate as specified in [Table 6.11](#) (mm)
- t = plate thickness (mm)

The half-width of flanges of built-up I-sections shall satisfy:

$$\frac{b}{t} \leq 0.64 \sqrt{\frac{k_c E}{F_y}} \quad (6.29)$$

and:

$$0.35 \leq k_c \leq 0.76 \quad (6.30)$$

in which:

$$k_c = \frac{4}{\sqrt{\frac{D}{t_w}}} \quad (6.31)$$

where:

- b = half-width of flange (mm)
- D = web depth (mm)

Wall thickness of tubes shall satisfy:

- For circular tubes:

$$\frac{D}{t} \leq 2.8 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}} \quad (6.32)$$

- For rectangular tubes:

$$\frac{b}{t} \leq 1.7 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}} \quad (6.33)$$

where:

- D = diameter of tube (mm)
- B = width of face (mm)
- t = thickness of tube (mm)

- C The form of the width-to-thickness equations derives from the classical elastic critical stress formula for plates: $F_c = [\pi k E] / [12(1-\mu^2)(b/t)^2]$, in which the buckling coefficient, k , is a function of loading and support conditions. For a long, uniformly compressed plate with one longitudinal edge simply-supported against rotation and the other free, $k = 0.425$, and for both edges simply supported, $k = 4.00$ (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961). For these conditions, the coefficients of the (b/t) equation become 0.620 and 1.901, respectively. The coefficients specified herein are the result of further analyses and numerous tests and reflect the effect of residual stresses, initial imperfections, and actual (as opposed to ideal) support conditions.
- C For members designed using the equations of Article 6.9.2.2, F_y , as used herein, may be replaced with the maximum calculated compressive stress due to the factored axial load and concurrent bending moment.
- C For projecting flanges of built-up I-sections under axial compression, web-flange interaction is considered.
- C Theory indicates that the web-flange interaction for built-up I-sections under axial compression is at least as severe as for flexure. The k_c factor accounts for the interaction of flange and web local buckling demonstrated in experiments conducted by Johnson (1985). For built-up sections with D/t_w ; 130.6, k_c may be taken equal to 0.35.
- C For smaller values of D/t_w , k_c increases from 0.35 up to a maximum value of 0.76 as a function of the web slenderness D/t_w . A k_c value of 0.76 yields a k value of 0.56. Rolled I-sections are excluded from these criteria because web-flange interaction effects are considered negligible for these sections.

Table 6.11: Plate Buckling Coefficients and Width of Plates for Axial Compression.

Plates Supported Along One Edge	k	b
Flanges and Projecting Legs or Plates	0.56	Half-flange width of rolled I-sections
		Full flange width of channels
		Distance between free edge and first line of bolts or welds in plates
		Full width of an outstanding leg for pairs of angles in continuous contact
Stems of Rolled Tees	0.75	Full depth of tee
Other Projecting Elements	0.45	Full width of outstanding leg for single angle strut or double angle strut with separator
		Full projecting width for others
Plates Supported Along Two Edges	k	b
Box Flanges and Cover Plates	1.40	Clear distance between webs minus inside corner radius on each side for box flanges
		Distance between lines of welds or bolts for flange cover plates
Webs and Other Plate Elements	1.49	Clear distance between flanges minus fillet radii for webs of rolled beams
		Clear distance between edge supports for all others
Perforated Cover Plates	1.86	Clear distance between edge supports

6.9.4.3. Built-up Members

1. General

The provisions of Article [6.9.4.2](#) shall apply. For built-up members composed of two or more shapes, the slenderness ratio of each component shape between connecting fasteners or welds shall not be more than 75 percent of the governing slenderness ratio of the builtup member. The least radius of gyration shall be used in computing the slenderness ratio of each component shape between the connectors.

Lacing, including flat bars, angles, channels, or other shapes employed as lacing, or batten plates shall be spaced so that the slenderness ratio of each component shape between the connectors shall not be more than 75 percent of the governing slenderness ratio of the built-up member.

The nominal compressive resistance of built-up members composed of two or more shapes shall be determined as specified in Article [6.9.4.1](#) subject to the following modification. If the buckling mode involves relative deformations that produce shear forces in the connectors between individual shapes, $K\ell/r$ shall be replaced by $(K\ell/r)_m$ determined as follows for intermediate connectors that are welded or fully-tensioned bolted:

$$\left(\frac{K\ell}{r}\right)_m = \sqrt{\left(\frac{K\ell}{r}\right)_o^2 + 0.82\left(\frac{\alpha^2}{1+\alpha^2}\right)\left(\frac{a}{r_{ib}}\right)^2} \quad (6.34)$$

where:

- $\left(K\ell/r\right)_m$ = modified slenderness ratio of the built-up member
 - $\left(K\ell/r\right)_o$ = slenderness ratio of the built-up member acting as a unit in the buckling direction being considered
 - α = separation ratio = $h/2r_{ib}$
 - a = distance between connectors (mm)
 - r_{ib} = radius of gyration of an individual component shape relative to its centroidal axis parallel to the member axis of buckling (mm)
 - h = distance between centroids of individual component shapes perpendicular to the member axis of buckling (mm)
- C Two types of built-up members are commonly used for steel bridge construction: closely spaced steel shapes interconnected at intervals using welds or fasteners, and laced or battened members with widely spaced flange components.
- C The compressive resistance of built-up members is affected by the interaction between the global buckling mode of the member and the localized component buckling mode between lacing points or intermediate connectors.
- C **Duan, Reno, and Uang (2002)** refer to this type of buckling as compound buckling. For both types of built-up members, limiting the slenderness ratio of each component shape between connection fasteners or welds or between lacing points, as applicable, to 75 percent of the governing global slenderness ratio of the built-up member effectively mitigates the effect of compound buckling (**Duan, Reno, and Uang, 2002**).
- C The compressive resistance of both types of members is also affected by any relative deformation that produces shear forces in the connectors between the individual shapes. Eq. (6.34) is adopted from **AISC (2005)** and provides a modified slenderness ratio taking into account the effect of the shear forces. Eq. (6.34) applies for intermediate connectors that are welded or fully-tensioned bolted and was derived from theory and verified by test data (**Aslani and Goel, 1991**). For other types of intermediate connectors on built-up members, including riveted connectors on existing bridges, Eq. (6.35) as follows should instead be applied:

$$\left(\frac{K\ell}{r}\right)_m = \sqrt{\left(\frac{K\ell}{r}\right)_o^2 + \left(\frac{a}{r_i}\right)^2} \quad (6.35)$$

- C where r_i = minimum radius of gyration of an individual component shape (mm)
- C Eq. (6.35) is based empirically on test results (**Zandonini, 1985**). In all cases, the connectors must be designed to resist the shear forces that develop in the buckled member.
- C **Duan, Reno, and Lynch (2000)** give an approach for determining the section properties of latticed built-up members, such as the moment of inertia and torsional constant.

2. Perforated Plates

Perforated plates shall satisfy the requirements of Articles 6.9.4.2 and 6.8.5.2 and shall be designed for the sum of the shear force due to the factored loads and an additional shear force taken as:

$$V = \frac{P_r}{100} \left(\frac{100}{(\ell/r)} + \frac{8.8(\ell/r)F_y}{E} \right) \quad (6.36)$$

where:

V = additional shear force (N)

P_r = factored compressive resistance specified in Articles 6.9.2.1 or 6.9.2.2 (N)

ℓ = member length (mm)

R = radius of gyration about an axis perpendicular to the perforated plate (mm)

F_y = specified minimum yield strength (MPa)

6.9.5. Composite Members

6.9.5.1. Nominal Compressive Resistance

The provisions of this Article shall apply to composite columns without flexure. The provisions of Article 6.12.2.3 shall apply to composite columns in flexure. The nominal compressive resistance of a composite column satisfying the provisions of Article 6.9.5.2 shall be taken as:

- If $\lambda \leq 2.25$, then:

$$P_n = 0.66^2 F_e A_s \quad (6.37)$$

- If $\lambda > 2.25$, then:

$$P_n = \frac{0.88 F_e A_s}{\lambda} \quad (6.38)$$

in which:

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{k \ell}{r_s \pi} \right)^2 \frac{F_e}{E_e} \quad (6.39)$$

$$F_e = F_y + C_1 F_{yr} \left(\frac{A_r}{A_s} \right) + C_2 f'_c \left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} \right) \quad (6.40)$$

$$E_e = E \left[1 + \left(\frac{C_3}{n} \right) \left(\frac{A_c}{A_s} \right) \right] \quad (6.41)$$

where:

A_s = cross-sectional area of the steel section (mm²)

A_c = cross-sectional area of the concrete (mm²)

A_r = total cross-sectional area of the longitudinal reinforcement (mm²)

F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the steel section (MPa)

F_{yr} = specified minimum yield strength of the longitudinal reinforcement (MPa)

f'_c = specified minimum 28-day compressive strength of the concrete (MPa)

E = modulus of elasticity of the steel (MPa)

ℓ = unbraced length of the column (mm)

K = effective length factor as specified in Article 4.6.2.5

- n = modular ratio of the concrete as specified in Article [6.10.1.1.1.b](#)
- r_s = radius of gyration of the steel section in the plane of bending but not less than 0.3 times the width of the composite member in the plane of bending for composite concrete-encased shapes (mm)
- $\left. \begin{matrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \\ C_3 \end{matrix} \right\}$ = composite column constant specified in [Table 6.12](#)

Table 6.12: Composite Column Constants.

	FILLED TUBES	ENCASED SHAPES
C_1	1.00	0.70
C_2	0.85	0.60
C_3	0.40	0.20

In determining the moment magnification for composite members subject to combined axial compression and flexure according to the approximate single step adjustment specified in Article [4.5.3.2.2.b](#), the following shall apply:

$$P_e = \frac{A_s F_e}{\lambda} \quad (6.42)$$

- C The procedure for the design of composite columns is the same as that for the design of steel columns, except that the specified minimum yield strength of structural steel, the modulus of elasticity of steel, and the radius of gyration of the steel section are modified to account for the effect of concrete and of longitudinal reinforcing bars.
- C Explanation of the origin of these modifications and comparison of the design procedure, with the results of numerous tests, may be found in [SSRC Task Group 20 \(1979\)](#) and [Galambos and Chapuis \(1980\)](#).

6.9.5.2. Limitations

1. General

- C Little of the test data supporting the development of the present provisions for design of composite columns involved concrete strengths in excess of 40MPa. Normal density concrete was believed to have been used in all tests. A lower limit of 20MPa is specified to encourage the use of good-quality concrete.

The compressive resistance shall be calculated in accordance with Article [6.9.5.1](#) if the cross-sectional area of the steel section comprises at least four percent of the total cross-sectional area of the member. The compressive resistance shall be calculated as a reinforced concrete column under [Section 5](#) if the crosssectional area of the shape or tube is less than four percent of the total cross-sectional area.

The compressive strength of the concrete shall be between 20 MPa and 55 MPa.

The specified minimum yield strength of the steel section and the longitudinal reinforcement used to calculate the nominal compressive resistance shall not exceed 420 MPa.

The transfer of all load in the composite column shall be considered in the design of supporting components.

The cross-section shall have at least one axis of symmetry.

2. Concrete-Filled Tubes

The wall thickness requirements for unfilled tubes specified in Article 6.9.4.2 shall apply to filled composite tubes.

3. Concrete-Encased Shapes

C Concrete-encased shapes are not subject to the width/thickness limitations specified in Article 6.9.4.2 because it has been shown that the concrete provides adequate support against local buckling.

Concrete-encased steel shapes shall be reinforced with longitudinal and lateral reinforcement. The reinforcement shall conform to the provisions of Article 5.7.4.6, except that the vertical spacing of lateral ties shall not exceed the least of:

- 16 longitudinal bar diameters,
- 48 tie bar diameters, or
- 0.5 of the least side dimension of the composite member.

Multiple steel shapes in the same cross-section of a composite column shall be connected to one another with lacing and tie plates to prevent buckling of individual shapes before hardening of the concrete.

6.10. I-SECTION FLEXURAL MEMBERS

6.10.1. General

The provisions of this Article apply to flexure of rolled or fabricated straight, kinked (chorded) continuous, or horizontally curved steel I-section members symmetrical about the vertical axis in the plane of the web. These provisions cover the design of composite and noncomposite, hybrid and nonhybrid, and constant and variable web depth members as defined by and subject to the requirements of Articles 6.10.1.1 through 6.10.1.8. The provisions also cover the combined effects of major-axis bending and flange lateral bending from any source.

All types of I-section flexural members shall be designed as a minimum to satisfy:

- The cross-section proportion limits specified in Article 6.10.2;
- The constructibility requirements specified in Article 6.10.3;
- The service limit state requirements specified in Article 6.10.4;
- The fatigue and fracture limit state requirements specified in Article 6.10.5;
- The strength limit state requirements specified in Article 6.10.6.

The web bend-buckling resistance in slender web members shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.9. Flange-strength reduction factors in hybrid and/or slender web members shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.

Cross-frames and diaphragms for I-sections shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.7.4. Where required, lateral bracing for I-sections shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.7.5.

C For more information see Article 6.20.4 in Appendix D6.

6.10.1.1. Composite Sections

Sections consisting of a concrete deck that provides proven composite action and lateral support connected to a steel section by shear connectors designed according to the provisions of Article 6.10.10 shall be considered composite sections.

1. Stresses

a. Sequence of Loading

The elastic stress at any location on the composite section due to the applied loads shall be the sum of the stresses caused by the loads applied separately to the:

- Steel section,
- Short-term composite section, and
- Long-term composite section.

For unshored construction, permanent load applied before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite shall be assumed carried by the steel section alone; permanent load and live load applied after this stage shall be assumed carried by the composite section. For shored construction, all permanent loads shall be assumed applied after the concrete deck has hardened or has been made composite and the contract documents shall so indicate.

- C Previous Specifications indicated that a concrete slab may be considered sufficiently hardened after the concrete attains 75 percent of its specified 28-day compressive strength f'_c . Other indicators may be used based on the judgment of the Engineer.
- C While shored construction is permitted according to these provisions, its use is not recommended. Unshored construction generally is expected to be more economical.
- C Also, these provisions may not be sufficient for shored construction where close tolerances on the girder cambers are important. There has been limited research on the effects of concrete creep on composite steel girders under large dead loads. There have been no known significant demonstration bridges built with shored construction in the U.S. Shored composite bridges that are known to have been constructed in Germany did not retain composite action. Furthermore, there is an increased likelihood of significant tensile stresses occurring in the concrete deck at permanent support points when shored construction is used.

b. Stresses for Sections in Positive Flexure

For calculating flexural stresses within sections subjected to positive flexure, the composite section shall consist of the steel section and the transformed area of the effective width of the concrete deck.

For transient loads assumed applied to the short-term composite section, the concrete deck area shall be transformed by using the short-term modular ratio, n . For permanent loads assumed applied to the long-term composite section, the concrete deck area shall be transformed by using the long-term modular ratio, $3n$.

Where moments due to the transient and permanent loads are of opposite sign at the strength limit state, the associated composite section may be used with each of these moments if the resulting net stress in the concrete deck due to the sum of the factored moments is compressive. Otherwise, the provisions of Article 6.10.1.1.c shall be used to determine the stresses in the steel section. Stresses in the concrete deck shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.1.d.

The modular ratio should be taken as:

$$n = \frac{E}{E_c} \quad (6.43)$$

where:

E_c = modulus of elasticity of the concrete determined as specified in Article 5.4.2.4 (MPa)

C For normal-density concrete, the modular ratio may be taken as:

$16 < f'_c < 20$	$n = 10$
$20 \leq f'_c < 25$	$n = 9$
$25 \leq f'_c < 32$	$n = 8$
$32 \leq f'_c < 41$	$n = 7$
$41 \leq f'_c$	$n = 6$

c. Stresses for Sections in Negative Flexure

For calculating flexural stresses in sections subjected to negative flexure, the composite section for both short-term and long-term moments shall consist of the steel section and the longitudinal reinforcement within the effective width of the concrete deck, except as specified otherwise in Article 6.6.1.2.1, Article 6.10.1.1.1.d or Article 6.10.4.2.1.

d. Concrete Deck Stresses

For calculating longitudinal flexural stresses in the concrete deck due to all permanent and transient loads, the short-term modular ratio, n , shall be used.

- C Previous Specifications required that the longitudinal flexural stresses in the concrete deck due to permanent load be calculated using the n or the $3n$ section, whichever gives the more critical stress within the deck. When the deck stresses due to short-term and permanent loads are of the same sign, the n section typically governs the deck stress calculation. Also, the maximum combined compression in the deck generally occurs at a section where the permanent and short-term stresses are additive.
- C However, when considering the length of the deck over which the provisions of Article 6.10.1.7 are to be applied, smaller compressive permanent load stresses can result in larger net tensile stresses in the deck in the vicinity of inflection point locations. In these situations, use of the $3n$ section for the permanent load stresses produces the more critical tension stress in the deck. This level of refinement in the calculation of the deck longitudinal tension stresses is considered unjustified.

e. Effective Width of Concrete Deck

The effective width of the concrete deck shall be determined as specified in Article 4.6.2.6.

6.10.1.2. Non-composite Sections

Sections where the concrete deck is not connected to the steel section by shear connectors designed in accordance with the provisions of Article 6.10.10 shall be considered noncomposite sections.

- C Noncomposite sections are not recommended, but are permitted.

6.10.1.3. Hybrid Sections

The specified minimum yield strength of the web should not be less than the larger of 70 percent of the specified minimum yield strength of the higher strength flange and 250 MPa.

For members with a higher-strength steel in the web than in one or both flanges, the yield strength of the web shall not be taken greater than 120 percent of the specified minimum yield strength of the lower strength flange in determining the flexural and shear resistance.

- C Hybrid sections consisting of a web with specified minimum yield strength lower than that of one or both of the flanges may be designed with these Specifications.
- C Although these provisions can be safely applied to all types of hybrid sections (ASCE, 1968), it is recommended that the difference in the specified minimum yield strengths of the web and the higher strength flange preferably be limited to one steel grade. Such sections generally are believed to have greater design efficiency.
- C For these types of sections, the upper limit of F_{yw} on the value of F_{yr} determined in Article 6.10.8.2.2, 6.10.8.2.3, 6.17.3.2 or 6.17.3.3 as applicable, does not govern.
- C Furthermore, as discussed in Article 6.10.1.9.1, this minimum limit on the web yield strength guards against early inelastic web bend-buckling of slender hybrid webs.
- C A number of the curved noncomposite I-girders tested by Mozer and Culver (1970) and Mozer et al. (1971) had F_{yw}/F_{yf} between 0.72 and 0.76. The flexural and shear strengths of these hybrid I-girders are predicted adequately by these Specifications, including the development of shear strengths associated with tension field action. The major-axis bending stresses tend to be smaller in curved I-girder webs compared to straight I-girder webs, since part of the flexural resistance is taken up by flange lateral bending. The provisions of Articles 6.10.2 and 6.10.5.3 prevent significant out-of-plane flexing of the web in straight and curved hybrid I-girders (Yen and Mueller, 1966; ASCE, 1968).
- C Test data for sections with nominally larger yield strengths in the web than in one or both flanges are limited. Nevertheless, in many experimental tests, the actual yield strength of the thinner web is larger than that of the flanges. The nominal yield strength that may be used for the web in determining the flexural and shear resistance for such cases is limited within these Specifications to a range supported by the available test data.

6.10.1.4. Variable Web Depth Members

The effect of bottom flange inclination shall be considered in determining the bottom flange stress caused by bending about the major-axis of the cross-section.

Where permitted by static equilibrium, the web dead-load shear may be reduced by the vertical component of the bottom flange force.

At points where the bottom flange becomes horizontal, the transfer of the vertical component of the flange force back into the web shall be considered.

- C For more information see Article 6.20.5 in Appendix D6.

6.10.1.5. Stiffness

The following stiffness properties shall be used in the analysis of flexural members:

- For loads applied to noncomposite sections: the stiffness properties of the steel section alone.
- For permanent loads applied to composite sections: the stiffness properties of the long-term composite section, assuming the concrete deck to be effective over the entire span length.
- For transient loads applied to composite sections: the stiffness properties of the short-term composite section, assuming the concrete deck to be effective over the entire span length.

- C In line with common practice, it is specified that the stiffness of the steel section alone be used for noncomposite sections, although numerous field tests have shown that considerable unintended composite action occurs in such sections.
- C Field tests of composite continuous bridges have shown that there is considerable composite action in negative bending regions (Baldwin et al., 1978; Roeder and Eltvik, 1985; Yen et al., 1995). Therefore, the stiffness of the full composite section is to be used over the entire bridge length for the analysis of composite flexural members.

6.10.1.6. Flange Stresses and Member Bending Moments

For design checks where the flexural resistance is based on lateral torsional buckling:

- The stress f_{bu} shall be determined as the largest value of the compressive stress throughout the unbraced length in the flange under consideration, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending.
- The moment M_u shall be determined as the largest value of the major-axis bending moment throughout the unbraced length causing compression in the flange under consideration.
- The stress f_ℓ shall be determined as the largest value of the stress due to lateral bending throughout the unbraced length in the flange under consideration.

For design checks where the flexural resistance is based on yielding, flange local buckling or web bendbuckling, f_{bu} , M_u and f_ℓ may be determined as the corresponding values at the section under consideration.

The values of f_{bu} , M_u and f_ℓ shall be determined based on factored loads, and shall be taken as positive in sign in all resistance equations.

Lateral bending stresses in continuously braced flanges shall be taken equal to zero. Lateral bending stresses in discretely braced flanges shall be determined by structural analysis. All discretely braced flanges shall satisfy:

$$f_\ell = 0.6F_{yf} \quad (6.44)$$

The flange lateral bending stress, f_ℓ , may be determined directly from first-order elastic analysis in discretely braced compression flanges for which:

$$L_b \leq 1.2L_p \sqrt{\frac{C_b R_b}{f_{bu} / F_{yc}}} \quad (6.45)$$

or equivalently:

$$L_b \leq 1.2L_p \sqrt{\frac{C_b R_b}{M_u / M_{yc}}} \quad (6.46)$$

where:

C_b = moment gradient modifier specified in Article 6.10.8.2.3 or Article 6.17.3.3, as applicable.

F_{bu} = largest value of the compressive stress throughout the unbraced length in the flange under consideration, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)

- L_b = unbraced length (mm)
 L_p = limiting unbraced length specified in Article 6.10.8.2.3 (mm)
 M_u = largest value of the major-axis bending moment throughout the unbraced length causing compression in the flange under consideration (N-mm)
 M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
 R_b = web load-shedding factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.2

If Eq. (6.45), or Eq. (6.46) as applicable, is not satisfied, second-order elastic compression-flange lateral bending stresses shall be determined.

Second-order compression-flange lateral bending stresses may be determined by amplifying first-order values as follows:

$$f_\ell = \left(\frac{0.85}{1 - \frac{f_{bu}}{F_{cr}}} \right) f_{\ell 1} \geq f_{\ell 1} \quad (6.47)$$

or equivalently :

$$f_\ell = \left(\frac{0.85}{1 - \frac{M_u}{F_{cr} S_{xc}}} \right) f_{\ell 1} \geq f_{\ell 1} \quad (6.48)$$

where:

- f_{bu} = largest value of the compressive stress throughout the unbraced length in the flange under consideration, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
 $F_{\ell 1}$ = first-order compression-flange lateral bending stress at the section under consideration, or the maximum first-order lateral bending stress in the compression flange under consideration throughout the unbraced length, as applicable (MPa)
 F_{cr} = elastic lateral torsional buckling stress for the flange under consideration determined from Eq. (6.106) or Eq. (A6.30). Eq. (A6.30) may only be applied for unbraced lengths in straight I-girder bridges in which the web is compact or noncompact.
 M_u = largest value of the major-axis bending moment throughout the unbraced length causing compression in the flange under consideration (N-mm)
 S_{xc} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the compression flange taken as M_{yc}/F_{yc} (mm³)

C For more information see Article 6.20.6 in Appendix D6.

6.10.1.7. Minimum Negative Flexure Concrete Deck Reinforcement

Wherever the longitudinal tensile stress in the concrete deck due to either the factored construction loads or Load Combination Service II in Table 3.1 exceeds ϕf_r , the total cross-sectional area of the longitudinal reinforcement shall not be less than one

percent of the total cross-sectional area of the concrete deck. f_r shall be taken as the modulus of rupture of the concrete determined as specified in Article 5.4.2.6 and ϕ shall be taken as the appropriate resistance factor for concrete in tension specified in Article 5.5.4.2.1. The longitudinal stresses in the concrete deck shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.1.1.d. The reinforcement used to satisfy this requirement shall have a specified minimum yield strength not less than 400 MPa and a size not exceeding 20 mm Dia bars.

The required reinforcement should be placed in two layers uniformly distributed across the deck width, and two-thirds should be placed in the top layer. The individual bars shall be spaced at intervals not exceeding 300 mm.

Where shear connectors are omitted from the negative flexure region, all longitudinal reinforcement shall be extended into the positive flexure region beyond the additional shear connectors specified in Article 6.10.10.3 a distance not less than the development length specified in Section 5.

C For more information see Article 6.20.7 in Appendix D6.

6.10.1.8. Net Section Fracture

When checking flexural members at the strength limit state or for constructibility, the following additional requirement shall be satisfied at all cross-sections containing holes in the tension flange:

$$f_t \leq 0.84 \left(\frac{A_n}{A_g} \right) F_u \leq F_{yt} \quad (6.49)$$

where:

- A_n = net area of the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.8.3 (mm²)
- A_g = gross area of the tension flange (mm²)
- f_t = stress on the gross area of the tension flange due to the factored loads calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
- F_u = specified minimum tensile strength of the tension flange determined as specified in Table 6.1 (MPa)

- C If Eq. (6.49) is satisfied under the stated conditions at a cross-section containing holes in the tension flange, fracture on the net section of the flange is prevented. For holes larger than those typically used for connectors such as bolts, refer to Article 6.8.1.
- C At compact composite sections in positive flexure and at sections designed according to the optional provisions of Article 6.17 with no holes in the tension flange, the nominal flexural resistance is permitted to exceed the moment at first yield at the strength limit state. Pending the results from further research, it is conservatively required that Eq. (6.49) also be satisfied at the strength limit state at any such cross-sections containing holes in the tension flange.
- C It has not yet been fully documented that complete plastification of the cross-section can occur at these sections prior to fracture on the net section of the tension flange. Furthermore, the splice design provisions of Article 6.13.6.1.4 do not consider the contribution of substantial web yielding to the flexural resistance of these sections. Eq. (6.49) will likely prevent holes from being located in the tension flange at or near points of maximum applied moment where significant yielding of the web, beyond the localized yielding permitted in hybrid sections, may occur.
- C The factor 0.84 in Eq. (6.49) is approximately equivalent to the ratio of the resistance factor for fracture of tension members, ϕ_w to the resistance factor for yielding of tension members, ϕ_y specified in Article 6.5.4.2.

6.10.1.9. Web Bend-Buckling Resistance

1. Webs without Longitudinal Stiffeners

The nominal bend-buckling resistance shall be taken as:

$$F_{crw} = \frac{0.9Ek}{(D/t_w)^2} \leq \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} R_h F_{yc} \\ \frac{F_{yw}}{0.7} \end{array} \right. \quad (6.50)$$

in which:

k = bend buckling coefficient

$$k = \frac{9}{(D_c/D)^2} \quad (6.51)$$

where:

D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article [6.19.4.1](#).

R_h = hybrid factor specified in Article [6.10.1.10.1](#)

When both edges of the web are in compression, k shall be taken as 7.2.

C For more information see Article [6.20.8](#) in Appendix D6.

2. Webs with Longitudinal Stiffeners

In lieu of an alternative rational analysis, the nominal bend-buckling resistance may be determined as specified in Eq. [\(6.50\)](#), with the bend-buckling coefficient taken as follows:

- If $\frac{d_s}{D_c} \geq 0.4$, then

$$k = \frac{5.17}{(d_s/D)^2} \geq \frac{9}{(D_c/D)^2} \quad (6.52)$$

- If $\frac{d_s}{D_c} < 0.4$, then

$$k = \frac{11.64}{\left(\frac{D_c - d_s}{D} \right)^2} \quad (6.53)$$

where:

d_s = distance from the centerline of the closest plate longitudinal stiffener or from the gage line of the closest angle longitudinal stiffener to the inner surface or leg of the compression-flange element (mm)

When both edges of the web are in compression, k shall be taken as 7.2.

C For more information see Article [6.20.9](#) in Appendix D6.

6.10.1.10. Flange-Strength Reduction Factors

1. Hybrid Factor, R_h

For rolled shapes, homogenous built-up sections and built-up sections with a higher-strength steel in the web than in both flanges, R_h shall be taken as 1.0. Otherwise, in lieu of an alternative rational analysis, the hybrid factor shall be taken as:

$$R_h = \frac{12 + \beta(3\rho - \rho^3)}{12 + 2\beta} \quad (6.54)$$

in which:

$$\beta = \frac{2D_n t_w}{A_{fn}} \quad (6.55)$$

ρ = the smaller of F_{yw}/f_n and 1.0

where:

A_{fn} = sum of the flange area and the area of any cover plates on the side of the neutral axis corresponding to D_n (mm²). For composite sections in negative flexure, the area of the longitudinal reinforcement may be included in calculating A_{fn} for the top flange.

D_n = larger of the distances from the elastic neutral axis of the cross-section to the inside face of either flange (mm). For sections where the neutral axis is at the mid-depth of the web, the distance from the neutral axis to the inside face of the flange on the side of the neutral axis where yielding occurs first.

f_n = for sections where yielding occurs first in the flange, a cover plate or the longitudinal reinforcement on the side of the neutral axis corresponding to D_n , the largest of the specified minimum yield strengths of each component included in the calculation of A_{fn} (MPa). Otherwise, the largest of the elastic stresses in the flange, cover plate or longitudinal reinforcement on the side of the neutral axis corresponding to D_n at first yield on the opposite side of the neutral axis.

- C The R_h factor accounts for the reduced contribution of the web to the nominal flexural resistance at first yield in any flange element, due to earlier yielding of the lower strength steel in the web of a hybrid section. As used herein, the term flange element is defined as a flange or cover plate or the longitudinal reinforcement.
- C Eq. (6.54) represents a condensation of the formulas for R_h in previous *AASHTO Specifications* and considers all possible combinations associated with different positions of the elastic neutral axis and different yield strengths of the top and bottom flange elements. The fundamental equation, originally derived for a doubly-symmetric I-section (ASCE, 1968; Schilling, 1968; and Frost and Schilling, 1964), is adapted in these provisions to handle singly-symmetric and composite sections by focusing on the side of the neutral axis where yielding occurs first. This side of the neutral axis has the most extensive web yielding prior to first yielding of any flange element. All flange elements on this side of the neutral axis are conservatively assumed to be located at the edge of the web. The equation is also adapted by assuming that the shift in the neutral axis due to the onset of web yielding is negligible. These assumptions are similar to those used in the development of a separate R_h equation for composite members in prior *AASHTO Specifications*. In lieu of the approximate Eq. (6.54), the Engineer may determine R_h based on a direct iterative strain-compatibility analysis. Since the computed R_h values by any approach are typically close to 1.0, the conservative assumptions made in the derivation of the simplified single noniterative Eq. (6.54) should not result in a significant economic penalty.
- C For composite sections in positive flexure, D_n may be taken conservatively as the distance from the neutral axis of the short-term composite section to the inside faces of the bottom flange. This approach is strongly recommended to prevent possible complications in subsequent load rating resulting from the flexural resistance being a function of D_n and D_n being a function of the applied load.

- C For composite sections where the neutral axis is at the mid-depth of the web and where first yield occurs simultaneously in both flange elements, D_n should be taken as the distance to the flange element with the smaller A_m

2. Web Load-Shedding Factor, R_b

When checking constructibility according to the provisions of Article 6.10.3.2, or when:

- the section is composite and is in positive flexure and the web satisfies the requirement of Article 6.10.2.1.1 or 6.11.2.1.2, as applicable,

or:

- one or more longitudinal stiffeners are provided and

$$\frac{D}{t_w} \leq 0.95 \sqrt{\frac{Ek}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.56)$$

or:

- the webs satisfy:

$$\frac{2D_c}{t_w} \leq \lambda_{rw} \quad (6.57)$$

Then, R_b shall be taken as 1.0.

Otherwise:

$$R_b = 1 - \left(\frac{a_{wc}}{1200 + 300a_{wc}} \right) \left(\frac{2D_c}{t_w} - \lambda_{rw} \right) \leq 1.0 \quad (6.58)$$

in which:

λ_{rw} = limiting slenderness ratio for a noncompact web

$$\lambda_{rw} = 5.7 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.59)$$

a_{wc} = for all sections except as noted below, ratio of two times the web area in compression to the area of the compression flange

$$a_{wc} = \frac{2D_c t_w}{b_{fc} t_{fc}} \quad (6.60)$$

$$a_{wc} = \frac{2D_c t_w}{b_{fc} t_{fc} + b_s t_s (1 - f_{DC1} / F_{yc}) / 3n} \quad (6.61)$$

where:

b_s = effective width of concrete deck (mm)

f_{DC1} = compression flange stress at the section under consideration, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending and caused by the factored permanent load applied before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite (MPa).

k = bend-buckling coefficient for webs with longitudinal stiffeners determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.9.2

n = modular ratio determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.1.1.b

t_s = thickness of concrete deck (mm)

D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.1.

C For more information see Article 6.20.10 in Appendix D6.

6.10.2. Cross-Section Proportion Limits

6.10.2.1. Web Proportions

1. Webs without Longitudinal Stiffeners

Webs shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{D}{t_w} \leq 150 \quad (6.62)$$

- C Eq. (6.62) is a practical upper limit on the slenderness of webs without longitudinal stiffeners expressed in terms of the web depth, D . This equation allows for easier proportioning of the web in preliminary design relative to previous Specifications. In previous Specifications, Eq. (6.62) was the upper limit for unstiffened webs. By also limiting the slenderness of transversely-stiffened webs to this value, maximum transverse stiffener spacings up to $3D$ are permitted; the requirement in previous Specifications to provide additional transverse stiffeners for handling in girders with more slender webs, beyond those required for shear, is eliminated.
- C Furthermore, satisfaction of Eq. (6.62) allows web bendbuckling to be disregarded in the design of composite sections in positive flexure, as discussed further in Article 6.10.1.9.1. The limit in Eq. (6.62) is valid for sections with specified minimum yield strengths up to and including 690MPa designed according to these Specifications.
- C The vertical flange buckling limit-state equations in AISC (2005), which are based in large part on ASCE (1968), are not considered in these Specifications. These equations specify a limit on the web slenderness to prevent theoretical elastic buckling of the web as a column subjected to a radial transverse compression due to the curvature of the flanges. For girders that satisfy Eq. (6.62), these equations do not govern the web slenderness unless F_{yc} is greater than 585MPa. Furthermore, tests conducted by Lew and Toprac (1968), Cooper (1967) and others, in which the final failure mode involved vertical flange buckling, or a folding of the compression flange vertically into the web, indicate that the influence of this failure mode on the predicted girder flexural resistances is small.
- C This is the case even for girders with parameters that significantly violate the vertical flange buckling limit-state equations.

2. Webs with Longitudinal Stiffeners

Webs shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{D}{t_w} \leq 300 \quad (6.63)$$

- C Eq. (6.63) is a practical upper limit on the slenderness of webs with longitudinal stiffeners expressed in terms of the web depth, D . This limit allows for easier proportioning of the web for preliminary design than comparable limits in previous Specifications. The limit in Eq. (6.63) is valid for sections with specified minimum yield strengths up to and including 690MPa designed according to these Specifications.
- C Cooper (1967) discusses the conservatism of vertical flange buckling limit-state equations and the justification for not considering this limit state in longitudinally stiffened I-girders. Tests by Cooper (1967), Owen et al. (1970) and others have demonstrated that the flexural resistance is not adversely affected by final failure modes involving vertical flange buckling, even for longitudinally stiffened girders that significantly exceed the limit of Eq. (6.63). In all cases involving a vertical flange buckling type of failure, extensive flexural yielding of the compression flange preceded the failure. However, webs that have larger D/t_w values than specified by Eq. (6.63) are relatively inefficient, are likely to be more susceptible to distortion induced fatigue, and are more susceptible to the limit states of web crippling and web yielding of Article 6.19.5.

6.10.2.2. Flange Proportions

Compression and tension flanges shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{b_f}{2t_f} \leq 12.0 \quad (6.64)$$

$$b_f \geq \frac{D}{6} \quad (6.65)$$

$$t_f \geq 1.1t_w \quad (6.66)$$

and:

$$0.1 \leq \frac{I_{yc}}{I_{yt}} \leq 10 \quad (6.67)$$

where:

I_{yc} = moment of inertia of the compression flange of the steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm⁴)

I_{yt} = moment of inertia of the tension flange of the steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm⁴).

- C Eq.(6.64) is a practical upper limit to ensure the flange will not distort excessively when welded to the web.
- C White and Barth (1998) observe that the cross-section aspect ratio D/b_f is a significant parameter affecting the strength and moment-rotation characteristics of I-sections. Eq.(6.65) limits this ratio to a maximum value of 6. Experimental test data are limited for sections with very narrow flanges. A significant number of the limited tests that have been conducted have indicated relatively low nominal flexural and shear resistances relative to the values determined using these and previous Specifications.
- C Limiting this ratio to a maximum value of 6 for both the compression and tension flanges ensures that stiffened interior web panels, with the section along the entire panel proportioned to satisfy Eq.(6.114), can develop postbuckling shear resistance due to tension-field action (While et al., 2004). Eq.(6.65) provides a lower limit on the flange width. In most practical cases, a wider flange will be required, particularly for horizontally curved girders.
- C Eq.(6.66) ensures that some restraint will be provided by the flanges against web shear buckling, and also that the boundary conditions assumed at the web-flange juncture in the web bend-buckling and compression-flange local buckling formulations within these Specifications are sufficiently accurate. The ratio of the web area to the compression flange area is always less than or equal to 5.45 for members that satisfy Eq.(6.65) and Eq.(6.66). Therefore, the AISC (2005) limit of 10 on this ratio is not required.
- C An I-section with a ratio of I_{yc}/I_{yt} outside the limits specified in Eq.(6.67) is more like a tee-section with the shear center located at the intersection of the larger flange and the web. The limits of Eq.(6.67) are similar to the limits specified in previous Specifications, but are easier to apply since they are based on the ratio of I_{yc} to I_{yt} rather than to I_y of the entire steel section. Eq.(6.67) ensures more efficient flange proportions and prevents the use of sections that may be particularly difficult to handle during construction.
- C Also, Eq.(6.67) ensures the validity of the equations for $C_b > 1$ in cases involving moment gradients. Furthermore, these limits tend to prevent the use of extremely monosymmetric sections for which the larger of the yield moments, M_{yc} or M_{yt} may be greater than the plastic moment, M_p . If the flanges are composed of plates of equal thickness, these limits are equivalent to $b_{fc} \geq 0.46 b_{ft}$ and $b_{fc} \leq 2.15 b_{ft}$.
- C The advent of composite design has led to a significant reduction in the size of compression flanges in regions of positive flexure. In addition to satisfying the proportion limits given in this Article, the minimum compression-flange width in these regions for preliminary design should also be established based on the L/b_{fc} guideline suggested in Eq.(D6.7).

6.10.3. Constructibility

6.10.3.1. General

The provisions of Article 2.6.3 shall apply. In addition to providing adequate strength, nominal yielding or reliance on post-buckling resistance shall not be permitted for main load-carrying members during critical stages of construction, except for yielding of the web in hybrid sections. This shall be accomplished by satisfying the requirements of Articles 6.10.3.2 and 6.10.3.3 at each critical construction stage. For sections in positive flexure that are composite in the final condition, but are non-composite during construction, the provisions of Article 6.10.3.4 shall apply. For investigating the constructibility of flexural members, all loads shall be factored as specified in Article 3.4.2. For the calculation of deflections, the load factors shall be taken as 1.0.

Potential uplift at bearings shall be investigated at each critical construction stage.

Webs without bearing stiffeners at locations subjected to concentrated loads not transmitted through a deck or deck system shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.19.

If there are holes in the tension flange at the section under consideration, the tension flange shall also satisfy the requirement specified in Article 6.10.1.8.

Load-resisting bolted connections either in or to flexural members shall be proportioned to prevent slip under the factored loads at each critical construction stage.

The provisions of Article 6.13.2.8 shall apply for investigation of connection slip.

- C If uplift is indicated at any critical stage of construction, temporary load may be placed to prevent lift-off. The magnitude and position of any required temporary load should be provided in the contract documents.
- C Factored forces at high-strength bolted joints offload carrying members are limited to the slip resistance of the connection during each critical construction state to ensure that the correct geometry of the structure is maintained.

6.10.3.2. Flexure

1. Discretely Braced Flanges in Compression

For critical stages of construction, each of the following requirements shall be satisfied. For sections with slender webs, Eq. (6.68) shall not be checked when f_ℓ is equal to zero. For sections with compact or non-compact webs, Eq. (6.70) shall not be checked.

$$f_{bu} + f_\ell \leq \phi_f R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.68)$$

$$f_{bu} + \frac{1}{3}f_\ell \leq \phi_f F_{nc} \quad (6.69)$$

and

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{crw} \quad (6.70)$$

where:

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2.

f_{bu} = flange stress calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.6 (MPa)

f_ℓ = flange lateral bending stress determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.6 (MPa)

- F_{crw} = nominal bend-buckling resistance for webs specified in Article 6.10.1.9 (MPa)
- F_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance of the flange (MPa). F_{nc} shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.8.2. For sections in straight I-girder bridges with compact or non-compact webs, the lateral torsional buckling resistance may be taken as M_{nc} determined as specified in Article 6.17.3.3 divided by S_{xc} . In computing F_{nc} for constructibility, the web load-shedding factor, R_b , shall be taken as 1.0.
- M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- R_h = hybrid factor specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1
- S_{xc} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the compression flange taken as M_{yc}/F_{yc} (mm³).

C For more information see Article 6.20.11 in Appendix D6.

2. Discretely Braced Flanges in Tension

For critical stages of construction, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$f_{bu} + f_{\ell} \leq \phi_f R_h F_{yt} \quad (6.71)$$

C For a discretely braced flange in tension, Eq. (6.71) ensures that the stress in the flange will not exceed the specified minimum yield strength of the flange times the hybrid factor during construction under the combination of the major-axis bending and lateral bending stresses due to the factored loads.

3. Continuously Braced Flanges in Tension or Compression

For critical stages of construction, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f R_h F_{yf} \quad (6.72)$$

For non-composite sections with slender webs, flanges in compression shall also satisfy Eq. (6.70).

C This Article assumes that a continuously braced flange in compression is not subject to local or lateral torsional buckling. Article 6.10.1.6 states the conditions for which a flange may be considered to be continuously braced. By encasing the flange in concrete or by attaching the flange to the concrete deck by shear connectors that satisfy the requirements of Article 6.10.10, one side of the flange is effectively prevented from local buckling, or both sides of the flange must buckle in the direction away from the concrete deck. Therefore, highly restrained boundary conditions are provided in effect at the web-flange juncture. Also, the flange lateral bending deflections, required to obtain a significant reduction in strength associated with flange local buckling, are effectively prevented by the concrete deck. Therefore, neither flanges local nor lateral torsional buckling need to be checked for compression flanges that satisfy the proportioning limits of Article 6.10.2.2 and are continuously braced according to the conditions stated in Article 6.10.1.6

4. Concrete Deck

The longitudinal tensile stress in a composite concrete deck due to the factored loads shall not exceed ϕf_r during critical stages of construction, unless longitudinal reinforcement is provided according to the provisions of Article 6.10.1.7. The concrete

stress shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.1.1.d. f_r shall be taken as the modulus of rupture of the concrete determined as specified in Article 5.4.2.6 and ϕ shall be taken as the appropriate resistance factor for concrete in tension specified in Article 5.5.4.2.1.

- C This Article is intended to address primarily the situation when the concrete deck is placed in a span adjacent to a span where the concrete has already been placed. Negative moment in the adjacent span causes tensile stresses in the previously placed concrete. Also, if long placements are made such that a negative flexure region is included in the first placement, it is possible that the concrete in this region will be stressed in tension during the remainder of the deck placement, which may lead to early cracking of the deck. When the longitudinal tensile stress in the deck exceeds the factored modulus of rupture of the concrete, longitudinal reinforcement is to be provided according to the provisions of Article 6.10.1.7 to control the cracking.
- C Stresses in the concrete deck are to be computed using the short-term modular ratio, n , per Article 6.10.1.1.1.d.

6.10.3.3. Shear

Webs shall satisfy the following requirement during critical stages of construction:

$$V_u \leq \phi_v V_{cr} \quad (6.73)$$

where:

- ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- V_u = shear in the web at the section under consideration due to the factored permanent loads and factored construction loads applied to the noncomposite section (N)
- V_{cr} = shear-buckling resistance determined from Eq. (6.122) (N)

- C The web is to be investigated for the sum of the factored permanent loads and factored construction loads applied to the noncomposite section during construction. The nominal shear resistance for this check is limited to the shear yielding or shear-buckling resistance per Eq. (6.122). The use of tension-field action per Eq. (6.115) is not permitted under these loads during construction. Use of tension-field action is permitted after the deck has hardened or is made composite, if the section along the entire panel is proportioned to satisfy Eq. (6.114).
- C The shear in unstiffened webs is already limited to either the shear-yielding or shear-buckling resistance at the strength limit state according to the provisions of Article 6.10.9.2. The shear in end panels of stiffened webs is also limited to the shear-yielding or shear-buckling resistance at the strength limit state according to the provisions of Article 6.10.9.3.3. Consequently, the requirement in this Article need not be checked for unstiffened webs or the end panels of stiffened webs.

6.10.3.4. Deck Placement

Sections in positive flexure that are composite in the final condition, but are noncomposite during construction, shall be investigated for flexure according to the provisions of Article 6.10.3.2 during the various stages of the deck placement.

Geometric properties, bracing lengths and stresses used in calculating the nominal flexural resistance shall be for the steel section only. Changes in load, stiffness and bracing during the various stages of the deck placement shall be considered.

The effects of forces from deck overhang brackets acting on the fascia girders shall be considered.

- C For more information see Article 6.20.12 in Appendix D6.

6.10.3.5. Dead Load Deflections

The provisions of Article 6.7.2 shall apply, as applicable.

- C If staged construction is specified, the sequence of load application should be recognized in determining the camber and stresses.

6.10.4. Service Limit State

6.10.4.1. Elastic Deformations

The provisions of Article 2.6.2.6 shall apply, as applicable.

- C The provisions of Article 2.6.2.6 contain optional live load deflection criteria and criteria for span-to-depth ratios. In the absence of depth restrictions, the span-to-depth ratios should be used to establish a reasonable minimum web depth for the design.

6.10.4.2. Permanent Deformations

1. General

For the purposes of this Article, the Service II load combination specified in Table 3.1 shall apply.

- C These provisions are intended to apply to the design live load specified in Article 3.6.1.1. If this criterion were to be applied to a design permit load, a reduction in the load factor for live load should be considered.

For members with shear connectors provided throughout their entire length that also satisfy the provisions of Article 6.10.1.7, flexural stresses caused by Service II loads applied to the composite section may be computed using the short-term or long-term composite section, as appropriate, assuming the concrete deck is effective for both positive and negative flexure.

- C Article 6.10.1.7 requires that one percent longitudinal deck reinforcement be placed wherever the tensile stress in the concrete deck due to either factored construction loads or due to Load Combination Service II exceeds the factored modulus of rupture of the concrete. By controlling the crack size in regions where adequate shear connection is also provided, the concrete deck may be considered effective in tension for computing flexural stresses on the composite section due to Load Combination Service II.

2. Flexure

Flanges shall satisfy the following requirements:

- For the top steel flange of composite sections:

$$f_f \leq 0.95R_h F_{yf} \quad (6.74)$$

- For the bottom steel flange of composite sections:

$$f_f + \frac{f_\ell}{2} \leq 0.95R_h F_{yf} \quad (6.75)$$

- For both steel flanges of noncomposite sections:

$$f_f + \frac{f_\ell}{2} \leq 0.80R_h F_{yf} \quad (6.76)$$

where:

f_f = flange stress at the section under consideration due to the Service II loads calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)

- f_t = flange lateral bending stress at the section under consideration due to the Service II loads determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.6 (MPa)
- R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

For continuous span flexural members in straight I-girder bridges that satisfy the requirements of Article 6.18.2, a calculated percentage of the negative moment due to the Service II loads at the pier section under consideration may be redistributed using the procedures of either Article 6.18.3 or 6.18.6.

For compact composite sections in positive flexure utilized in shored construction, the longitudinal compressive stress in the concrete deck due to the Service II loads, determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.1.1.d, shall not exceed $0.6f'_c$.

Except for composite sections in positive flexure in which the web satisfies the requirement of Article 6.10.2.1.1, all sections shall also satisfy the following requirement:

$$f_c \leq F_{crw} \quad (6.77)$$

where:

- f_c = Compression-flange stress at the section under consideration due to the Service II loads calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)
- F_{crw} = nominal bend-buckling resistance for webs with or without longitudinal stiffeners, as applicable, determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.9 (MPa)

C For more information see Article 6.20.13 in Appendix D6.

6.10.5. Fatigue and Fracture Limit State

6.10.5.1. Fatigue

Details shall be investigated for fatigue as specified in Article 6.6.1. The Fatigue load combination specified in Table 3.1 and the fatigue live load specified in Article 3.6.1.4 shall apply.

For horizontally curved I-girder bridges, the fatigue stress range due to major-axis bending plus lateral bending shall be investigated.

- C In horizontally curved I-girder bridges, the base metal adjacent to butt welds and welded attachments on discretely braced flanges subject to a net applied tensile stress must be checked for the fatigue stress range due to major-axis bending, plus flange lateral bending, at the critical transverse location on the flange. Examples of welded attachments for which this requirement applies include transverse stiffeners and gusset plates receiving lateral bracing members. The base metal adjacent to flange-to-web welds need only be checked for the stress range due to major-axis bending since the welds are located near the center of the flange. Flange lateral bending need not be considered for details attached to continuously braced flanges.

The provisions for fatigue in shear connectors specified in Articles 6.10.10.2 and 6.10.10.3 shall apply.

6.10.5.2. Fracture

Fracture toughness requirements specified in the contract documents shall be in conformance with the provisions of Article 6.6.2.

6.10.5.3. Special Fatigue Requirement for Webs

For the purposes of this Article, the factored fatigue load shall be taken as twice that calculated using the Fatigue load combination specified in [Table 3.1](#), with the fatigue live load taken as specified in Article [3.6.1.4](#).

Interior panels of webs with transverse stiffeners, with or without longitudinal stiffeners, shall satisfy the following requirement:

$$V_u \leq V_{cr} \quad (6.78)$$

where:

V_u = shear in the web at the section under consideration due to the unfactored permanent load plus the factored fatigue load (N)

V_{cr} = shear-buckling resistance determined from Eq. [\(6.122\)](#) (N)

- C If Eq. [\(6.78\)](#) is satisfied, significant elastic flexing of the web due to shear is not expected to occur, and the member is assumed able to sustain an infinite number of smaller loadings without fatigue cracking due to this effect.
- C This provision is included here, rather than in Article [6.6](#), because it involves a check of the maximum web shear-buckling stress instead of a check of the stress ranges caused by cyclic loading.
- C The live load stress due to the passage of the specified fatigue live load for this check is that of the heaviest truck expected to cross the bridge in 75 years.
- C The check for bend-buckling of webs given in [AASHTO \(2004\)](#) due to the load combination specified in this Article is not included in these Specifications. For all sections, except for composite sections in positive flexure in which the web satisfies Article [6.10.2.1.1](#), a web bendbuckling check is required under the Service II Load Combination according to the provisions of Article [6.10.4.2.2](#). As discussed further in Article [6.10.1.9.1](#), Web bend-buckling of composite sections in positive flexure is not a concern at any limit state after the section is in its final composite condition for sections with webs that satisfy Article [6.10.2.1.1](#). For all other sections, the web bend-buckling check under the Service II loads will control over a similar check under the load combination specified in this Article. For composite sections in positive flexure with webs that do not satisfy Article [6.10.2.1.1](#), the smaller value of F_{crw} resulting from the larger value of D_e at the fatigue limit state tends to be compensated for by the lower web compressive stress due to the load combination specified in this Article. Web bend-buckling of these sections is also checked under the construction condition according to Eq. [\(6.70\)](#).
- C The shear in unstiffened webs is already limited to either the shear-yielding or shear-buckling resistance at the strength limit state according to the provisions of Article [6.10.9.2](#). The shear in end panels of stiffened webs is also limited to the shear-yielding or shear-buckling resistance at the strength limit state according to the provisions of Article [6.10.9.3.3](#). Consequently, the requirement in this Article need not be checked for unstiffened webs or the end panels of stiffened webs.

6.10.6. Strength Limit State

6.10.6.1. General

For the purposes of this Article, the applicable Strength load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#) shall apply.

- C For more information see Article [6.20.14](#) in Appendix D6.

6.10.6.2. Flexure

1. General

If there are holes in the tension flange at the section under consideration, the tension flange shall satisfy the requirement specified in Article [6.10.1.8](#).

- C The requirement of Article 6.10.1.8 is intended to prevent net section fracture at a cross-section with holes in the tension flange subject to either positive or negative flexure.

2. Composite Sections in Positive Flexure

Composite sections in kinked (chorded) continuous or horizontally curved steel girder bridges shall be considered as non-compact sections and shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.10.7.2.

Composite sections in straight bridges that satisfy the following requirements shall qualify as compact composite sections:

- the specified minimum yield strengths of the flanges do not exceed 485 MPa,
- the web satisfies the requirement of Article 6.10.2.1.1,
- the section satisfies the web slenderness limit:

$$\frac{2D_{cp}}{t_w} \leq 3.76 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.79)$$

where:

D_{cp} = depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.2 (mm)

Compact sections shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.10.7.1. Otherwise, the section shall be considered non-compact and shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.10.7.2.

Compact and non-compact sections shall satisfy the ductility requirement specified in Article 6.10.7.3.

- C For more information see Article 6.20.15 in Appendix D6.

3. Composite Sections in Negative Flexure and Non-composite Sections

Sections in kinked (chorded) continuous or horizontally curved steel girder bridges shall be proportioned according to provisions specified in Article 6.10.8.

Sections in straight bridges for which:

- the specified minimum yield strengths of the flanges do not exceed 485 MPa,
- the web satisfies the non-compact slenderness limit:

$$\frac{2D_c}{t_w} < 5.7 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.80)$$

- the flanges satisfy the following ratio:

$$\frac{I_{yc}}{I_{yt}} \geq 0.3 \quad (6.81)$$

where:

D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.1.

I_{yc} = moment of inertia of the compression flange of the steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm⁴)

I_{yt} = moment of inertia of the tension flange of the steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm⁴)

may be proportioned according to the provisions for compact or non-compact web sections specified in Article 6.17. Otherwise, the section shall be proportioned according to provisions specified in Article 6.10.8.

For continuous span flexural members in straight bridges that satisfy the requirements of Article 6.18.2, a calculated percentage of the negative moments due to the factored loads at the pier section under consideration may be redistributed using the procedures of either Article 6.18.4 or 6.18.6.

C For more information see Article 6.20.16 in Appendix D6.

6.10.6.3. Shear

The provisions of Article 6.10.9 shall apply.

6.10.6.4. Shear Connectors

The provisions of Article 6.10.10.4 shall apply.

6.10.7. Flexural Resistance—Composite Sections in Positive Flexure

6.10.7.1. Compact Sections

1. General

At the strength limit state, the section shall satisfy:

$$M_u + \frac{1}{3} f_\ell S_{xt} \leq \phi_f M_n \quad (6.82)$$

where:

- ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- f_ℓ = flange lateral bending stress determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.6 (MPa)
- M_n = nominal flexural resistance of the section determined as specified in Article 6.10.7.1.2 (N-mm)
- M_u = Bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.6 (N-mm)
- M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- S_{xt} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the tension flange taken as M_{yt}/F_{yt} (mm³)

- C For composite sections in positive flexure, lateral bending does not need to be considered in the compression flange at the strength limit state because the flange is continuously supported by the concrete deck.
- C Eq. (6.82) is an interaction equation that addresses the influence of lateral bending within the tension flange, represented by the elastically computed flange lateral bending stress, f_ℓ , combined with the major-axis bending moment, M_u . This equation is similar to the subsequent Eqs. (6.87) and (6.92), the basis of which is explained in Article 6.10.8.1.2. However, these other equations are expressed in an elastically computed stress format, and the resistance term on their right-hand side is generally equal to $\phi_t R_t F_{yt}$. Eq. (6.82) is expressed in a bending moment format, but alternatively can be

considered in a stress format by dividing both sides of the equation by the elastic section modulus, S_{xt} .

- C The term M_n on the right-hand side of Eq. (6.82) is generally greater than the yield moment capacity, M_{yt} .
- C Therefore, the corresponding resistance, written in the format of an elastically computed stress, is generally greater than F_{yt} . These Specifications use a moment format for all resistance equations which, if written in terms of an elastically computed stress, can potentially assume resistance values greater than the specified minimum yield strength of the steel. In these types of sections, the major axis bending moment is physically a more meaningful quantity than the corresponding elastically computed bending stress.
- C Eq. (6.82) gives a reasonably accurate but conservative representation of the results from an elastic-plastic section analysis in which a fraction of the width from the tips of the tension flange is deducted to accommodate flange lateral bending. The rationale for calculation of S_{xt} , as defined in this Article for use in Eq. (6.82), is discussed in Article 6.17.1.1.

2. Nominal Flexural Resistance

The nominal flexural resistance of the section shall be taken as:

If $D_p \leq 0.1 D_t$, then:

$$M_n = M_p \quad (6.83)$$

Otherwise:

$$M_n = M_p \left(1.07 - 0.7 \frac{D_p}{D_t} \right) \quad (6.84)$$

where:

- D_p = distance from the top of the concrete deck to the neutral axis of the composite section at the plastic moment (mm)
- D_t = total depth of the composite section (mm)
- M_p = plastic moment of the composite section determined as specified in Article 6.19.1 (N-mm)

In a continuous span, the nominal flexural resistance of the section shall satisfy:

$$M_n \leq 1.3 R_h M_y \quad (6.85)$$

where:

- M_n = Nominal flexure resistance determined from Eq. (6.83) or (6.84) as applicable.
- M_y = yield moment determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

unless:

- the span under consideration and all adjacent interior-pier sections satisfy the requirements of Article 6.18.2, and;
- the appropriate value of θ_{RL} from Article 6.18.6.2 exceeds 0.009 radians at all adjacent interior-pier sections,

in which case the nominal flexural resistance of the section is not subject to the limitation of Eq. (6.85).

C For more information see Article [6.20.17](#) in Appendix D6.

6.10.7.2. Noncompact Sections

1. General

At the strength limit state, the compression flange shall satisfy:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{nc} \quad (6.86)$$

where:

- ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)
- f_{bu} = flange stress calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.6](#) (MPa)
- F_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange determined as specified in Article [6.10.7.2.2](#) (MPa)

The tension flange shall satisfy:

$$f_{bu} + \frac{1}{3}f_{\ell} \leq \phi_f F_{nt} \quad (6.87)$$

where:

- f_{ℓ} = flange lateral bending stress determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.6](#) (MPa)
- F_{nt} = nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange determined as specified in Article [6.10.7.2.2](#) (MPa)

For shored construction, the maximum longitudinal compressive stress in the concrete deck at the strength limit state, determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.1.1.d](#), shall not exceed $0.6f'_c$.

- C For noncompact sections, the compression flange must satisfy Eq. [\(6.86\)](#) and the tension flange must satisfy Eq. [\(6.87\)](#) at the strength limit state. The basis for Eq. [\(6.87\)](#) is explained in Article [6.10.8.1.2](#). For composite sections in positive flexure, lateral bending does not need to be considered in the compression flange at the strength limit state because the flange is continuously supported by the concrete deck.
- C For noncompact sections utilized in shored construction, the longitudinal stress in the concrete deck is limited to $0.6f'_c$ to ensure linear behavior of the concrete, which is assumed in the calculation of the steel flange stresses. In unshored construction, the concrete stress near first yielding of either steel flange is typically significantly less than f'_c thereby eliminating the need to check the concrete stress in this case.

2. Nominal Flexural Resistance

The nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange shall be taken as:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.88)$$

where:

- R_b = web load-shedding factor determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.10.2](#).
- R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.10.1](#)

The nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange shall be taken as:

$$F_{nt} = R_h F_{yt} \quad (6.89)$$

- C The nominal flexural resistance of noncompact composite sections in positive flexure is limited to the moment at first yield. Thus, the nominal flexural resistance is expressed simply in terms of the flange stress. For noncompact sections, the elastically computed stress in each flange due to the factored loads, determined in accordance with Article [6.10.1.1.1.a](#), is compared with the yield stress of the flange times the appropriate flange strength reduction factors.

6.10.7.3. Ductility Requirement

Compact and non-compact sections shall satisfy:

$$D_p \leq 0.42 D_t \quad (6.90)$$

where:

D_p = distance from the top of the concrete deck to the neutral axis of the composite section at the plastic moment (mm)

D_t = total depth of the composite section (mm)

- C The ductility requirement specified in this Article is intended to protect the concrete deck from premature crushing. The limit of $D_p < 5D'$ in [AASHTO \(2004\)](#) corresponds to $D_p/D_t < 0.5$ for $\beta = 0.75$. The D_p/D_t ratio is lowered to 0.42 in Eq. [\(6.90\)](#) to ensure significant yielding of the bottom flange when the crushing strain is reached at the top of concrete deck for all potential cases. In checking this requirement, D_t should be computed using a lower bound estimate of the actual thickness of the concrete haunch, or may be determined conservatively by neglecting the thickness of the haunch.

6.10.8. Flexural Resistance—Composite Sections in Negative Flexure and Non-composite Sections

6.10.8.1. General

1. Discretely Braced Flanges in Compression

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$f_{bu} + \frac{1}{3}f_t \leq \phi_f F_{nc} \quad (6.91)$$

where:

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

f_{bu} = flange stress calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.6](#) (MPa)

f_t = flange lateral bending stress determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.6](#) (MPa)

F_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance of the flange determined as specified in Article [6.10.8.2](#) (MPa)

- C Eq. [\(6.91\)](#) addresses the resistance of the compression flange by considering this element as an equivalent beam-column.
- C This equation is effectively a beam-column interaction equation, expressed in terms of the flange stresses computed from elastic analysis ([White and Grubb, 2004](#)). The f_{bu} term is analogous to the axial load and the f_t term is analogous to the bending moment within the equivalent beam-column member. The factor of 1/3 in front of the f_t term in Eq. [\(6.91\)](#) gives an accurate linear approximation of the equivalent beam-column resistance within the limits on f_t specified in Article [6.10.1.6](#) ([White and Grubb, 2005](#)).

- C Eq. (6.91), (6.92) and (6.93) are developed specifically for checking of slender-web noncomposite sections and slender-web composite sections in negative flexure. These equations may be used as a simple conservative resistance check for other types of composite sections in negative flexure and noncomposite sections.
- C The provisions specified in Article 6.17 may be used for composite sections in negative flexure and for noncomposite sections with compact or noncompact webs in straight bridges for which the specified minimum yield strengths of the flanges and web do not exceed 485MPa and for which the flanges satisfy Eq. (6.81). The Engineer should give consideration to utilizing the provisions of Article 6.17 for such sections in straight bridges with compact webs; however, Article 6.17 provides only minor increases in the nominal resistance for sections in which the web slenderness approaches the noncompact web limit of Eq. (6.80).

2. Discretely Braced Flanges in Tension

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$f_{bu} + \frac{1}{3}f_{\ell} \leq \phi_f F_{nt} \quad (6.92)$$

where:

F_{nt} = nominal flexural resistance of the flange determined as specified in Article 6.10.8.3 (MPa)

- C Eq. (6.91) is an accurate approximation of the full plastic strength of a rectangular flange cross-section subjected to combined vertical and lateral bending within the limit of Eq. (6.44), originally proposed by Hall and Yoo (1996).

3. Continuously Braced Flanges in Tension or Compression

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f R_h F_{yf} \quad (6.93)$$

6.10.8.2. Compression-Flange Flexural Resistance

1. General

The nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange shall be taken as the smallest of the local buckling resistance determined as specified in Article 6.10.8.2.2, and the lateral torsional buckling resistance determined as specified in Article 6.10.8.2.3.

- C For more information see Article 6.20.18 in Appendix D6.

2. Local Buckling Resistance

The local buckling resistance of the compression flange shall be taken as:

- If $\lambda_f \leq \lambda_{pf}$, then:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.94)$$

- Otherwise:

$$F_{nc} = \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{F_{yr}}{R_h F_{yc}} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda_f - \lambda_{pf}}{\lambda_{rf} - \lambda_{pf}} \right) \right] R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.95)$$

in which:

λ_f = slenderness ratio for the compression flange

$$\lambda_f = \frac{b_{fc}}{2t_{fc}} \quad (6.96)$$

λ_{pf} = limiting slenderness ratio for a compact flange

$$\lambda_{pf} = 0.38 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.97)$$

λ_{rf} = limiting slenderness ratio for a non-compact flange

$$\lambda_{rf} = 0.56 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yr}}} \quad (6.98)$$

where:

F_{yr} = compression-flange stress at the onset of nominal yielding within the cross-section, including residual stress effects, but not including compression-flange lateral bending, taken as the smaller of $0.7F_{yc}$ and F_{yw} , but not less than $0.5F_{yc}$

R_b = web load-shedding factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.2.

R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

- C Eq. (6.97) defines the slenderness limit for a compact flange whereas Eq. (6.98) gives the slenderness limit for a noncompact flange. The nominal flexural resistance of a section with a compact flange is independent of the flange slenderness, whereas the flexural resistance of a section with a noncompact flange is expressed as a linear function of the flange slenderness as illustrated in Figure 6.12. The compact flange slenderness limit is the same as specified in AISC (2005) and in AASHTO (1996, 2004). For different grades of steel, this slenderness limit is as follows:

Table 6.13: Limiting Slenderness Ratio for a Compact Flange.

$F_{yc}(\text{MPa})$	λ_{pr}
250	10.8
345	9.2
485	7.7
620	6.8
690	6.5

- C Eq. (6.98) is based conservatively on the more general limit given by Eq. (A6.22), but with a flange local buckling coefficient of $k_c = 0.35$. With the exception of hybrid sections with $F_{yw} < 0.7F_{yc}$ the term F_{yr} in Eq. (6.98) is always equal to $0.7F_{yc}$.

3. Lateral Torsional Buckling Resistance

For unbraced lengths in which the member is prismatic, the lateral torsional buckling resistance of the compression flange shall be taken as:

- If $L_b \leq L_p$, then:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.99)$$

- If $L_p \leq L_b \leq L_r$, then:

$$F_{nc} = C_b \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{F_{yr}}{R_h F_{yc}} \right) \left(\frac{L_b - L_p}{L_r - L_p} \right) \right] R_b R_h F_{yc} \leq R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.100)$$

- If $L_b > L_r$, then:

$$F_{nc} = F_{cr} \leq R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.101)$$

in which:

L_b = unbraced length (mm)

L_p = limiting unbraced length to achieve the nominal flexural resistance of $R_b R_h F_{yc}$ under uniform bending (mm)

$$L_p = 1.0 r_t \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.102)$$

L_r = limiting unbraced length to achieve the onset of nominal yielding in either flange under uniform bending with consideration of compression flange residual stress effects (mm)

$$L_r = \pi r_t \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yr}}} \quad (6.103)$$

C_b = moment gradient modifier. In lieu of an alternative rational analysis, C_b may be calculated as follows:

- For unbraced cantilevers and for members where $f_{mid}/f_2 > 1$ or $f_2 = 0$

$$C_b = 1.0 \quad (6.104)$$

- For all other cases:

$$C_b = 1.75 - 1.05 \left(\frac{f_1}{f_2} \right) + 0.3 \left(\frac{f_1}{f_2} \right)^2 \leq 2.3 \quad (6.105)$$

F_{cr} = elastic lateral torsional buckling stress (MPa)

$$F_{cr} = \frac{C_b R_b \pi^2 E}{(L_b / r_t)^2} \quad (6.106)$$

r_t = effective radius of gyration for lateral torsional buckling (mm)

$$r_t = \frac{b_{fc}}{\sqrt{12 \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{D_c t_w}{b_{fc} t_{fc}} \right)}} \quad (6.107)$$

where:

F_{yr} = compression-flange stress at the onset of nominal yielding within the cross-section, including residual stress effects, but not including compression-flange lateral bending, taken as the smaller of $0.7F_{yc}$ and F_{yws} , but not less than $0.5F_{yc}$

D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article [6.19.4.1](#).

f_{mid} = stress without consideration of lateral bending at the middle of the unbraced length of the flange under consideration, calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression (MPa). F_{mid} shall be due to the factored loads and shall be taken as positive in compression and negative in tension.

f_0 = stress without consideration of lateral bending at the brace point opposite to the one corresponding to f_2 , calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point in the flange under consideration, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression (MPa). f_0 shall be due to the factored loads and shall be taken as positive in compression and negative in tension.

f_1 = stress without consideration of lateral bending at the brace point opposite to the one corresponding to f_2 , calculated as the intercept of the most critical assumed linear stress variation passing through f_2 and either f_{mid} or f_0 , whichever produces the smaller value of C_b (MPa). f_1 may be determined as follows:

- When the variation in the moment along the entire length between the brace points is concave in shape:

$$f_1 = f_0 \quad (6.108)$$

- Otherwise:

$$f_1 = 2f_{mid} - f_2 \geq f_0 \quad (6.109)$$

f_2 = except as noted below, largest compressive stress without consideration of lateral bending at either end of the unbraced length of the flange under consideration, calculated from the critical moment envelope value (MPa). f_2 shall be due to the factored loads and shall be taken as positive. If the stress is zero or tensile in the flange under consideration at both ends of the unbraced length, f_2 shall be taken as zero.

R_b = web load-shedding factor determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.10.2](#)

R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.10.1](#)

For unbraced lengths where the member consists of noncomposite monosymmetric sections and is subject to reverse curvature bending, the lateral torsional buckling resistance shall be checked for both flanges, unless the top flange is considered to be continuously braced.

For unbraced lengths in which the member is nonprismatic, the lateral torsional buckling resistance of the compression flange F_{nc} at each section within the unbraced length may be taken as the smallest resistance within the unbraced length under consideration determined from Eq. [\(6.99\)](#), [\(6.100\)](#), or [\(6.101\)](#), as applicable, assuming the unbraced length is prismatic. The moment gradient modifier, C_b , shall be taken equal to 1.0 in this case and L_b shall not be modified by an effective length factor.

For unbraced lengths containing a transition to a smaller section at a distance less than or equal to 20 percent of the unbraced length from the brace point with the smaller moment, the lateral torsional buckling resistance may be determined assuming the transition to the smaller section does not exist provided the lateral moment of inertia of the flange or flanges of the smaller section is equal to or larger than one-half the corresponding value in the larger section.

C For more information see Article [6.20.19](#) in Appendix D6.

6.10.8.3. Tension-Flange Flexural Resistance

The nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange shall be taken as:

$$F_{nt} = R_h F_{yt} \quad (6.110)$$

where:

R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

6.10.9. Shear Resistance

6.10.9.1. General

At the strength limit state, straight and curved web panels shall satisfy:

$$V_u \leq \phi_v V_n \quad (6.111)$$

where:

ϕ = resistance factor for shear specified in Article 6.5.4.2

V_n = nominal shear resistance determined as specified in Articles 6.10.9.2 and 6.10.9.3 for unstiffened and stiffened webs, respectively (N)

V_u = shear in the web at the section under consideration due to the factored loads (N)

Transverse intermediate stiffeners shall be designed as specified in Article 6.10.11.1. Longitudinal stiffeners shall be designed as specified in Article 6.10.11.3.

Interior web panels of nonhybrid and hybrid I-shaped members:

- Without a longitudinal stiffener and with a transverse stiffener spacing not exceeding $3D$, or
- With one or more longitudinal stiffeners and with a transverse stiffener spacing not exceeding $1.5D$.

shall be considered stiffened, and the provisions of Article 6.10.9.3 shall apply. Otherwise, the panel shall be considered unstiffened, and the provisions of Article 6.10.9.2 shall apply.

For stiffened webs, provisions for end panels shall be as specified in Article 6.10.9.3.3.

C For more information see Article 6.20.20 in Appendix D6.

6.10.9.2. Nominal Resistance of Unstiffened Webs

The nominal shear resistance of unstiffened webs shall be taken as:

$$V_n = V_{cr} = C V_p \quad (6.112)$$

in which:

$$V_p = 0.85 F_{yw} D t_w \quad (6.113)$$

where:

C = ratio of the shear-buckling resistance to the shear yield strength determined by Eqs. 6.117, 6.118 or 6.119 as applicable, with the shear-buckling coefficient, k , taken equal to 5.0

V_{cr} = shear-buckling resistance (N)

V_n = nominal shear resistance (N)

V_p = plastic shear force (N)

- C The consideration of tension-field action (Basler, 1961) is not permitted for unstiffened web panels. The elastic shear-yielding or shear-buckling resistance is calculated as the product of the constant C specified in Article 6.10.9.3.2 times the plastic shear force, V_p , given by Eq. (6.113). The plastic shear force is equal to the web area times the assumed shear yield strength of $F_{yw}/\sqrt{3}$. The shear-buckling coefficient, k , to be used in calculating the constant C is defined as 5.0 for unstiffened web panels, which is a conservative approximation of the exact value of 5.35 for an infinitely long strip with simply-supported edges (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961).

6.10.9.3. Nominal Resistance of Stiffened Webs

1. General

The nominal shear resistance of transversely or transversely and longitudinally-stiffened interior web panels shall be as specified in Articles 6.10.9.3.2. The nominal shear resistance of transversely or transversely and longitudinally-stiffened end web panels shall be as specified in Articles 6.10.9.3.2. The total web depth, D , shall be used in determining the nominal shear resistance of web panels with longitudinal stiffeners. The required transverse stiffener spacing shall be calculated using the maximum shear in a panel.

- C Longitudinal stiffeners divide a web panel into sub-panels. In Cooper (1967), the shear resistance of the entire panel is taken as the sum of the shear resistance of the sub-panels. However, the contribution to the shear resistance of a single longitudinal stiffener located at its optimum position for flexure is relatively small. Thus, it is conservatively specified that the influence of the longitudinal stiffener be neglected in computing the nominal shear resistance of the web plate.

Stiffeners shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 6.10.11.

2. Interior Panels

The nominal shear resistance of an interior web panel complying with the provisions of Article 6.10.9.1, and with the section along the entire panel proportioned such that:

$$\frac{2D t_w}{(b_{fc} t_{fc} + b_{ft} t_{ft})} \leq 2.5 \quad (6.114)$$

shall be taken as:

$$V_n = V_p \left[C + \frac{0.87(1-C)}{\sqrt{1+(d_o/D)^2}} \right] \quad (6.115)$$

in which:

$$V_p = 0.58 F_{yw} D t_w \quad (6.116)$$

where:

d_o = transverse stiffener spacing (mm)

V_n = nominal shear resistance of the web panel (N)

V_p = plastic shear force (N)

C = ratio of the shear-buckling resistance to the shear yield strength

The ratio, C , shall be determined as specified below:

- If $\frac{D}{t_w} \leq 1.12 \sqrt{\frac{Ek}{F_{yw}}}$, then:

$$C = 1.0 \quad (6.117)$$

- If $1.12 \sqrt{\frac{Ek}{F_{yw}}} < \frac{D}{t_w} \leq 1.40 \sqrt{\frac{Ek}{F_{yw}}}$, then:

$$C = \frac{1.12}{D/t_w} \sqrt{\frac{Ek}{F_{yw}}} \quad (6.118)$$

- If $\frac{D}{t_w} > 1.40 \sqrt{\frac{Ek}{F_{yw}}}$, then:

$$C = \frac{1.57}{(D/t_w)^2} \left(\frac{Ek}{F_{yw}} \right) \quad (6.119)$$

in which:

k = shear-buckling coefficient

$$k = 5 + \frac{5}{(d_o/D)^2} \quad (6.120)$$

Otherwise, the nominal shear resistance shall be taken as follows:

$$V_n = V_p \left[C + \frac{0.87(1-C)}{\left(\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{d_o}{D} \right)^2} + \frac{d_o}{D} \right)} \right] \quad (6.121)$$

C For more information see Article [6.20.21](#) in Appendix D6.

3. End Panels

The nominal shear resistance of a web end panel shall be taken as:

$$V_n = V_{cr} = CV_p \quad (6.122)$$

in which:

$$V_p = 0.58 F_{yw} D_{tw} \quad (6.123)$$

where:

C = ratio of the shear-buckling resistance to the shear yield strength determined by Eqs. [6.117](#), [6.118](#) or [6.119](#) as applicable

V_{cr} = shear-buckling resistance (N)

V_p = plastic shear force (N)

The transverse stiffener spacing for end panels with or without longitudinal stiffeners shall not exceed $1.5D$.

- C The shear in end panels adjacent to simple supports is limited to either the shear-yielding or shear-buckling resistance given by Eq. (6.122) in order to provide an anchor for the tension field in adjacent interior panels. The shearbuckling coefficient, k , to be used in determining the constant C in Eq. (6.122) is to be calculated based on the spacing from the support to the first stiffener adjacent to the support, which may not exceed $1.5D$.

6.10.10. Shear Connectors

6.10.10.1. General

In composite sections, stud or channel shear connectors shall be provided at the interface between the concrete deck and the steel section to resist the interface shear.

Simple span composite bridges shall be provided with shear connectors throughout the length of the span.

Straight continuous composite bridges should normally be provided with shear connectors throughout the length of the bridge. In the negative flexure regions, shear connectors shall be provided where the longitudinal reinforcement is considered to be a part of the composite section. Otherwise, shear connectors need not be provided in negative flexure regions, but additional connectors shall be placed in the region of the points of permanent load contra flexure as specified in Article 6.10.10.3.

- C Shear connectors help control cracking in regions of negative flexure where the deck is subject to tensile stress and has longitudinal reinforcement.

Where shear connectors are omitted in negative flexure regions, the longitudinal reinforcement shall be extended into the positive flexure region as specified in Article 6.10.1.7.

Curved continuous composite bridges shall be provided with shear connectors throughout the length of the bridge.

- C Shear connectors are to be provided in regions of negative flexure in curved continuous bridges because torsional shear exists and is developed in the full composite section along the entire bridge. For bridges containing one or more curved segments, the effects of curvature usually extend beyond the curved segment.
- C Therefore, it is conservatively specified that shear connectors be provided along the entire length of the bridge in this case as well.

1. Types

Stud and channel shear connectors shall be designed by the provisions of this Article.

Shear connectors should be of a type that permits a thorough compaction of the concrete to ensure that their entire surfaces are in contact with the concrete. The connectors shall be capable of resisting both horizontal and vertical movement between the concrete and the steel.

The ratio of the height to the diameter of a stud shear connector shall not be less than 4.0.

Channel shear connectors shall have fillet welds not smaller than 5 mm placed along the heel and toe of the channel.

2. Pitch

The pitch of the shear connectors shall be determined to satisfy the fatigue limit state, as specified in Article 6.10.10.2 and 6.10.10.3. The resulting number of shear connectors shall not be less than the number required to satisfy the strength limit state as specified in Article 6.10.10.4.

The pitch, p , of shear connectors shall satisfy:

$$p \leq nZ_r / V_{sr} \quad (6.124)$$

in which:

V_{sr} = horizontal fatigue shear range per unit length (N/mm)

$$V_{sr} = \sqrt{(V_{fat})^2 + (F_{fat})^2} \quad (6.125)$$

V_{fat} = longitudinal fatigue shear range per unit length (N/mm)

$$V_{fat} = \frac{V_f Q}{I} \quad (6.126)$$

F_{fat} = radial fatigue shear range per unit length (N/mm) taken as the larger of either:

$$F_{fat1} = \frac{A_{bot} \sigma_{flg} \ell}{wR} \quad (6.127)$$

or:

$$F_{fat2} = F_{rc} / w \quad (6.128)$$

where:

σ_{flg} = range of longitudinal fatigue stress in the bottom flange without consideration of flange lateral bending (MPa)

A_{bot} = area of the bottom flange (mm²)

F_{rc} = net range of cross-frame or diaphragm force at the top flange (N)

I = moment of inertia of the short-term composite section (mm⁴)

ℓ = distance between brace points (mm)

n = number of shear connectors in a cross-section

P = pitch of shear connectors along the longitudinal axis (mm)

Q = first moment of the transformed short-term area of the concrete deck about the neutral axis of the short-term composite section (mm³)

R = minimum girder radius within the panel (mm)

V_f = vertical shear force range under the fatigue load combination specified in Table 3.1 with the fatigue live load taken as specified in Article 3.6.1.4 (N)

w = effective length of deck (mm) taken as 1220 mm, except at end supports where w may be taken as 610 mm

Z_r = shear fatigue resistance of an individual shear connector determined as specified in Article 6.10.10.2 (N)

For straight spans or segments, the radial fatigue shear range from Eq. (6.127) may be taken equal to zero. For straight or horizontally curved bridges with skews not exceeding 20°, the radial fatigue shear range from Eq. (6.128) may be taken equal to zero.

The center-to-center pitch of shear connectors shall not exceed 600 mm and shall not be less than six stud diameters.

C For more information see Article 6.20.22 in Appendix D6.

3. Transverse Spacing

Shear connectors shall be placed transversely across the top flange of the steel section and may be spaced at regular or variable intervals.

Stud shear connectors shall not be closer than 4.0 stud diameters center-to-center transverse to the longitudinal axis of the supporting member.

The clear distance between the edge of the top flange and the edge of the nearest shear connector shall not be less than 25 mm.

4. Cover and Penetration

The clear depth of concrete cover over the tops of the shear connectors should not be less than 50 mm. Shear connectors should penetrate at least 50 mm into the concrete deck.

C Stud shear connectors should penetrate through the haunch between the bottom of the deck and the top flange, if present, and into the deck. Otherwise, the haunch should be reinforced to contain the stud connector and develop its load in the deck.

6.10.10.2. Fatigue Resistance

The fatigue shear resistance of an individual stud shear connector, Z_r , shall be taken as:

$$Z_r = \alpha d^2 \geq \frac{38.0 d^2}{2} \quad (6.129)$$

in which:

$$\alpha = 238 - 29.5 \log N \quad (6.130)$$

where:

d = diameter of the stud (mm)

N = number of cycles specified in Article 6.6.1.2.5

The pitch shall be determined from Eq. (6.124) using the value of Z_r and the shear force range V_{sr} .

The effect of the shear connector on the fatigue resistance of the flange shall be investigated using the provisions of Article 6.6.1.2.

C For the development of this information, see Slutter and Fisher (1966).

6.10.10.3. Special Requirements for Points of Permanent Load Contra-flexure

For members that are non-composite for negative flexure in the final condition, additional shear connectors shall be provided in the region of points of permanent load contra-flexure.

The number of additional connectors, n_{ac} , shall be taken as:

$$n_{ac} = \frac{A_s f_{sr}}{Z_r} \quad (6.131)$$

where:

- A_s = total area of longitudinal reinforcement over the interior support within the effective concrete deck width (mm²)
- f_{sr} = stress range in the longitudinal reinforcement over the interior support under the Fatigue load combination specified in [Table 3.1](#) with the fatigue live load taken as specified in Article [3.6.1.4](#) (MPa)
- Z_r = fatigue shear resistance of an individual shear connector determined as specified in Article [6.10.10.2](#) (N)

The additional shear connectors shall be placed within a distance equal to one-third of the effective concrete deck width on each side of the point of permanent load contra-flexure. Field splices should be placed so as not to interfere with the shear connectors.

- C The purpose of the additional connectors is to develop the reinforcing bars used as part of the negative flexural composite section.

6.10.10.4. Strength Limit State

1. General

The factored shear resistance of a single shear connector, Q_r , at the strength limit state shall be taken as:

$$Q_r = \phi_{sc} Q_n \quad (6.132)$$

where:

- Q_n = nominal shear resistance of a single shear connector determined as specified in Article [6.10.10.4.3](#) (N)
- ϕ_{sc} = resistance factor for shear connectors specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

At the strength limit state, the minimum number of shear connectors, n , over the region under consideration shall be taken as:

$$n = \frac{P}{Q_r} \quad (6.133)$$

where:

- P = total nominal shear force determined as specified in Article [6.10.10.4.2](#) (N)
- Q_r = factored shear resistance of one shear connector determined from Eq. [\(6.132\)](#) (N)

2. Nominal Shear Force

For simple spans and for continuous spans that are non-composite for negative flexure in the final condition, the total nominal shear force, P , between the point of

maximum positive design live load plus impact moment and each adjacent point of zero moment shall be taken as:

$$P = \sqrt{P_p^2 + F_p^2} \quad (6.134)$$

in which:

P_p = total longitudinal shear force in the concrete deck at the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment (N) taken as the lesser of either:

$$P_{Ip} = 0.85 f'_c b_s t_s \quad (6.135)$$

or

$$P_{2p} = F_{yw} D t_w + F_{yt} b_{ft} t_{ft} + F_{yc} b_{fc} t_{fc} \quad (6.136)$$

in which:

F_p = total radial shear force in the concrete deck at the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment (N) taken as:

$$F_p = P_p \frac{L_p}{R} \quad (6.137)$$

where:

b_s = effective width of the concrete deck (mm)

L_p = arc length between an end of the girder and an adjacent point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment (mm)

R = minimum girder radius over the length, L_p (mm)

t_s = thickness of the concrete deck (mm)

For straight spans or segments, F_p may be taken equal to zero.

For continuous spans that are composite for negative flexure in the final condition, the total nominal shear force, P , between the point of maximum positive design live load plus impact moment and an adjacent end of the member shall be determined from Eq. (6.134). The total nominal shear force, P , between the point of maximum positive design live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support shall be taken as:

$$P = \sqrt{P_T^2 + F_T^2} \quad (6.138)$$

in which:

P_T = total longitudinal shear force in the concrete deck between the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support (N) taken as:

$$P_T = P_p + P_n \quad (6.139)$$

P_n = total longitudinal shear force in the concrete deck over an interior support (N) taken as the lesser of either:

$$P_{In} = F_{yw} D t_w + F_{yt} b_{ft} t_{ft} + F_{yc} b_{fc} t_{fc} \quad (6.140)$$

or

$$P_{2n} = 0.45 f'_c b_s t_s \quad (6.141)$$

F_T = total radial shear force in the concrete deck between the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support (N) taken as:

$$F_T = P_T \frac{L_n}{R} \quad (6.142)$$

where:

- L_n = arc length between the point of maximum positive live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support (mm)
- R = minimum girder radius over the length, L_n (mm)

For straight spans or segments, F_T may be taken equal to zero.

C For more information see Article [6.20.23](#) in Appendix D6.

3. Nominal Shear Resistance

The nominal shear resistance of one stud shear connector embedded in a concrete deck shall be taken as:

$$Q_n = 0.5 A_{sc} \sqrt{f'_c E_c} \leq A_{sc} F_u \quad (6.143)$$

where:

- A_{sc} = cross-sectional area of a stud shear connector (mm^2)
- E_c = modulus of elasticity of the deck concrete determined as specified in Article [5.4.2.4](#) (MPa)
- F_u = specified minimum tensile strength of a stud shear connector determined as specified in Article [6.4.4](#) (MPa)

The nominal shear resistance of one channel shear connector embedded in a concrete deck shall be taken as:

$$Q_n = 0.3(t_f + 0.5t_w)L_c \sqrt{f'_c E_c} \quad (6.144)$$

where:

- t_f = flange thickness of channel shear connector (mm)
- t_w = web thickness of channel shear connector (mm)
- L_c = length of channel shear connector (mm)

C Studies have defined stud shear connector strength as a function of both the concrete modulus of elasticity and concrete strength (Ollgaard et al., 1971). Note that an upper bound on stud shear strength is the product of the cross-sectional area of the stud times its ultimate tensile strength. Eq. [\(6.144\)](#) is a modified form of the formula for the resistance of channel shear connectors developed in Slutter and Driscoll (1965) that extended its use to low-density as well as normal-density concrete.

6.10.11. Stiffeners

6.10.11.1. Transverse Stiffeners

1. General

Transverse stiffeners shall consist of plates or angles welded or bolted to either one or both sides of the web. Stiffeners in straight girders not used as connection plates shall be tight fit at the compression flange, but need not be in bearing with the tension flange. Single-sided stiffeners on horizontally curved girders should be attached to both flanges. When pairs of transverse stiffeners are used on horizontally curved girders, they shall be fitted tightly to both flanges.

- C When single-sided transverse stiffeners are used on horizontally curved girders, they should be attached to both flanges to help retain the cross-sectional configuration of the girder when subjected to torsion and to avoid high localized bending within the web. This is particularly important at the top flange due to the torsional restraint from the slab. The fitting of pairs of transverse stiffeners against the flanges is required for the same reason.

Stiffeners used as connecting plates for diaphragms or cross-frames shall be attached to both flanges.

The distance between the end of the web-to-stiffener weld and the near edge of the adjacent web-to-flange or longitudinal stiffener-to-web weld shall not be less than $4t_w$, but shall not exceed the lesser of $6t_w$ and 100 mm.

- C The minimum distance between the end of the web-to-stiffener weld to the adjacent web-to-flange or longitudinal stiffener-to-web weld is specified to relieve flexing of the unsupported segment of the web to avoid fatigue-induced cracking of the stiffener-to-web welds, and to avoid inadvertent intersecting welds. The $6t_w$ -criterion for maximum distance is specified to avoid vertical buckling of the unsupported web. The 100-mm criterion was arbitrarily selected to avoid a very large unsupported length where the web thickness has been selected for reasons other than stability, e.g., webs of bascule girders at trunions.

2. Projecting Width

The width, b_t , of each projecting stiffener element shall satisfy:

$$b_t \geq 50 + \frac{D}{30} \quad (6.145)$$

and

$$16t_b \geq b_t \geq b_f/4 \quad (6.146)$$

where:

b_f = for I-sections, full width of the widest compression flange within the field section under consideration; for tub sections, full width of the widest top flange within the field section under consideration; for closed box sections, the limit of $b_f/4$ does not apply (mm)

t_p = thickness of the projecting stiffener element (mm)

- C Eq.(6.145) is taken from Ketchum (1920). This equation tends to govern relative to Eq.(6.146) in I-girders with large D/b_f .

- C The full width of the widest compression flange within the field section under consideration is used for b_f in Eq.(6.146) to ensure a minimum stiffener width that will help restrain the widest compression flange. This requirement also conveniently allows for the use of the same minimum stiffener width throughout the entire field section, if desired. The widest top flange is used in Eq.(6.146) for tub sections since the bottom flange is restrained by a web along both of its edges. The limit of $b_f/4$ does not apply for closed box sections for the same reason.

3. Moment of Inertia

For transverse stiffeners adjacent to web panels in which neither panel supports shear forces larger than the shear buckling resistance, the moment of inertia of the transverse stiffener shall satisfy the smaller of the following limits:

$$I_t \geq b t_w^3 J \quad (6.147)$$

$$I_t \geq \frac{D^4 \rho_t^{1.3}}{40} \left(\frac{F_{yw}}{E} \right)^{1.5} \quad (6.148)$$

where:

- I_t = moment of inertia of the transverse stiffener taken about the edge in contact with the web for single stiffeners and about the mid-thickness of the web for stiffener pairs (mm^4)
- b = the smaller of d_o and D (mm)
- d_o = the smaller of the adjacent web panel widths (mm)
- J = stiffener bending rigidity parameter

$$J = \frac{2.5}{(d_o / D)^2} - 2.0 \geq 0.5 \quad (6.149)$$

where:

- ρ_t = the larger of F_{yw}/F_{crs} and 1.0
- F_{crs} = local buckling stress for the stiffener (MPa)

$$= \frac{0.31E}{\left(\frac{b_t}{t_p} \right)^2} \leq F_{ys} \quad (6.150)$$

where:

- F_{ys} = specified minimum yield strength of the stiffener (MPa)

For transverse stiffeners adjacent to web panels in which the shear force is larger than the shear buckling resistance and thus the web post-buckling or tension-field resistance is required in one or both panels, the moment of inertia of the transverse stiffeners shall satisfy Eq. (6.148).

Transverse stiffeners used in web panels with longitudinal stiffeners shall also satisfy:

$$I_t = \left(\frac{b_t}{b_\ell} \right) \left(\frac{D}{3.0d_o} \right) I_\ell \quad (6.151)$$

where:

- b_t = projecting width of the transverse stiffener (mm)
- b_ℓ = projecting width of the longitudinal stiffener (mm)
- I_ℓ = moment of inertia of the longitudinal stiffener determined as specified in Article 6.10.11.3.3 (mm^4)

C For more information see Article 6.20.22 in Appendix D6.

6.10.11.2. Bearing Stiffeners

1. General

Bearing stiffeners shall be placed on the webs of built-up sections at all bearing locations. At bearing locations on rolled shapes and at other locations on built-up sections or rolled shapes subjected to concentrated loads, where the loads are not transmitted through a deck or deck system, either bearing stiffeners shall be provided or the web shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.19.

- C Webs of built-up sections and rolled shapes without bearing stiffeners at the indicated locations must be investigated for the limit states of web local yielding and web crippling according to the procedures specified in Article 6.19. The section should either be modified to comply with these requirements or else bearing stiffeners designed according to these Specifications should be placed on the web at the location under consideration.
- C In particular, inadequate provisions to resist temporary concentrated loads during construction that are not transmitted through a deck or deck system can result in failures. The Engineer should be especially cognizant of this issue when girders are incrementally launched over supports.

Bearing stiffeners shall consist of one or more plates or angles welded or bolted to both sides of the web. The connections to the web shall be designed to transmit the full bearing force due to the factored loads.

The stiffeners shall extend the full depth of the web and as closely as practical to the outer edges of the flanges.

Each stiffener shall be either milled to bear against the flange through which it receives its load or attached to that flange by a full penetration groove weld.

2. Projecting Width

- C The provision specified in this Article is intended to prevent local buckling of the bearing stiffener plates.

The width, b_t , of each projecting stiffener element shall satisfy:

$$b_t \leq 0.48 t_p \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{ys}}} \quad (6.152)$$

where:

F_{ys} = specified minimum yield strength of the stiffener (MPa)

t_p = thickness of the projecting stiffener element (mm)

3. Bearing Resistance

The factored bearing resistance for the fitted ends of bearing stiffeners shall be taken as:

$$(R_{sb})_r = \phi_b (R_{sb})_n \quad (6.153)$$

in which:

$(R_{sb})_n$ = nominal bearing resistance for the fitted ends of bearing stiffeners (N)

$$= 1.4 A_{pn} F_{ys} \quad (6.154)$$

where:

- ϕ_b = resistance factor for bearing specified in Article 6.5.4.2
 A_{pn} = area of the projecting elements of the stiffener outside of the web-to-flange fillet welds but not beyond the edge of the flange (mm²)
 F_{ys} = specified minimum yield strength of the stiffener (MPa)

- C To bring bearing stiffener plates tight against the flanges, part of the stiffener must be clipped to clear the web-to-flange fillet weld. Thus, the area of direct bearing is less than the gross area of the stiffener. The bearing resistance is based on this bearing area and the yield strength of the stiffener.
 C The specified factored bearing resistance is approximately equivalent to the bearing strength given in AISC (2005). The nominal bearing resistance given by Eq. (6.154) is reduced from the nominal bearing resistance of $1.8 A_{pn}F_{ys}$ specified in AISC (2005) to reflect the relative difference in the resistance factors for bearing given in the AISC and AASHTO LRFD Specifications.

4. Axial Resistance of Bearing Stiffeners

a. General

The factored axial resistance, P_r , shall be determined as specified in Article 6.9.2.1 using the specified minimum yield strength of the stiffener plates F_{ys} . The radius of gyration shall be computed about the mid-thickness of the web and the effective length shall be taken as $0.75D$, where D is the web depth.

- C The end restraint against column buckling provided by the flanges allows for the use of a reduced effective length.
 C The specified minimum yield strength of the stiffener plates, F_{ys} is to be used in the calculation of the axial resistance to account for the early yielding of the lower strength stiffener plates.

b. Effective Section

For stiffeners bolted to the web, the effective column section shall consist of the stiffener elements only.

Except as noted herein, for stiffeners welded to the web, a portion of the web shall be included as part of the effective column section. For stiffeners consisting of two plates welded to the web, the effective column section shall consist of the two stiffener elements, plus a centrally located strip of web extending not more than $9t_w$ on each side of the stiffeners. If more than one pair of stiffeners is used, the effective column section shall consist of all stiffener elements, plus a centrally located strip of web extending not more than $9t_w$ on each side of the outer projecting elements of the group.

- C A portion of the web is assumed to act in combination with the bearing stiffener plates. This portion of the web is not included for the stated case at interior supports of continuous-span hybrid members with F_{yw} less than the specified value because of the amount of web yielding that may be expected due to longitudinal flexural stress in this particular case. At end supports of hybrid members, the web may be included regardless of the specified minimum yield strength of the web.

The strip of the web shall not be included in the effective section at interior supports of continuous-span hybrid members for which the specified minimum yield strength of the web is less than 70 percent of the specified minimum yield strength of the higher strength flange.

If the specified minimum yield strength of the web is less than that of the stiffener plates, the strip of the web included in the effective section shall be reduced by the ratio F_{yw}/F_{ys} .

6.10.11.3. Longitudinal Stiffeners

1. General

Where required, longitudinal stiffeners should consist of either a plate welded to one side of the web, or a bolted angle. Longitudinal stiffeners shall be located at a vertical position on the web such that Eq.(6.70) is satisfied when checking constructibility, Eq.(6.77) is satisfied at the service limit state, and all the appropriate design requirements are satisfied at the strength limit state.

Wherever practical, longitudinal stiffeners shall extend uninterrupted over their specified length, unless otherwise permitted in the contract documents. If transverse web elements serving as stiffeners are interrupted by a longitudinal stiffener, the transverse element shall be attached to the longitudinal stiffener to develop the flexural and axial resistance of the transverse element.

The flexural stress in the longitudinal stiffener, f_s , due to the factored loads at the strength limits state and when checking constructibility shall satisfy:

$$f_s \leq \phi_f R_h F_{ys} \quad (6.155)$$

where:

- ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- F_{ys} = specified minimum yield strength of the stiffener (MPa)
- R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

C For more information see Article 6.20.25 in Appendix D6.

2. Projecting Width

The projecting width, b_ℓ , of the stiffener shall satisfy:

$$b_\ell \leq 0.48 t_s \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{ys}}} \quad (6.156)$$

where:

- t_s = thickness of the stiffener (mm)

C This requirement is intended to prevent local buckling of the longitudinal stiffener.

3. Moment of Inertia and Radius of Gyration

Longitudinal stiffeners shall satisfy:

$$I_\ell \geq D t_w^3 \left[2.4 \left(\frac{d_o}{D} \right)^2 - 0.13 \right] \beta \quad (6.157)$$

and

$$r \geq \frac{0.16d_o \sqrt{\frac{F_{ys}}{E}}}{\sqrt{1 - 0.6 \frac{F_{yc}}{R_h F_{ys}}}} \quad (6.158)$$

in which:

β = Curvature correction factor for longitudinal stiffener rigidity calculated as follows:

- For cases where the longitudinal stiffener is on the side of the web away from the center of curvature:

$$\beta = \frac{Z}{6} + 1 \quad (6.159)$$

- For cases where the longitudinal stiffener is on the side of the web toward the center of curvature:

$$\beta = \frac{Z}{12} + 1 \quad (6.160)$$

Z = curvature parameter:

$$= \frac{0.95d_o^2}{Rt_w} \leq 10 \quad (6.161)$$

where:

d_o = transverse stiffener spacing (mm)

I_ℓ = moment of inertia of the longitudinal stiffener including an effective width of the web equal to $18t_w$ taken about the neutral axis of the combined section (mm^4). If F_{yw} is smaller than F_{ys} , the strip of the web included in the effective section shall be reduced by the ratio F_{yw}/F_{ys} .

R = minimum girder radius in the panel (mm)

r = radius of gyration of the longitudinal stiffener including an effective width of the web equal to $18t_w$ taken about the neutral axis of the combined section (mm).

C For more information see Article [6.20.26](#) in Appendix D6.

6.10.12. Cover Plates

6.10.12.1. General

The length of any cover plate, L_{cp} , in mm, added to a member shall satisfy:

$$L_{cp} \geq 2d + 900 \quad (6.162)$$

where:

d = total depth of the steel section (mm)

Partial length welded cover plates shall not be used on flanges more than 20 mm thick for non-redundant load path structures subjected to repetitive loadings that produce tension or reversal of stress in the flange.

The maximum thickness of a single cover plate on a flange shall not be greater than two times the thickness of the flange to which the cover plate is attached. Multiple welded cover plates shall not be permitted.

Cover plates may either be wider or narrower than the flange to which they are attached.

6.10.12.2. End Requirements

1. General

The theoretical end of the cover plate shall be taken as the section where the moment, M_u , or flexural stress, f_{bu} , due to the factored loads equals the factored flexural resistance of the flange. The cover plate shall be extended beyond the theoretical end far enough so that:

- The stress range at the actual end satisfies the appropriate fatigue requirements specified in Article [6.6.1.2](#), and
- The longitudinal force in the cover plate due to the factored loads at the theoretical end can be developed by welds and/or bolts placed between the theoretical and actual ends.

The width at ends of tapered cover plates shall not be less than 75 mm.

2. Welded Ends

The welds connecting the cover plate to the flange between the theoretical and actual ends shall be adequate to develop the computed force in the cover plate at the theoretical end.

Where cover plates are wider than the flange, welds shall not be wrapped around the ends of the cover plate.

3. Bolted Ends

The bolts in the slip-critical connections of the cover plate to the flange between the theoretical and actual ends shall be adequate to develop the force due to the factored loads in the cover plate at the theoretical end.

The slip resistance of the end-bolted connection shall be determined in accordance with Article [6.13.2.8](#). The longitudinal welds connecting the cover plate to the flange shall be continuous and shall stop a distance equal to one bolt spacing before the first row of bolts in the end-bolted portion. Where end-bolted cover plates are used, the contract documents shall specify that they be installed in the following sequence:

- Drill holes,
- Clean faying surfaces,
- Install bolts, and
- Weld plates.

C Research on end-bolted cover plates is discussed in [Wattar et al. \(1985\)](#).

6.11. BOX-SECTION FLEXURAL MEMBERS

6.11.1. General

The provisions of this Article apply to flexure of straight or horizontally curved steel single or multiple closed-box or tub sections in simple or continuous bridges of moderate length. The provisions cover the design of composite, hybrid and non-hybrid, and constant and variable web depth members as defined by and subject to the requirements of Article 6.10.1.1, Articles 6.10.1.3 through 6.10.1.8, and Articles 6.11.1.1 through 6.11.1.4.

The provisions of Article 6.10.1.6 shall apply only to the top flanges of tub sections.

Single box sections shall be positioned in a central position with respect to the cross-section, and the center of gravity of the dead load shall be as close to the shear center of the box as is practical. These provisions shall not be applied to multiple cell single box sections, or to composite box flanges used as bottom flanges.

All types of box-section flexural members shall be designed as a minimum to satisfy:

- The cross-section proportion limits specified in Article 6.11.2;
- The constructibility requirements specified in Article 6.11.3;
- The service limit state requirements specified in Article 6.11.4;
- The fatigue and fracture limit state requirements specified in Article 6.11.5;
- The strength limit state requirements specified in Article 6.11.6.

The web bend-buckling resistance in slender web members shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.9. Flange-strength reduction factors in hybrid and/or slender web members shall be determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.

Internal and external cross-frames and diaphragms for box sections shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.7.4. Top flange bracing for tub sections shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.7.5.

C For more information see Article 6.20.27 in Appendix D6.

6.11.1.1. Stress Determinations

Box flanges in multiple and single box sections shall be considered fully effective in resisting flexure if the width of the flange does not exceed one-fifth of the effective span. For simple spans, the effective span shall be taken as the span length. For continuous spans, the effective span shall be taken equal to the distance between points of permanent load contraflexure, or between a simple support and a point of permanent load contraflexure, as applicable. If the flange width exceeds one-fifth of the effective span, only a width equal to one-fifth of the effective span shall be considered effective in resisting flexure.

For multiple box sections in straight bridges satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3, the live-load flexural moment in each box may be determined in accordance with the applicable provisions of Article 4.6.2.2.2.b. Shear due to St. Venant torsion and transverse bending and longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion may also be neglected for sections within these bridges that have fully effective box flanges. The section of an exterior member assumed to resist horizontal

factored wind loading within these bridges may be taken as the bottom box flange acting as a web and 12 times the thickness of the web acting as flanges.

The provisions of Article [4.6.2.2.2.b](#) shall not apply to:

- Single box sections in straight or horizontally curved bridges,
- Multiple box sections in straight bridges not satisfying the requirements of Article [6.11.2.3](#), or
- Multiple box sections in horizontally curved bridges.

For these sections and for sections that do not have fully effective box flanges, the effects of both flexural and St. Venant torsional shear shall be considered. The St. Venant torsional shear stress in box flanges due to the factored loads at the strength limit state shall not exceed the factored torsional shear resistance of the flange, F_{vr} , taken as:

$$F_{vr} = 0.75\phi_v \frac{F_{yf}}{\sqrt{3}} \quad (6.163)$$

where:

ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

In addition, transverse bending stresses due to cross-section distortion shall be considered for fatigue as specified in Article [6.11.5](#), and at the strength limit state. Transverse bending stresses due to the factored loads shall not exceed 135 MPa at the strength limit state. Longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion shall be considered for fatigue as specified in Article [6.11.5](#), but may be ignored at the strength limit state. Transverse bending and longitudinal warping stresses shall be determined by rational structural analysis in conjunction with the application of strength-of-materials principles. Transverse stiffeners attached to the webs or box flanges should be considered effective in resisting transverse bending.

C For more information see Article [6.20.28](#) in Appendix D6.

6.11.1.2. Bearings

Single or double bearings may be used at supports. Double bearings may be placed either inboard or outboard of the box section webs. If single bearings narrower than the bottom flange are used, they shall be aligned with the shear center of the box, and other supports shall have adequate bearings to ensure against overturning under any load combination. If tie-down bearings are used, the resulting force effects shall be considered in the design.

- C The bearing arrangement dictates how torsion is resisted at supports and is especially critical for single box sections.
- C When a single bearing arrangement is used, torque may be removed from multiple box sections through cross-frames or diaphragms between the boxes. Two bearings under each box provide a couple to resist the torque in each box. Double bearings can be placed between the box webs or outboard of the box. Placing bearings outboard of the box reduces overturning loads on the bearings and may eliminate uplift.
- C For the case of double bearings, uplift may be especially critical when deck overhangs are large and heavy parapets or sound barriers are placed at the edges of the overhangs.
- C Uplift should be checked ignoring the effect of the future wearing surface.
- C Integral cap beams of steel or concrete are often used with box sections in lieu of bearings.

6.11.1.3. Flange-to-Web Connections

Except as specified herein, the total effective thickness of flange-to-web welds shall not be less than the smaller of the web or flange thickness.

Where two or more intermediate internal diaphragms are provided in each span, fillet welds may be used for the flange-to-web connections. The weld size shall not be less than the size consistent with the requirements of Article 6.13.3.4. If fillet welds are used, they shall be placed on both sides of the connecting flange or web plate.

- C If at least two intermediate internal cross-frames or diaphragms are not provided in each span, it is essential that the web-to-flange welds be of sufficient size to develop the smaller of the full web or flange section. Full-thickness welds should be provided in this case because of the possibility of secondary flexural stresses developing in the box section as a result of vibrations and/or distortions of the cross-section. Haaijer (1981) demonstrated that the transverse secondary distortional stress range at the web-to-flange welded joint is reduced more than 50 percent in such sections when one intermediate internal cross-frame per span is introduced and more than 80 percent when two intermediate internal cross-frames per span are introduced.
- C Thus, when two or more intermediate internal cross-frames or diaphragms are provided in each span, fillet welds on both sides of the web designed according to the requirements of Article 6.13.3.4 may be assumed to be adequate.
- C It is essential that the welds be placed on both sides of the connecting flange or web plate whether full penetration or fillet welds are used. This will help minimize the possibility of a fatigue failure resulting from the transverse bending stresses.

6.11.1.4. Access and Drainage

Access holes in box sections should be located in the bottom flange in areas of low stress. The effect of access holes on the stresses in the flanges should be investigated at all limit states to determine if reinforcement of the holes is required. At access holes in box flanges subject to compression, the nominal flexure resistance of the remaining flange on each side of the hole at the strength limit state shall be determined according to the provisions of article 6.10.8.2.2, with λ_f taken as the projecting width of the flange on that side of the hole divided by the flange thickness, including any reinforcement. Provisions should be made for ventilation and drainage of the interior of box sections.

- C At access holes in box flange subject to compression, the nominal flexural resistance of the remaining flange on each side of the hole is determined using the local buckling resistance equations for I-girder compression flanges, with the flange slenderness based on the projecting width of the flange on that side of the hole.
- C Outside access holes should be large enough to provide easy access for inspection. Doors for exterior access holes should be hinged and provided with locks. All outside openings in box sections should be screened to exclude unauthorized persons, birds and vermin.
- C Consideration should be given to painting the interior of box sections a light color. Painting the interior of these sections is primarily done to facilitate inspections, and for tub sections, to prevent solar gain and to offer a minimum level of protection to the steel from the elements while the tub is temporarily open during construction. The paint quality need not match that normally used for exterior surfaces. A single-coat system should be sufficient in most cases, particularly when provisions are made for ventilation and drainage of the interior of the box.

6.11.2. Cross-Section Proportion Limits

6.11.2.1. Web Proportions

1. General

Webs may be inclined or vertical. The inclination of the web plates to a plane normal to the bottom flange should not exceed 1 to 4. For the case of inclined webs, the distance along the web shall be used for checking all design requirements. Webs attached to top flanges of tub sections shall be attached at mid-width of the flanges.

- C Inclined webs are advantageous in reducing the width of the bottom flange.
- C Top flanges of tub sections with webs located at other than mid-width of the flange are not to be used because additional lateral flange bending effects are introduced that would require special investigation.

2. Webs without Longitudinal Stiffeners

Webs shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{D}{t_w} \leq 150 \quad (6.164)$$

- C Eq. (6.164) is discussed in Article 6.10.2.1.1.

3. Webs with Longitudinal Stiffeners

Webs shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{D}{t_w} \leq 300 \quad (6.165)$$

- C Eq. (6.165) is discussed in Article 6.10.2.1.2.

6.11.2.2. Flange Proportions

Top flanges of tub sections subject to compression or tension shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{b_f}{2t_f} \leq 12.0, \quad (6.166)$$

$$B_f \geq D/6, \quad (6.167)$$

$$t_f \geq 1.1 t_w \quad (6.168)$$

- C Eqs. (6.166) through (6.168) apply to flanges of I-sections and are also applied to a single top flange of a tub section. Eqs. (6.166) through (6.168) are discussed in Article 6.10.2.2.
- C Box flanges should extend at least 25 mm beyond the outside of each web to allow for welding of the webs to the flange. The engineer should consider providing an option on the design plans for the fabricator to increase this distance, if necessary, to provide for greater welding access.

6.11.2.3. Special Restrictions on Use of Live Load Distribution Factor for Multiple Box Sections

Cross-sections of straight bridges consisting of two or more single-cell box sections, for which the live load flexural moment in each box is determined in accordance with the applicable provisions of Article 4.6.2.2.2.b, shall satisfy the geometric restrictions specified herein. In addition, the bearing lines shall not be skewed.

The distance center-to-center of flanges of adjacent boxes, a , taken at the mid-span, shall neither be greater than 120 percent nor less than 80 percent of the distance center-to-center of the flanges of each adjacent box, w , as illustrated in Figure 6.3. In addition to the mid-span requirement, where nonparallel box sections are used, the distance center-to-center of adjacent flanges at supports shall neither be greater than 135 percent nor less than 65 percent of the distance center-to-center of the flanges of each adjacent box. The distance center-to-center of flanges of each individual box shall be the same.

The inclination of the web plates to a plane normal to the bottom flange shall not exceed 1 to 4.

The cantilever overhang of the concrete deck, including curb and parapet, shall not be greater than either 60 percent of the average distance between the centers of the top steel flanges of adjacent box sections, a , or 1800 mm.

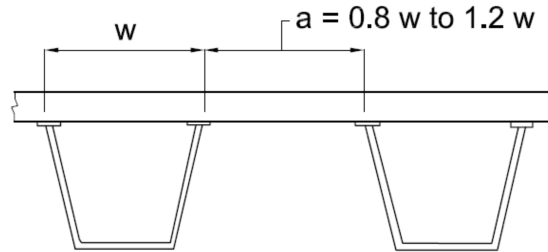


Figure 6.3: Center-to-Center Flange Distance.

C For more information see Article [6.20.29](#) in Appendix D6.

6.11.3. Constructibility

6.11.3.1. General

Except as specified herein, the provisions of Article [6.10.3](#) shall apply.

The individual box section geometry shall be maintained throughout all stages of construction. The need for temporary or permanent intermediate internal diaphragms or cross-frames, external diaphragms or cross-frames, top lateral bracing, or other means shall be investigated to ensure that deformations of the box section are controlled.

- C The Engineer should consider possible eccentric loads that may occur during construction. These may include uneven placement of concrete and equipment. Temporary cross-frames or diaphragms that are not part of the original design should be removed because the structural behavior of the box section, including load distribution, may be significantly affected if these members are left in place.
- C Additional information on construction of composite box sections may be found in [NSBA \(1996\)](#) and [United States Steel \(1978\)](#).
- C For painted box sections, the Engineer should consider making an allowance for the weight of the paint. For typical structures, three percent of the steel weight is a reasonable allowance.

6.11.3.2. Flexure

For critical stages of construction, the provisions of Articles [6.10.3.2.1](#) through [6.10.3.2.3](#) shall be applied only to the top flanges of tub sections. The un-braced length should be taken as the distance between interior cross-frames or diaphragms. The provisions of Article [6.17.3.3](#) shall not be applied in determining the lateral torsional buckling resistance of top flanges of tub sections with compact or non-compact webs.

For critical stages of construction, non-composite box flanges in compression shall satisfy the following requirements:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{nc} \quad (6.169)$$

and:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{crw} \quad (6.170)$$

where:

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

- f_{bu} = longitudinal flange stress due to the factored loads at the section under consideration calculated without consideration of longitudinal warping (MPa)
- F_{crw} = nominal bend-buckling resistance for webs specified in Article 6.10.1.9 (MPa)
- F_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance of box flanges in compression determined as specified in Article 6.11.8.2 (MPa). In computing F_{nc} for constructibility, the web load-shedding factor, R_b , shall be taken as 1.0.

For sections with compact or non-compact webs, Eq. 6.170 shall not be checked.

For critical stages of construction, non-composite box flanges in tension and continuously braced box flanges in tension or compression shall satisfy the following requirement:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f R_h F_{yf} \Delta \quad (6.171)$$

in which

$$\Delta = \sqrt{1 - 3 \left(\frac{f_v}{F_{yf}} \right)^2} \quad (6.172)$$

where:

- f_v = St. Venant torsional shear stress in the flange due to the factored loads at the section under consideration (MPa)

$$= \frac{T}{2A_o t_f} \quad (6.173)$$

where:

- A_o = enclosed area within the box section (mm²)
- R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1
- T = internal torque due to the factored loads (N-mm)

For loads applied to a composite box flange before the concrete has hardened or is made composite, the flange shall be designed as a non-composite box flange. The maximum vertical deflection of the non-composite box flange due to the un-factored permanent loads, including the self-weight of the flange plus the unfactored construction loads shall not exceed 1/360 times the transverse span between webs. The through-thickness bending stress in the non-composite box flange due to the factored permanent loads and factored construction loads shall not exceed 135 MPa. The weight of wet concrete and other temporary or permanent loads placed on a non-composite box flange may be considered by assuming the box flange acts as a simple beam spanning between webs. Stiffening of the flange may be used where required to control flange deflection and stresses due to loads applied before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite.

C For more information see Article 6.20.30 in Appendix D6.

6.11.3.3. Shear

When checking the shear requirement specified in Article 6.10.3.3, the provisions of Article 6.11.9 shall also apply, as applicable.

6.11.4. Service Limit State

Except as specified herein, the provisions of Article 6.10.4 shall apply.

The f_t term in Eq. (6.75) shall be taken equal to zero. Eq. (6.76) shall not apply. Except for sections in positive flexure in which the web satisfies the requirement of Article 6.11.2.1.2, all sections shall satisfy Eq. (6.77).

Redistribution of the negative moment due to the Service II loads at interior-pier sections in continuous-span flexural members using the procedures specified in Article 6.18 shall not apply.

- C Article 6.10.4.1 refers to the provisions of Article 2.6.2.6, which contain optional live-load deflection criteria and criteria for span-to-depth ratios. In the absence of depth restrictions, the span-to-depth ratios listed for I-sections can be used to establish a reasonable minimum web depth for the design. However, because of the inherent torsional stiffness of a box section, the optimum depth for a box section will typically be slightly less than the optimum depth for an I-section of the same span.
- C Because the size of box flanges can typically be varied less over the bridge length, establishing a sound optimum depth for box sections is especially important. Boxes that are overly shallow may be subject to larger torsional shears.
- C Under the load combinations specified in Table 3.1, Eq. (6.74) and (6.75) need only be checked for compact sections in positive flexure. For sections in negative flexure and noncompact sections in positive flexure, these equations do not control and need not be checked. However, Eq. (6.77) must still be checked for these sections where applicable.
- C Flange lateral bending is not a consideration for box flanges, and therefore, need not be considered when checking Eq. (6.75). Flange lateral bending is not considered in Eq. (6.74) because the top flanges are continuously braced at the service limit state. Longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion need not be considered in checking the equations of Article 6.10.4.2.2, but are required to be considered when checking slip of the connections in bolted flange splices at the service limit state as specified in Article 6.13.6.1.4.c. St. Venant torsional shear stresses are also not considered in checking the equations of Article 6.10.4.2.2 for box flanges. The effects of longitudinal warping stresses and torsional shear on the overall permanent deflections at the service limit state are considered to be relatively insignificant.
- C For box sections with inclined webs, D_c should be taken as the depth of the web in compression measured along the slope in determining the web bend-buckling resistance, F_{crw} , for checking Eq. (6.77), where applicable.
- C The applicability of the optional provisions of Article 6.18 to box sections has not been demonstrated. Therefore, these provisions may not be used in the design of box sections.

6.11.5. Fatigue and Fracture Limit State

Except as specified herein, the provisions of Article 6.6.1 shall apply.

For fatigue in shear connectors, the provisions of Article 6.11.10 shall also apply, as applicable. The provisions for fatigue in shear connectors specified in Article 6.10.10.3 shall not apply.

When checking the shear requirement specified in Article 6.10.5.3, the provisions of Article 6.11.9 shall also apply, as applicable.

Longitudinal warping stresses and transverse bending stresses due to cross-section distortion shall be considered for:

- Single box sections in straight or horizontally curved bridges,
- Multiple box sections in straight bridges not satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3,
- Multiple box sections in horizontally curved bridges, or
- Any single or multiple box section with a box flange that is not fully effective according to the provisions of Article 6.11.1.1.

The stress range due to longitudinal warping shall be considered in checking the fatigue resistance of the base metal at all details on the box section according to the provisions specified in Article [6.6.1](#). The transverse bending stress range shall be considered separately in evaluating the fatigue resistance of the base metal adjacent to flange-to-web fillet welds and adjacent to the termination of fillet welds connecting transverse elements to webs and box flanges. In determining the transverse bending stress range, one cycle of stress shall be defined as 75 percent of the stress range determined by the passage of the factored fatigue load in two different critical transverse positions. In no case shall the stress range calculated in this manner be less than the calculated stress range due to the passage of the factored fatigue load in only.

The need for abottom transverse member within the internal cross-frames to resist the transverse bending stress range in the bottom box flange at the termination of fillet welds connecting cross-frame connection plates to the flange shall be investigated. Transverse cross-frame members next to box flanges shall be attached to the box flange unless longitudinal flange stiffeners are used, in which case the transverse members shall be attached to the longitudinal stiffeners by bolting. The moment of inertia of these transverse cross-frame members shall not be less than the moment of iertia of the largest connection plate for the internal cross-fram under consideration taken about the edge in contact with the web.

For single box sections, box flanges in tension shall be considered fracture-critical, unless analysis shows that the section can support the full dead and an appropriate portion of the live load after sustaining a hypothetical complete fracture of the flange and webs at any point. Unless adequate strength and stability of a damaged structure can be verified by refined analysis, in cross-sections comprised of two box sections, only the bottom flanges in the positive moment regions should be designated as fracture-critical. Where cross-sections contain more than two box girder sections, none of the components of the box sections should be considered fracture-critical.

C For more information see Article [6.20.31](#) in Appendix D6.

6.11.6. Strength Limit State

6.11.6.1. General

For the purposes of this Article, the applicable Strength load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#) shall apply.

C At the strength limit state, Article [6.10.6](#) directs the Engineer to the appropriate Articles for the design of box sections in regions of positive or negative flexure.

6.11.6.2. Flexure

1. General

If there are holes in the tension flange at the section under consideration, the tension flange shall satisfy the requirement specified in Article [6.10.1.8](#).

C The requirement of Article [6.10.1.8](#) is intended to prevent net section fracture at a cross-section with holes in the tension flange subject to either positive or negative flexure. Where an access hole is provided in the tension flange, the hole should be deducted in determining the gross section for checking this requirement, as specified in Article [6.8.1](#).

C A continuously braced flange in compression is assumed not to be subject to local or lateral torsional buckling, as applicable. The rationale for excluding these limit state checks is discussed in Article [6.10.3.2.3](#).

- C These provisions assume low or zero levels of axial force in the member. At sections that are also subject to a concentrically-applied axial force, P_u , due to the factored loads in excess of ten percent of the factored axial resistance of the member, P_u at the strength limit state, the section should instead be checked according to the provisions of Article 6.8.2.3 or 6.9.2.2, as applicable. According to the equations given in these Articles, when p_u is ten percent of P_u the flexural resistance of the member is reduced by five percent.
- C Below this level, it is reasonable to ignore the effect of the axial force in the design of the member.

2. Sections in Positive Flexure

Sections in horizontally curved steel girder bridges shall be considered as non-compact sections and shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.11.7.2.

Sections in straight bridges that satisfy the following requirements shall qualify as compact sections:

- the specified minimum yield strengths of the flanges and web do not exceed 485 MPa,
- the web satisfies the requirement of Article 6.11.2.1.2,
- the section is part of a bridge that satisfies the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3,
- the box flange is fully effective as specified in Article 6.11.1.1, and:
- the section satisfies the web slenderness limit:

$$\frac{2D_{cp}}{t_w} \leq 3.76 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.174)$$

where:

D_{cp} = depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.2 (mm)

Compact sections shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.11.7.1. Otherwise, the section shall be considered non-compact and shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.11.7.2.

Compact and non-compact sections shall satisfy the ductility requirement specified in Article 6.10.7.3.

- C For more information see Article 6.20.32 in Appendix D6.

3. Sections in Negative Flexure

The provisions of Article 6.11.8 shall apply. The provisions of Article 6.17 shall not apply. Redistribution of the negative moment due to the factored loads at interior-pier sections in continuous-span flexural members using the procedures specified in Article 6.18 shall not apply.

- C For sections in negative flexure, the provisions of Article 6.11.8 limit the nominal flexural resistance to be less than or equal to the moment at first yield for all types of box girder bridges. As a result, the nominal flexural resistance for these sections is conveniently expressed in terms of the elastically computed flange stress.
- C The applicability of the optional provisions of Articles 6.17 and 6.18 to box sections has not been demonstrated. Therefore, these provisions may not be used in the design of box sections.

6.11.6.3. Shear

The provisions of Article 6.11.9 shall apply.

6.11.6.4. Shear Connectors

The provisions of Article 6.10.10.4 shall apply.

The provisions of Article 6.11.10 shall also apply, as applicable.

6.11.7. Flexural Resistance—Sections in Positive Flexure**6.11.7.1. Compact Sections****1. General**

At the strength limit state, the section shall satisfy:

$$M_u \leq \phi_f M_n \quad (6.175)$$

where:

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2

M_n = nominal flexural resistance of the section determined as specified in Article 6.11.7.1.2 (N-mm)

M_u = bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section due to the factored loads at the section under consideration (N-mm)

- C For composite sections in positive flexure, lateral bending does not need to be considered in the compression flanges of tub sections at the strength limit state because the flanges are continuously supported by the concrete deck. Flange lateral bending is also not a consideration for box flanges.

2. Nominal Flexural Resistance

The nominal flexural resistance of the section shall be taken as specified in Article 6.10.7.1.2, except that for continuous spans, the nominal flexural resistance shall always be subject to the limitation of Eq. (6.85).

6.11.7.2. Non-compact Sections**1. General**

At the strength limit state, compression flanges shall satisfy:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{nc} \quad (6.176)$$

where:

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2

f_{bu} = longitudinal flange stress at the section under consideration calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending or longitudinal warping, as applicable (MPa)

F_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.11.7.2.2 (MPa)

The tension flange shall satisfy:

$$f_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{nt} \quad (6.177)$$

where:

F_{nt} = nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.11.7.2.2 (MPa)

- C For noncompact sections, the compression flange must satisfy Eq. (6.176) and the tension flange must satisfy Eq. (6.177) at the strength limit state. For composite sections in positive flexure, lateral bending does not need to be considered in the compression flanges at the strength limit state because the flanges are continuously supported by the concrete deck. Lateral bending is also not a consideration for the tension flange, which is always a box flange in this case.

For shored construction, the maximum longitudinal compressive stress in the concrete deck at the strength limit state, determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.1.1.d, shall not exceed $0.6f'_c$.

- C For noncompact sections utilized in shored construction, the longitudinal stress in the concrete deck is limited to $0.6f'_c$ to ensure linear behavior of the concrete, which is assumed in the calculation of the steel flange stresses. In unshored construction, the concrete stress near first yielding of either steel flange is typically significantly less than f'_c thereby eliminating the need to check the concrete stress in this case.

2. Nominal Flexural Resistance

The nominal flexural resistance of the compression flanges of tub sections shall be taken as:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.178)$$

where:

R_b = web load-shedding factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.2

R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

The nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange of closed-box sections shall be taken as:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \Delta \quad (6.179)$$

in which:

$$\Delta = \sqrt{1 - 3 \left(\frac{f_v}{F_{yc}} \right)^2} \quad (6.180)$$

f_v = St. Venant torsional shear stress in the flange due to the factored loads at the section under consideration (MPa)

$$= \frac{T}{2A_o t_{fc}} \quad (6.181)$$

where:

A_o = enclosed area within the box section (mm^2)

T = internal torque due to the factored loads (N-mm)

The nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange of closed-box and tub sections shall be taken as:

$$F_{nt} = R_h F_{yt} \Delta \quad (6.182)$$

in which:

$$\Delta = \sqrt{1 - 3 \left(\frac{f_v}{F_{yt}} \right)^2} \quad (6.183)$$

f_v = St. Venant torsional shear stress in the flange due to the factored loads at the section under consideration (MPa)

$$= \frac{T}{2A_o t_{ft}} \quad (6.184)$$

- C The nominal flexural resistance of noncompact sections in positive flexure is limited to the moment at first yield. Thus, the nominal flexural resistance is expressed simply in terms of the flange stress. For noncompact sections, the elastically computed stress in each flange due to the factored loads, determined in accordance with Article 6.10.1.1.1.a, is compared with the yield stress of the flange times the appropriate flange-stress reduction factors.
- C For box flanges, the effect of the St. Venant torsional shear stress in the flange must also be considered where necessary. The computation of the flange torsional shear stress from Eq. (6.181) or (6.183), as applicable, due to torques applied separately to the noncomposite and composite sections is discussed in Article 6.11.1.1.

6.11.8. Flexural Resistance—Sections in Negative Flexure

6.11.8.1. General

1. Box Flanges in Compression

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$F_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{nc} \quad (6.185)$$

where:

- ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- f_{bu} = longitudinal flange stress due to the factored loads at the section under consideration calculated without consideration of longitudinal warping (MPa)
- F_{nc} = nominal flexural resistance of the flange determined as specified in Article 6.11.8.2 (MPa)

- C Eq. (6.185) ensures that box flanges in compression have sufficient strength with respect to flange local buckling. Flange lateral bending and lateral torsional buckling are not a consideration for box flanges.
- C In general, bottom box flanges at interior -pier sections are subjected to biaxial stresses due to major-axis bending of the box section and major-axis bending of the internal diaphragm over the bearing sole plate. The flange is also subject to shear stresses due to the internal diaphragm vertical shear, and in cases where it must be considered, the St. Venant torsional shear. Bending of the internal diaphragm over the bearing sole plate can be particularly significant for boxes supported on single bearings. For cases where the shear stresses and/or bending of the internal diaphragm are deemed significant, the following equation may be used to check this combined stress state in the box flange at the strength limit state:

$$\sqrt{f_{bu}^2 - f_{bu}f_{by} + f_{by}^2 + 3(f_d + f_v)^2} \leq \phi_f R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (6.186)$$

- C where:

- f_{by} = stress in the flange due to the factored loads caused by major-axis bending of the internal diaphragm over the bearing sole plate (MPa)
 f_d = shear stress in the flange caused by the internal diaphragm vertical shear due to the factored loads (MPa)
 f_v = St. Venant torsional shear stress in the flange due to the factored loads (MPa)
 R_b = web load-shedding factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.2
 R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

- C Eq. (6.186) represents the general form of the Huber-von Mises-Hencky yield criterion (Ugural and Fenster, 1975).
- C For a box supported on two bearings, f_{by} in Eq. (6.186) is typically relatively small and can often be neglected.
- C The box flange may be considered effective with the internal diaphragm at interior-pier sections in making this check. A flange width equal to 18 times its thickness may be considered effective with the internal diaphragm, which is similar to the portion of the web or diaphragm that is considered part of the effective column section for the design of bearing stiffeners. The shear stress in the flange, f_d , caused by the internal diaphragm vertical shear due to the factored loads can then be estimated as:

$$f_d = \frac{VQ}{It_{fc}} \quad (6.187)$$

- C where:

- V = vertical shear in the internal diaphragm due to flexure plus St. Venant torsion (N)
 Q = first moment of one-half the effective box-flange area about the neutral axis of the effective internal diaphragm section (mm³)
 I = moment of inertia of the effective internal diaphragm section (mm⁴)

- C Wherever an access hole is provided within the internal diaphragm, the effect of the hole should be considered in computing the section properties of the effective diaphragm section.

2. Continuously Braced Flanges in Tension

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$F_{bu} \leq \phi_f F_{nt} \quad (6.188)$$

where:

- F_{nt} = nominal flexural resistance of the flange determined as specified in Article 6.11.8.3 (MPa)

- C For continuously braced top flanges of tub sections, lateral flange bending need not be considered. St. Venant torsional shears are also typically neglected. The torsional shears may not be neglected, however, in a continuously braced box flange.

6.11.8.2. Flexural Resistance of Box Flanges in Compression

1. General

The nominal flexural resistance of box flanges in compression without flange longitudinal stiffeners shall be determined as specified in Article 6.11.8.2.2. The nominal flexural resistance of box flanges in compression with flange longitudinal stiffeners shall be determined as specified in Article 6.11.8.2.3.

2. Unstiffened Flanges

The nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange shall be taken as:

- If $\lambda_f \leq R_1 \sqrt{\frac{kE}{F_{yc}}}$, then:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \Delta \quad (6.189)$$

- If $R_1 \sqrt{\frac{kE}{F_{yc}}} < \lambda_f \leq R_2 \sqrt{\frac{kE}{F_{yc}}}$, then:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \left[\Delta - \left(\Delta - \frac{F_{yr}}{R_h F_{yc}} \right) \left\{ 1 - \sin \left[\frac{\pi}{2} \left(\frac{R_2 - \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{kE}}}{R_2 - R_1} \right) \right] \right\} \right] \quad (6.190)$$

- If $\lambda_f > R_2 \sqrt{\frac{kE}{F_{yc}}}$, then:

$$F_{nc} = \frac{0.9 E R_b k}{\left(\frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \right)^2} - \frac{R_b f_v^2 k}{0.9 E k_s^2} \left(\frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \right)^2 \quad (6.191)$$

in which:

λ_f = slenderness ratio for the compression flange

$$= \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \quad (6.192)$$

$$\Delta = \sqrt{1 - 3 \left(\frac{f_v}{F_{yc}} \right)^2} \quad (6.193)$$

f_v = St. Venant torsional shear stress in the flange due to the factored loads at the section under consideration (MPa)

$$= \frac{T}{2 A_o t_{fc}} \quad (6.194)$$

F_{yr} = smaller of the compression-flange stress at the onset of nominal yielding, with consideration of residual stress effects, or the specified minimum yield strength of the web (MPa)

$$= \Delta - 0.4 F_{yc} \leq F_{yw} \quad (6.195)$$

- k = Plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress
 = 4.0
 k_s = plate buckling coefficient for shear stress
 = 5.34
 R_1 = constant which when multiplied by $\sqrt{kE / F_{yc}}$ yields the slenderness ratio equal to 0.6 times the slenderness ratio for which F_{nc} from Eq. (6.191) is equal to $R_b F_{yc} \Delta$

$$= \frac{0.57}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left[\Delta + \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 4 \left(\frac{f_v}{F_{yc}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{k}{k_s} \right)^2} \right]}} \quad (6.196)$$

- R_2 = constant which when multiplied by $\sqrt{kE / F_{yc}}$ yields the slenderness ratio for which F_{nc} from Eq. (6.191) is equal to $R_b F_{yr}$

$$= \frac{1.23}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{1.2} \left[\frac{F_{yr}}{F_{yc}} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{F_{yr}}{F_{yc}} \right)^2 + 4 \left(\frac{f_v}{F_{yc}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{k}{k_s} \right)^2} \right]}} \quad (6.197)$$

where:

- b_{fc} = compression-flange width between webs (mm)
 A_o = enclosed area within the box section (mm²)
 R_b = web load-shedding factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.2.
 R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1
 T = internal torque due to the factored loads (N-mm)

C For more information see Article 6.20.33 in Appendix D6.

3. Longitudinally-Stiffened Flanges

The nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange shall be taken as equal to the nominal flexural resistance for the compression flange without longitudinal stiffeners, determined as specified in Article 6.11.8.2.2, with the following substitutions:

- w shall be substituted for b_{fc} ,
- the plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress, k , shall be taken as:
- If $n = 1$, then:

$$k = \left(\frac{8I_s}{wt_{fc}^3} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (6.198)$$

- If $n = 2$, then:

$$k = \left(\frac{0.894 I_s}{w t_{fc}^3} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (6.199)$$

$1.0 \leq k \leq 4.0$ and:

- The plate-buckling coefficient for shear stress, k_s , shall be taken as:

$$k_s = \frac{5.34 + 2.84 \left(\frac{I_s}{w t_{fc}^3} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}}}{(n+1)^2} \leq 5.34 \quad (6.200)$$

where:

- I_s = moment of inertia of a single longitudinal flange stiffener about an axis parallel to the flange and taken at the base of the stiffener (mm^4)
- n = number of equally spaced longitudinal flange stiffeners
- w = larger of the width of the flange between longitudinal flange stiffeners or the distance from a web to the nearest longitudinal flange stiffener (mm)

Compression-flange longitudinal stiffeners shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article [6.11.11.2](#).

C For more information see Article [6.20.34](#) in Appendix D6.

6.11.8.3. Tension-Flange Flexural Resistance

The nominal flexural resistance of the tension flanges of tub sections shall be taken as:

$$F_{nt} = R_h F_{yt} \quad (6.201)$$

where:

- R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article [6.10.1.10.1](#)

The nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange of closed-box sections shall be determined from Eq. [\(6.181\)](#).

6.11.9. Shear Resistance

Except as specified herein, the provisions of Article [6.10.9](#) shall apply for determining the factored shear resistance of a single web. For the case of inclined webs, D in Article [6.10.9](#) shall be taken as the depth of the web plate measured along the slope.

For the case of inclined webs, each web shall be designed for a shear, V_{ui} , due to the factored loads taken as:

$$V_{ui} = \frac{V_u}{\cos \theta} \quad (6.202)$$

where:

- V_u = vertical shear due to the factored loads on one inclined web (N)
- θ = the angle of inclination of the web plate to the vertical ($^\circ$)

- C For boxes with inclined webs, the web must be designed for the component of the vertical shear in the plane of the web.
- C Usually, the box webs are detailed with equal height webs. If the deck is superelevated, the box may be rotated to match the deck slope, which is generally preferred to simplify fabrication by maintaining symmetry of the girder sections. The result is that the inclination of one web is increased over what it would have been if the box were not rotated. The computed shear in that web due to vertically applied loads should be adjusted accordingly.

For the box sections specifically cited in this Article, including sections in horizontally curved bridges, St. Venant torsional shear must be considered in the design of the webs. The total shear in one web is greater than in the other web at the same section since the torsional shear is of opposite sign in the two webs. As a matter of practicality, both webs can be designed for the critical shear.

For all single box sections, horizontally curved sections, and multiple box sections in bridges not satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3, or with box flanges that are not fully effective according to the provisions of Article 6.11.1.1, V_u shall be taken as the sum of the flexural and St. Venant torsional shears.

- C Although shear and longitudinal stresses in the webs due to warping are not zero, these effects are typically quite small and can be ignored in the design of the webs.
- C For multiple box sections in straight bridges satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3 for which a live load distribution factor for moment is employed, one-half the distribution factor for moment should be used in the calculation of the live load vertical shear in each web.

For box flanges, b_{fc} or b_{fi} , as applicable, shall be taken as one-half of the effective flange width between webs in checking Eq. (6.11.4), where the effective flange width shall be taken as specified in Article 6.11.1.1, but not to exceed $18t_f$ where t_f is the thickness of the box flange.

Web stiffeners shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.11.11.1.

6.11.10. Shear Connectors

Except as specified herein, shear connectors shall be designed according to the provisions of Article 6.10.10.

Shear connectors shall be provided in negative flexure regions.

- C Shear connectors must be present in regions of negative flexure to resist the torsional shear that exists along the entire span in all types of composite box sections. Also, the prototype and model bridges that were studied in the original development of the live-load distribution provisions for straight box sections had shear connectors throughout the negative flexure region.
- C Maximum flexural and torsional shears are typically not produced by concurrent loads. However, the interaction between flexure and torsion due to moving loads is too complex to treat practically. Instead, for cases where the torsional shear must be considered, these provisions allow the longitudinal shear range for fatigue to be computed from Eq. (6.126) using the sum of the maximum flexural and torsional shears in the web subjected to additive shears. The shear range and the resulting pitch should be computed using one-half the moment of inertia of the composite box section. The top flange over the other web, or the other half of the flange for a closed-box section, should contain an equal number of shear connectors. Because of the inherent conservatism of these requirements, the radial fatigue shear range due to curvature need not be included when computing the horizontal fatigue shear range for box sections in either straight or horizontally curved spans or segments.

For all single box sections, horizontally curved sections, and multiple box sections in bridges not satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3, or with box flanges that are not fully effective according to the provisions of Article 6.11.1.1, shear connectors shall be designed for the sum of the flexural and St. Venant torsional shears. The longitudinal fatigue shear range per unit length, V_{fat} , for one top flange of a tub girder shall be computed for the web subjected to additive flexural and torsional shears. The

resulting shear connector pitch shall also be used for the other top flange. The radial fatigue shear range due to curvature, F_{fat1} , given by Eq. (6.127) may be ignored in the design of box sections in straight or horizontally curved spans or segments.

For checking the resulting number of shear connectors to satisfy the strength limit state, the cross-sectional area of the steel box section under consideration and the effective area of the concrete deck associated with that box shall be used in determining P by Eqs. (6.135), (6.136), (6.140), and (6.141).

Shear connectors on composite box flanges shall be uniformly distributed across the width of the flange. The maximum transverse spacing, s_t , between shear connectors on composite box flanges shall satisfy the following requirement:

$$\frac{s_t}{t_f} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yf}}{kE}} \leq R_1 \quad (6.203)$$

where:

- k = Plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress determined as specified in Article 6.11.8.2
- R_1 = limiting slenderness ratio for the box flange determined from Eq. (6.196)

- C Shear connectors on box flanges are best distributed uniformly across the flange width to ensure composite action of the entire flange with the concrete. The shear connectors are to be spaced transversely to satisfy Eq. (6.203) in order to help prevent local buckling of the flange plate when subject to compression. The torsional shear or shear range resisted by the concrete deck can be determined by multiplying the torsional shear or shear range acting on the top of the composite box section by the ratio of the thickness of the transformed concrete deck to the total thickness of the top flange plus the transformed deck.
- C Adequate transverse reinforcement should be provided in the deck to resist this torsional shear.

For composite box flanges at the fatigue limit state, V_{sr} in Eq. (6.124) shall be determined as the vector sum of the longitudinal fatigue shear range given by Eq. (6.126) and the torsional fatigue shear range in the concrete deck. The number of shear connectors required to satisfy the strength limit state shall be determined according to the provisions of Article 6.10.10.4. In addition, the vector sum of the longitudinal and torsional shears due to the factored loads in the concrete deck per connector shall not exceed Q_r determined from Eq. (6.132).

6.11.11. Stiffeners

6.11.11.1. Web Stiffeners

Transverse intermediate web stiffeners shall be designed according to the provisions of Article 6.10.11.1.

Longitudinal web stiffeners shall be designed according to the provisions of Article 6.10.11.3.

Except as specified herein, bearing stiffeners shall be designed according to the provisions of Article 6.10.11.2. Bearing stiffeners should be attached to diaphragms rather than inclined webs. For bearing stiffeners attached to diaphragms, the provisions of Article 6.10.11.2.4.b shall apply to the diaphragm rather than to the web. At expansion bearings, bearing stiffeners and diaphragms should be designed for eccentricity due to thermal movement.

- C When inclined webs are used, bearing stiffeners should be attached to either an internal or external diaphragm rather than to the webs so that the bearing stiffeners are perpendicular to the sole plate.

Thermal movements of the bridge may cause the diaphragm to be eccentric with respect to the bearings. This eccentricity should be recognized in the design of the diaphragm and bearing stiffeners. The effects of the eccentricity are usually most critical when the bearing stiffeners are attached to diaphragms. The effects of the eccentricity can be recognized by designing the bearing stiffener assembly as a beam-column according to the provisions of Articles [6.10.11.2](#) and [6.9.2.2](#).

6.11.11.2. Longitudinal Compression-Flange Stiffeners

Longitudinal compression-flange stiffeners on box flanges shall be equally spaced across the flange width. The specified minimum yield strength of the stiffeners shall not be less than the specified minimum yield strength of the box flange to which they are attached.

The projecting width, b_ℓ , of a flange longitudinal stiffener element shall satisfy:

$$b_\ell \leq 0.48 t_s \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (6.204)$$

where:

t_s = thickness of the projecting longitudinal element stiffener (mm)

The moment of inertia, I_ℓ , of each stiffener about an axis parallel to the flange and taken at the base of the stiffener shall satisfy:

$$I_\ell \geq \psi w t^3_{fc} \quad (6.205)$$

where:

ψ = $0.125k^3$ for $n = 1$

= $1.120k^3$ for $n = 2$

k = plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress

$$1.0 \leq k \leq 4.0$$

n = number of equally spaced longitudinal flange stiffeners

w = larger of the width of the flange between longitudinal flange stiffeners or the distance from a web to the nearest longitudinal flange stiffener (mm)

C For more information see Article [6.20.35](#) in Appendix D6.

6.12. MISCELLANEOUS FLEXURAL MEMBERS

6.12.1. General

6.12.1.1. Scope

The provisions of this Article shall apply to:

- Non-composite H-shaped members bent about either axis in the cross-section;
- Non-composite box shaped member;
- Non-composite circular tubes;
- Channels, angles, tees, and bars;
- Concrete-encased rolled shapes; and

- Composite tubes.

6.12.1.2. Strength Limit State

1. Flexure

- C This Article covers small, rolled, or built-up composite or noncomposite members used primarily in trusses and frames or in miscellaneous applications subjected to bending, often in combination with axial loads.

The factored flexural resistance, M_r , shall be taken as:

$$M_r = \phi_f M_n \quad (6.206)$$

where:

M_n = nominal flexural resistance specified in Articles [6.12.2.2](#) and [6.12.2.3](#) for non-composite and composite members, respectively (N-mm)

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

2. Combined Flexure and Axial Load

The interaction equations specified in Article [6.8.2.3](#) for combined axial tension and flexure or the interaction equations specified in Article [6.9.2.2](#) for combined axial compression and flexure shall apply.

3. Shear

The factored shear resistance, V_r , shall be taken as:

$$V_r = \phi_v V_n \quad (6.207)$$

where:

V_n = nominal shear resistance specified in Articles [6.10.9.2](#) and [6.12.3](#) for webs of non-composite members and composite members, respectively (N)

ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

6.12.2. Nominal Flexural Resistance

6.12.2.1. General

Provisions for lateral torsional buckling need not be applied to composite members, non-composite box-shaped members, H-shaped members bent about an axis parallel with the web and circular tubes.

6.12.2.2. Non-composite Members

1. I- and H-Shaped Members

The provisions of this Article apply to I- and H shaped members and members consisting of two channel flanges connected by a web plate.

The provisions of Article [6.10](#) shall apply to flexure about an axis perpendicular to the web.

The nominal flexural resistance for flexure about an axis parallel with the web shall be taken as:

- If $\lambda_f \leq \lambda_{pf}$, then:

$$M_n = M_p \quad (6.208)$$

- If $\lambda_{pf} < \lambda_f \leq \lambda_{rf}$, then:

$$M_n = \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{S_y}{Z_y} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda_f - \lambda_{pf}}{0.45 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yf}}}} \right) \right] F_{yf} Z_y \quad (6.209)$$

in which:

λ_f = slenderness ratio for the flange

$$= \frac{b_f}{2t_f} \quad (6.210)$$

λ_{pf} = limiting slenderness ratio for a compact flange

$$0.38 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yf}}} \quad (6.211)$$

λ_{rf} = limiting slenderness ratio for a non-compact flange

$$0.83 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yf}}} \quad (6.212)$$

where:

F_{yf} = specified minimum yield strength of the lower-strength flange (MPa)

M_p = plastic moment about the axis parallel with the web (N-mm)

S_y = elastic section modulus about the axis parallel with the web (mm³)

Z_y = plastic section modulus about the axis parallel with the web (mm³)

- C Eqs. (6.208) and (6.209) are taken from Appendix F of AISC (1999), except that the flange slenderness λ_{rf} corresponding to the transition from inelastic to elastic flange local buckling is consistently set based on the yield moment in weak-axis bending $F_{yf} S_y$. AISC (1999) uses $F_{yf} S_y$ as the moment corresponding to the inelastic-to-elastic flange local buckling transition, but then specifies λ_{rf} based on a smaller moment level. The approach adopted in these provisions is interpreted as a corrected form of the AISC (1999) equations and is conservative relative to the AISC (1999) equations as printed. The yield moment $F_{yf} S_y$ may be taken conservatively as the moment at the inelastic-to-elastic flange local buckling transition because of the beneficial effects of the stress gradient in the flange associated with weak-axis bending.
- C For H-shaped members $M_p = 1.5F_y S$, where S is the elastic section modulus about this axis.

2. Box-Shaped Members

The nominal flexural resistance shall be taken as:

$$M_n = F_y S \left[1 - \frac{0.064 F_y S \ell}{AE} \left(\frac{\sum \left(\frac{b}{t} \right)}{I_y} \right)^{0.5} \right] \quad (6.213)$$

where:

- S = section modulus about the flexural axis (mm^3)
- A = area enclosed within the centerlines of the plates comprising the box (mm^2)
- ℓ = Un-braced length (mm)
- I_y = moment of inertia about an axis perpendicular to the axis of bending (mm^4)
- b = clear distance between plates (mm)
- t = thickness of plates (mm)

- C The lateral-torsional resistance of box shapes is usually quite high and its effect is often ignored. For truss members and other situations in which long unbraced lengths are possible, this expediency may not be adequate.
- C Eq. (6.213) was derived from the elastic lateral torsional buckling moment, M_{CR} , given by:

$$M_{CR} = \frac{\pi}{\ell} \sqrt{EI_y GJ} \quad (6.214)$$

C in which:

$$G = 0.385E, \text{ and} \quad (6.215)$$

$$J = \frac{4A^2}{\sum \frac{b}{t}} \quad (6.216)$$

- C After substitution of Eqs. (6.215) and (6.216) into (6.214):

$$M_{CR} = \frac{3.90EA}{\ell} \sqrt{\frac{I_y}{\sum \frac{b}{t}}} \quad (6.217)$$

- C It was assumed that buckling would be in the inelastic range so the CRC column equation was used to estimate the effect of inelastic buckling as:

$$M_I = F_y S \left[1 - \frac{F_y S}{4M_{CR}} \right] \quad (6.218)$$

- C Substitution of Eq. (6.217) into (6.218) leads to (6.213).

3. Circular Tubes

The nominal flexural resistance of non-composite circular tubes shall be taken as:

- If $\frac{D}{t} < 2 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}}$, then :

$$M_n = M_p \quad (6.219)$$

- If $2\sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}} < \frac{D}{t} \leq 8.8\sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}}$, then :

$$M_n = M_y \quad (6.220)$$

where :

D = outside diameter (mm)

t = wall thickness (mm)

- C Eq. (6.219) and (6.220) represent a step function for nominal flexural resistance. No accepted transition equation is available at this writing.

4. Channels, Angles, Tees, and Bars

For angles, tees, bars, and channels, the nominal bending resistance shall be the lowest value as limited by:

- Yielding,
- Lateral torsional buckling, or
- Local buckling of the elements

- C These types of members, which are not generally used as bending members, are covered in AISC (1999).

6.12.2.3. Composite Members

1. Concrete-Encased Shapes

- C The behavior of the concrete-encased shapes and concrete-filled tubes covered in this Article is discussed extensively in Galambos (1998) and AISC (2005). Such members are most often used as columns or beam columns. The provisions for circular concrete-filled tubes also apply to concrete-filled pipes.

For concrete-encased shapes that satisfy the provisions of Article 6.9.5.2.3, the nominal resistance of concrete-encased shapes subjected to flexure without compression shall be taken as the lesser of:

$$M_n = M_{ps}, \text{ or} \quad (6.221)$$

$$M_n = M_{yc} \quad (6.222)$$

For the purpose of Article 6.9.2.2, the nominal flexural resistance of concrete-encased shapes subjected to compression and flexure shall be taken as:

- If $\frac{P_u}{\phi_c P_n} \geq 0.3$, then:

$$M_n = ZF_y + \frac{(d - 2c)A_r F_{yr}}{3} + \left(\frac{d}{2} - \frac{A_w F_y}{1.7f_c b} \right) A_w F_y \quad (6.223)$$

- If $0.0 < \left(\frac{P_u}{\phi_c P_n} \right) < 0.3$, then :

M_n shall be determined by a linear interpolation between the M_n value given by Eq. (6.221) or (6.222) at $P_u = 0$ and the M_n value given by Eq. (6.223) at $(P_u / \phi_c P_n) \geq 0.3$

where:

- P_u = axial compressive force due to the factored loading (N)
- P_n = nominal compressive resistance specified in Article 6.9.5.1 (N)
- ϕ_c = resistance factor for axial compression specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- M_{ps} = plastic moment of the steel section (N-mm)
- M_{yc} = yield moment of the composite section determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- Z = plastic section modulus of the steel section about the axis of bending (mm^3)
- A_w = web area of the steel section (mm^2)
- f_{2c} = specified minimum 28-day compressive strength of the concrete (MPa)
- A_r = area of the longitudinal reinforcement (mm^2)
- c = distance from the center of the longitudinal reinforcement to the nearest face of the member in the plane of flexure (mm)
- d = depth of the member in the plane of flexure (mm)
- b = width of the member perpendicular to the plane of flexure (mm)
- F_{yr} = specified minimum yield strength of the longitudinal reinforcement (MPa)

- C The equation for M_n when $(P_u / \phi_c P_n) \geq 0.3$ is an approximate equation for the plastic moment resistance that combines the flexural strengths of the steel shape, the reinforcing bars, and the reinforced concrete. These resistances are defined in the first, second, and third terms of the equation respectively (Galambos, 1998). The equation has been verified by extensive tests (Galambos and Chapuis, 1980).
- C No test data are available on the loss of bond in composite beam columns. However, consideration of tensile cracking of concrete suggests $(P_u / \phi_c P_n) = 0.3$ as a conservative limit (AISC, 1999). It is assumed that when $(P_u / \phi_c P_n)$ is less than 0.3, the nominal flexural resistance is reduced below the plastic moment resistance of the composite section given by Eq. (6.223).
- C When there is no axial load, even with full encasement, it is assumed that the bond is only capable of developing the lesser of the plastic moment resistance of the steel section or the yield moment resistance of the composite section.

2. Concrete-Filled Tubes

The nominal flexural resistance of concrete-filled tubes that satisfy the limitations in Articles 6.9.5.2 may be taken as:

- If $\frac{D}{t} < 2.0 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}}$, then :

$$M_n = M_{ps} \quad (6.224)$$

- If $2.0 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}} < \frac{D}{t} \leq 8.8 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_y}}$, then :

$$M_n = M_{yc} \quad (6.225)$$

- C Eqs. (6.224) and (6.225) represent a step function for nominal flexural resistance. No accepted transition equation is available at this writing.

6.12.3. Nominal Shear Resistance of Composite Members

6.12.3.1. Concrete-Encased Shapes

The nominal shear resistance may be taken as:

$$V_n = 0.58 F_{yw} D t_w + \frac{F_{yr} A_v (d - c)}{s} \quad (6.226)$$

where:

- F_{yw} = specified minimum yield strength of the web of the steel shape (MPa)
- F_{yr} = specified minimum yield strength of the transverse reinforcement (MPa)
- D = web depth of the steel shape (mm)
- t_w = thickness of the web or webs of the steel shape (mm)
- A_v = cross-sectional area of transverse reinforcement bars that intercept a diagonal shear crack (mm²)
- s = longitudinal spacing of transverse reinforcement (mm)
- D = depth of the member in the plane of shear (mm)
- C = distance from the center of the longitudinal reinforcement to the nearest face of the member in the plane of bending (mm)

6.12.3.2. Concrete-Filled Tubes

1. Rectangular Tubes

The nominal shear resistance may be taken as:

$$V_n = 1.16 D t_w F_y \quad (6.227)$$

where:

- D = web depth of the tube (mm)
- t_w = wall thickness of the tube (mm)

2. Circular Tubes

The nominal shear resistance may be taken as:

$$V_n = \text{nominal shear resistance of the steel tube alone (N)}$$

6.13. CONNECTIONS AND SPLICES

6.13.1. General

Except as specified otherwise, connections and splices for main members shall be designed at the strength limit state for not less than the larger of:

- The average of the flexural moment-induced stress, shear, or axial force due to the factored loadings at the point of splice or connection and the factored flexural, shear, or axial resistance of the member or element at the same point, or
- 75 percent of the factored flexural, shear, or axial resistance of the member or element.

C Where a section changes at a splice, the smaller section is to be used for these requirements. These requirements are retained from **AASHTO (2002)**.

Where diaphragms, cross-frames, lateral bracing, stringers, or floor-beams for straight or horizontally curved flexural members are included in the structural model used to determine force effects, or alternatively, are designed for explicitly calculated force effects from the results of a separate investigation, end connections for these bracing members shall be designed for the calculated factored member force effects. Otherwise, the end connections for these members shall be designed according to the 75 percent resistance provision contained herein.

C The exception for bracing members for straight or horizontally curved flexural members that are included in the structural model used to determine force effects, results from experience with details developed invoking the 75 percent and average load provisions herein. These details tended to become so large as to be unwieldy resulting in large eccentricities and force concentrations. It has been decided that the negatives associated with these connections justifies the exception permitted herein.

Insofar as practicable, connections should be made symmetrical about the axis of the members. Connections, except for lacing bars and handrails, shall contain not less than two bolts. Members, including bracing, should be connected so that their gravity axes will intersect at a point. Eccentric connections should be avoided. Where eccentric connections cannot be avoided, members and connections shall be proportioned for the combined effects of shear and moment due to the eccentricity.

In the case of connections that transfer total member end shear, the gross section shall be taken as the gross section of the connected elements.

The thickness of end connection angles of stringers, floor-beams and girders shall not be less than 10 mm. End connections for stringers, floor-beams and girders should be made with two angles. Bracket or shelf angles that may be used to furnish support during erection shall not be considered in determining the number of fasteners required to transmit end shear.

Unless otherwise permitted by the contract documents, standard-size bolt holes shall be used in connections in horizontally curved bridges.

C Standard-size bolt holes in connections in horizontally curved bridges ensure that the steel fits together in the field.

End connections of stringers, floor-beams, and girders should be bolted with high-strength bolts. Welded connections may be permitted when bolting is not practical. Where used, welded end connections shall be designed for vertical loads and the bending moment resulting from the restraint against end rotation.

Where timber stringers frame into steel floor-beams, shelf angles with stiffeners shall be provided to support the total reaction. Shelf angles shall not be less than 11 mm thick.

6.13.2. Bolted Connections

6.13.2.1. General

Bolted steel parts may be coated or un-coated and shall fit solidly together after the bolts are tightened. The contract documents shall specify that all joint surfaces, including surfaces adjacent to the bolt head and nut, shall be specified to be free of scale, except tight mill scale, and free of dirt or other foreign material.

High-strength bolted joints shall be designated as either slip-critical or bearing-type connections. For slip-critical connections, the friction value shall be consistent with the specified condition of the faying surfaces as specified in Article [6.13.2.8](#). All material within the grip of the bolt shall be steel.

1. Slip-Critical Connections

Joints subject to stress reversal, heavy impact loads, severe vibration or located where stress and strain due to joint slippage would be detrimental to the serviceability of the structure shall be designated as slip-critical. They include:

- Joints subject to fatigue loading;
- Joints in shear with bolts installed in oversized holes;
- Joints in shear with bolts installed in short- and long-slotted holes where the force on the joint is in a direction other than perpendicular to the axis of the slot, except where the Engineer intends otherwise and so indicates in the contract documents;
- Joints subject to significant load reversal;
- Joints in which welds and bolts share in transmitting load at a common faying surface;
- Joints in axial tension or combined axial tension and shear;
- Joints in axial compression only, with standard or slotted holes in only one ply of the connection with the direction of the load perpendicular to the direction of the slot, except for connections designed according to the provisions specified in Article [6.13.6.1.3](#); and
- Joints in which, in the judgment of the Engineer, any slip would be critical to the performance of the joint or the structure and which are so designated in the contract documents.

- C In bolted slip-critical connections subject to shear, the load is transferred between the connected parts by friction up to a certain level of force that is dependent upon the total clamping force on the faying surfaces and the coefficient of friction of the faying surfaces. The connectors are not subject to shear, nor are the connected material subject to bearing stress. As loading is increased to a level in excess of the frictional resistance between the faying surfaces, slip occurs, but failure in the sense of rupture does not occur. As a result, slip-critical connections are able to resist even greater loads by shear and bearing against the connected material. The strength of the connection is not related to the slip load. These Specifications require that the slip resistance and the shear and bearing resistance be computed separately. Because the combined effect of frictional resistance with shear or bearing has not been systematically studied and is uncertain, any potential greater resistance due to combined effect is ignored.
- C For slotted holes, perpendicular to the slot is defined as an angle between approximately 80° to 100° to the axis of the slot.

Slip-critical connections shall be proportioned to prevent slip under Load Combination Service II, as specified in [Table 3.1](#), and to provide bearing, shear, and

tensile resistance at the applicable strength limit state load combinations. The provisions of Article 6.13.2.2 apply.

- C The intent of this provision is to control permanent deformations under overloads caused by slip in joints that could adversely affect the serviceability of the structure.
- C The provisions are intended to apply to the design live load specified in Article 3.6.1.1. If this criterion were to be applied to a permit load situation, a reduction in the load factor for live load should be considered. Slip-critical connections must also be checked for the strength load combinations in Table 3.1, assuming that the connection has slipped at these high loads and gone into bearing against the connected material.

2. Bearing-Type Connections

Bearing-type connections shall be permitted only for joints subjected to axial compression or joints on bracing members and shall satisfy the factored resistance, R_r , at the strength limit state.

- C In bolted bearing-type connections, the load is resisted by shear in the fastener and bearing upon the connected material, plus some uncertain amount of friction between the faying surfaces. The final failure will be by shear failure of the connectors, by tear out of the connected material, or by unacceptable ovalization of the holes. Final failure load is independent of the clamping force provided by the bolts (Kulak et al., 1987).

6.13.2.2. Factored Resistance

For slip-critical connections, the factored resistance, R_r , of a bolt at the Service II Load Combination shall be taken as:

$$R_r = R_n \quad (6.228)$$

where:

R_n = nominal resistance as specified in Article 6.13.2.8

- C Eq. (6.228) applies to a service limit state for which the resistance factor is 1.0, and, hence, is not shown in the equation.

The factored resistance, R_r or T_r , of a bolted connection at the strength limit state shall be taken as either:

$$R_r = \phi R_n \quad (6.229)$$

$$T_r = \phi T_n \quad (6.230)$$

where:

R_n = nominal resistance of the bolt, connection, or connected material as follows:

- For bolts in shear, R_n shall be taken as specified in Article 6.13.2.7.
- For the connected material in bearing joints, R_n shall be taken as specified in Article 6.13.2.9.
- For connected material in tension or shear, R_n shall be taken as specified in Article 6.13.5

T_n = nominal resistance of a bolt as follows:

- For bolts in axial tension, T_n shall be taken as specified in Article 6.13.2.10.
- For bolts in combined axial tension and shear, T_n shall be taken as specified in Article 6.13.2.11.

ϕ = resistance factor for bolts specified in Article 6.5.4.2, taken as:

- ϕ_s for bolts in shear,
- ϕ_t for bolts in tension,
- ϕ_{bb} for bolts bearing on material,
- ϕ_y or ϕ_u for connected material in tension, as appropriate, or
- ϕ_v for connected material in shear.

6.13.2.3. Bolts, Nuts, and Washers

1. Bolts and Nuts

The provisions of Article 6.4.3 shall apply.

2. Washers

Washers used in bolted connections shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article 6.4.3. Hardened washers for high-strength bolted connections shall be required where:

- The outer face of the bolted parts has a slope greater than 1:20, with respect to a plane normal to the bolt axis;
- Tightening is to be performed by the calibrated wrench method, in which case the washer shall be used under the element turned in tightening;
- AASHTO M 253M (ASTM A 490M) bolts are to be installed in material having a specified minimum yield strength less than 345 MPa, irrespective of the tightening method;
- Needed for oversize or slotted holes according to the provisions specified herein;
- AASHTO M 253M (ASTM A 490M) bolts over 24 mm in diameter are to be installed in an oversize or short-slotted hole in an outer-ply, in which case a minimum thickness of 8.0 mm shall be used under both the head and the nut. Multiple hardened washers shall not be used.

C Proper location of hardened washers is as important to the performance of the bolts as other elements of a detail. Drawings and details should clearly reflect the number and disposition of washers, especially the washers that are required for slotted-hole applications.

Hardened washers shall be installed over oversize and short-slotted holes in an outer ply.

Structural plate washers or a continuous bar with standard holes, not less than 8.0 mm in thickness, shall be required to completely cover long-slotted holes. Hardened washers for use with high-strength bolts shall be placed over the outer surface of the plate washer or bar.

Load indicator devices shall not be installed over oversize or slotted holes in an outer ply, unless a hardened washer or a structural plate washer is also provided.

6.13.2.4. Holes

1. Type

a. General

Unless specified otherwise, standard holes shall be used in high-strength bolted connections.

b. Oversize Holes

Oversize holes may be used in any or all plies of slip-critical connections. They shall not be used in bearing-type connections.

c. Short-Slotted Holes

Short-slotted holes may be used in any or all plies of slip-critical or bearing-type connections. The slots may be used without regard to direction of loading in slip-critical connections, but the length shall be normal to the direction of the load in bearing-type connections.

d. Long-Slotted Holes

Long-slotted holes may be used in only one ply of either a slip-critical or bearing-type connection. Long-slotted holes may be used without regard to direction of loading in slip-critical connections but shall be normal to the direction of load in bearing-type connections.

2. Size

The dimension of the holes shall not exceed the values given in [Table 6.14](#).

Table 6.14: Maximum Hole Sizes.

Bolt Dia	Standard	Oversize	Short Slot	Long Slot
<i>d</i>	Dia	Dia	Width×Length	Width×Length
mm	mm	mm	mm	mm
16	18	20	18×22	18×40
20	22	24	22×26	22×50
22	24	28	24×30	24×55
24	26	30	26×33	26×60
27	30	35	30×37	30×67
30	33	38	33×40	33×75
36	39	44	39×46	39×90

6.13.2.5. Size of Bolts

Bolts shall not be less than 16.0 mm in diameter. Bolts 16.0 mm in diameter shall not be used in primary members, except in 64.0-mm legs of angles and in flanges of sections whose dimensions require 16.0 mm fasteners to satisfy other detailing provisions herein. Use of structural shapes that do not allow the use of 16.0 mm fasteners shall be limited to handrails.

Angles whose size is not determined by a calculated demand may use:

- 16.0-mm diameter bolts in 50-mm legs,
- 20.0-mm diameter bolts in 64-mm legs,

- 24.0-mm diameter bolts in 75-mm legs, and
- 27.0-mm diameter bolts in 90-mm legs.

The diameter of bolts in angles of primary members shall not exceed one-fourth the width of the leg in which they are placed.

6.13.2.6. Spacing of Bolts

1. Minimum Spacing and Clear Distance

The minimum spacing between centers of bolts in standard holes shall be no less than three times the diameter of the bolt. When oversize or slotted holes are used, the minimum clear distance between the edges of adjacent bolt holes in the direction of the force and transverse to the direction of the force shall not be less than twice the diameter of the bolt.

- C In uncoated weathering steel structures, pack-out is not expected to occur in joints where bolts satisfy the maximum spacing requirements specified in Article [6.13.2.6.2](#) (Brockenbrough, 1983).

2. Maximum Spacing for Sealing Bolts

- C The intent of this provision is to ensure that the parts act as a unit and, in compression members, prevent buckling.

For sealing against the penetration of moisture in joints, the spacing on a single line adjacent to a free edge of an outside plate or shape shall satisfy:

$$s \leq (100 + 4.0 t) \leq 175 \quad (6.231)$$

If there is a second line of fasteners uniformly staggered with those in the line adjacent to the free edge, at a gage less than $38 + 4.0t$, the staggered spacing, s , in two such lines, considered together, shall satisfy:

$$s \leq 100 + 4.0t - \left(\frac{3.0g}{4.0} \right) \leq 175 \quad (6.232)$$

The staggered spacing need not be less than one-half the requirement for a single line.

where:

t = thickness of the thinner outside plate or shape (mm)

g = gage between bolts (mm)

3. Maximum Pitch for Stitch Bolts

Stitch bolts shall be used in mechanically fastened built-up members where two or more plates or shapes are in contact.

The pitch of stitch bolts in compression members shall not exceed $12.0t$. The gage, g , between adjacent lines of bolts shall not exceed $24.0t$. The staggered pitch between two adjacent lines of staggered holes shall satisfy:

$$P \leq 15.0t - \left(\frac{3.0g}{8.0} \right) \leq 12.0t \quad (6.233)$$

The pitch for tension members shall not exceed twice that specified herein for compression members. The gage for tension members shall not exceed $24.0t$. The maximum pitch of fasteners in mechanically fastened built-up members shall not exceed the lesser of the requirements for sealing or stitch.

4. Maximum Pitch for Stitch Bolts at the End of Compression Members

The pitch of bolts connecting the component parts of a compression member shall not exceed four times the diameter of the fastener for a length equal to 1.5 times the maximum width of the member. Beyond this length, the pitch may be increased gradually over a length equal to 1.5 times the maximum width of the member until the maximum pitch specified in Article 6.13.2.6.3 is reached.

5. End Distance

The end distance for all types of holes measured from the center of the bolt shall not be less than the edge distances specified in Table 6.15. When oversize or slotted holes are used, the minimum clear end distance shall not be less than the bolt diameter.

The maximum end distance shall be the maximum edge distance as specified in Article 6.13.2.6.6.

6. Edge Distances

The minimum edge distance shall be as specified in Table 6.15.

The maximum edge distance shall not be more than eight times the thickness of the thinnest outside plate or 125 mm.

Table 6.15: Minimum Edge Distances.

Bolt Diameter	Sheared Edges	Rolled Edges of Plates or Shapes, or Gas Cut Edges
mm	mm	mm
16	28	22
20	34	26
22	38	28
24	42	30
27	48	34
30	52	38
36	64	46

6.13.2.7. Shear Resistance

The nominal shear resistance of a high-strength bolt (ASTM A 325 or ASTM A 490) or an ASTM A 307 bolt (Grade A or B) at the strength limit state in joints whose length between extreme fasteners measured parallel to the line of action of the force is less than 1270 mm shall be taken as:

- Where threads are excluded from the shear plane:

$$R_n = 0.48 A_b F_{ub} N_s \quad (6.234)$$

- Where threads are included in the shear plane:

$$R_n = 0.38 A_b F_{ub} N_s \quad (6.235)$$

where:

A_b = area of the bolt corresponding to the nominal diameter (mm²)

F_{ub} = specified minimum tensile strength of the bolt specified in Article 6.4.3 (MPa)

N_s = number of shear planes per bolt

The nominal shear resistance of a bolt in connections greater than 1270 mm in length shall be taken as 0.80 times the value given by Eqs. (6.234) or (6.235).

In determining whether the bolt threads are excluded from the shear planes of the contact surfaces, the thread length of the bolt shall be determined as two thread pitch lengths greater than the specified thread length.

If the threads of a bolt are included in the shear plane in the joint, the shear resistance of the bolt in all shear planes of the joint shall be the value for threads included in the shear plane.

For A 307 bolts, shear design shall be based on Eq. (6.235).

When the grip length of an A 307 bolt exceeds 5.0 diameters, the nominal resistance shall be lowered 1.0 percent for each 1.5 mm of grip in excess of 5.0 diameters.

C For more information see Article 6.20.36 in Appendix D6.

6.13.2.8. Slip Resistance

The nominal slip resistance of a bolt in a slip-critical connection shall be taken as:

$$R_n = K_h K_s N_s P_t \quad (6.236)$$

where:

N_s = number of slip planes per bolt

P_t = minimum required bolt tension specified in Table 6.16 (N)

K_h = hole size factor specified in Table 6.17

K_s = surface condition factor specified in Table 6.18

Table 6.16: Minimum Required Bolt Tension.

Bolt Diameter mm	Required Tension- P_t ($\times 10^3$ N)	
	M 164 (A 325M)	M 253 (A 490M)
16	91	114
20	142	179
22	176	221
24	205	257
27	267	334
30	326	408
36	475	595

Table 6.17: Values of K_h .

for standard holes	1.00
for oversize and short-slotted holes	0.85
for long-slotted holes with the slot perpendicular to the direction of the force	0.70
for long-slotted holes with the slot parallel to the direction of the force	0.60

Table 6.18: Values of K_s .

for Class A surface conditions	0.33
for Class B surface conditions	0.50
for Class C surface conditions	0.33

The following descriptions of surface condition shall apply to [Table 6.18](#):

- Class A Surface: unpainted clean mill scale, and blast-cleaned surfaces with Class A coatings,
- Class B Surface: unpainted blast-cleaned surfaces and blast-cleaned surfaces with Class B coatings, and
- Class C Surface: hot-dip galvanized surfaces roughened by wire brushing after galvanizing.

The contract documents shall specify that in uncoated joints, paint, including any inadvertent overspray, be excluded from areas closer than one bolt diameter but not less than 25 mm from the edge of any hole and all areas within the bolt pattern.

The contract documents shall specify that joints having painted faying surfaces be blast-cleaned and coated with a paint that has been qualified by test as a Class A or Class B coating.

Subject to the approval of the Engineer, coatings providing a surface condition factor less than 0.33 may be used, provided that the mean surface condition factor is established by test. The nominal slip resistance shall be determined as the nominal slip resistance for Class A surface conditions, as appropriate for the hole and bolt type, times the surface condition factor determined by test divided by 0.33.

The contract documents shall specify that:

- Coated joints not be assembled before the coatings have cured for the minimum time used in the qualifying test, and
- Faying surfaces specified to be galvanized shall be hot-dip galvanized in accordance with the [AASHTO M 111M/M 111](#) ([ASTM A 123/A 123M](#)) Specification for Zinc (Hot-Dip Galvanized) Coatings on Iron and Steel Products. The surfaces shall subsequently be roughened by means of hand-wire brushing. Power-wire brushing shall not be permitted.

If a slip-critical connection is subject to an applied tensile force that reduces the net clamping force, the nominal slip resistance shall be multiplied by the factor specified by Eq. [\(6.246\)](#).

C For more information see Article [6.20.37](#) in Appendix D6.

6.13.2.9. Bearing Resistance at Bolt Holes

The effective bearing area of a bolt shall be taken as its diameter multiplied by the thickness of the connected material on which it bears. The effective thickness of connected material with countersunk holes shall be taken as the thickness of the connected material, minus one-half the depth of the countersink.

For standard holes, oversize holes, short-slotted holes loaded in any direction, and long-slotted holes parallel to the applied bearing force, the nominal resistance of interior and end bolt holes at the strength limit state, R_n , shall be taken as:

- With bolts spaced at a clear distance between holes not less than $2.0d$ and with a clear end distance not less than $2.0d$:

$$R_n = 2.4 d_t F_u \quad (6.237)$$

- If either the clear distance between holes is less than $2.0d$, or the clear end distance is less than $2.0d$:

$$R_n = 1.2 L_{ct} F_u \quad (6.238)$$

For long-slotted holes perpendicular to the applied bearing force:

- With bolts spaced at a clear distance between holes not less than $2.0d$ and with a clear end distance not less than $2.0d$:

$$R_n = 2.0 d_t F_u \quad (6.239)$$

- If either the clear distance between holes is less than $2.0 d$, or the clear end distance is less than $2.0 d$:

$$R_n = L_{ct} F_u \quad (6.240)$$

where:

d = nominal diameter of the bolt (mm)

t = thickness of the connected material (mm)

F_u = tensile strength of the connected material specified in [Table 6.1](#) (MPa)

L_c = clear distance between holes or between the hole and the end of the member in the direction of the applied bearing force (mm)

C Bearing stress produced by a high-strength bolt pressing against the side of the hole in a connected part is important only as an index to behavior of the connected part. Thus, the same bearing resistance applies, regardless of bolt shear strength or the presence or absence of threads in the bearing area. The critical value can be derived from the case of a single bolt at the end of a tension member.

C Using finger-tight bolts, it has been shown that a connected plate will not fail by tearing through the free edge of the material if the distance L , measured parallel to the line of applied force from a single bolt to the free edge of the member toward which the force is directed, is not less than the diameter of the bolt multiplied by the ratio of the bearing stress to the tensile strength of the connected part ([Kulak et al., 1987](#)).

C The criterion for nominal bearing strength is:

$$\frac{L}{d} = \frac{r_n}{F_u} \quad (6.241)$$

C where:

r_n = nominal bearing pressure (MPa)

F_u = specified minimum tensile strength of the connected part (MPa)

- C In these Specifications, the nominal bearing resistance of an interior hole is based on the clear distance between the hole and the adjacent hole in the direction of the bearing force. The nominal bearing resistance of an end hole is based on the clear distance between the hole and the end of the member. The nominal bearing resistance of the connected member may be taken as the sum of the resistances of the individual holes. The clear distance is used to simplify the computations for oversized and slotted holes.
- C Holes may be spaced at clear distances less than the specified values, as long as the lower value specified by Eq. (6.238) or Eq. (6.240), as applicable, is used for the nominal bearing resistance.

6.13.2.10. Tensile Resistance

1. General

High-strength bolts subjected to axial tension shall be tensioned to the force specified in Table 6.16. The applied tensile force shall be taken as the force due to the external factored loadings, plus any tension resulting from prying action produced by deformation of the connected parts, as specified in Article 6.13.2.10.4.

2. Nominal Tensile Resistance

- C The recommended design strength is approximately equal to the initial tightening force; thus, when loaded to the service load, high-strength bolts will experience little, if any, actual change in stress. For this reason, bolts in connections, in which the applied loads subject the bolts to axial tension, are required to be fully tensioned.

The nominal tensile resistance of a bolt, T_n , independent of any initial tightening force shall be taken as:

$$T_n = 0.76 A_b F_{ub} \quad (6.242)$$

where:

A_b = area of bolt corresponding to the nominal diameter (mm²)

F_{ub} = specified minimum tensile strength of the bolt specified in Article 6.4.3 (MPa)

3. Fatigue Resistance

Where high-strength bolts in axial tension are subject to fatigue, the stress range, Δ_f , in the bolt, due to the fatigue design live load, plus the dynamic load allowance for fatigue loading specified in Article 3.6.1.4, plus the prying force resulting from cyclic application of the fatigue load, shall satisfy Eq. (6.1).

The nominal diameter of the bolt shall be used in calculating the bolt stress range. In no case shall the calculated prying force exceed 60 percent of the externally applied load.

Low carbon **ASTM A 307** bolts shall not be used in connections subjected to fatigue.

- C Properly tightened **A 325M and A 490M** bolts are not adversely affected by repeated application of the recommended service load tensile stress, provided that the fitting material is sufficiently stiff that the prying force is a relatively small part of the applied tension. The provisions covering bolt tensile fatigue are based upon study of test reports of bolts that were subjected to repeated tensile load to failure (Kulak et al., 1987).

4. Prying Action

The tensile force due to prying action shall be taken as:

$$Q_u = \left[\frac{3b}{8a} - \frac{t^3}{328000} \right] \quad (6.243)$$

where:

- Q_u = prying tension per bolt due to the factored loadings taken as zero (0) when negative (N)
- P_u = direct tension per bolt due to the factored loadings (N)
- a = distance from center of bolt to edge of plate (mm)
- b = distance from center of bolt to the toe of fillet of connected part (mm)
- t = thickness of thinnest connected part (mm)

- C Eq.(6.243) for estimating the magnitude of the force due to prying is a simplification given in ASCE (1971) of a semi-empirical expression (Douty and McGuire, 1965).
- C This simplified formula tends to overestimate the prying force and provides conservative design results (Nair et al., 1974).

6.13.2.11. Combined Tension and Shear

The nominal tensile resistance of a bolt subjected to combined shear and axial tension, T_n , shall be taken as:

- If $\frac{P_u}{R_n} \leq 0.33$, then:

$$T_n = 0.76 A_b F_{ub} \quad (6.244)$$

- Otherwise:

$$T_n = 0.76 A_b F_{ub} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{P_u}{\phi_s R_n} \right)^2} \quad (6.245)$$

where:

- A_b = area of the bolt corresponding to the nominal diameter (mm²)
- F_{ub} = specified minimum tensile strength of the bolt specified in Article 6.4.3 (MPa)
- P_u = shear force on the bolt due to the factored loads (N)
- R_n = nominal shear resistance of a bolt specified in Article 6.13.2.7 (N)

- C The nominal tensile resistance of bolts subject to combined axial tension and shear is provided by elliptical interaction curves, which account for the connection length effect on bolts loaded in shear, the ratio of shear strength to tension strength of threaded bolts, and the ratios of root area to nominal body area and tensile stress area to nominal body area (Chesson et al., 1965). Eq.(6.244) and (6.245) are conservative simplifications of the set of elliptical curves. The equations representing the set of elliptical curves for various cases may be found in AISC (1988). No reduction in the nominal tensile resistance is required when the applied shear force on the bolt due to the factored loads is less than or equal to 33 percent of the nominal shear resistance of the bolt.

The nominal resistance of a bolt in slip-critical connections under Load Combination Service II, specified in Table 3.1, subjected to combined shear and axial tension, shall not exceed the nominal slip resistance specified in Article 6.13.2.8 multiplied by:

$$1 - \frac{T_u}{P_t} \quad (6.246)$$

where:

- T_u = tensile force due to the factored loads under Load Combination Service II (N)
 P_t = minimum required bolt tension specified in [Table 6.16](#) (N)

6.13.2.12. Shear Resistance of Anchor Bolts

The nominal shear resistance of an [ASTM F 1554](#) or an [ASTM A 307](#) Grade C anchor bolt at the strength limit state shall be taken as:

Where threads are included in the shear plane:

$$R_n = 0.48 A_b F_{ub} N_s \quad (6.247)$$

where:

- A_b = area of the anchor bolt corresponding to the nominal diameter (mm²)
 F_{ub} = specified minimum tensile strength of the anchor bolt specified in Article [6.4.3](#) (Mpa)
 N_s = number of shear planes per anchor bolt

- C Conditions typically exist in connections with anchor bolts such that the full resistance of each bolt is probably not entirely utilized when resisting applied shear forces. Oversize holes and other factors tend to cause non-uniformity in anchor stresses and thus, connection inefficiency. Due to these effects, a reduction factor of 0.8 should be applied to the 0.48 multiplier for Eq. [\(6.247\)](#) as appropriate.
- C See Article [6.13.2.7](#) for further commentary on strength reduction factors.
- C For global design of anchorages to concrete. Refer to building code requirements for structure concrete ([ACI 318-05](#)). Article [6.19](#).

6.13.3. Welded Connections

6.13.3.1. General

Base metal, weld metal, and welding design details shall conform to the requirements of the [AASHTO/AWS D1.5M/D1.5 Bridge Welding Code](#). Welding symbols shall conform to those specified in [AWS Publication A2.4](#).

Matching weld metal shall be used in groove and fillet welds, except that the Engineer may specify electrode classifications with strengths less than the base metal when detailing fillet welds, in which case the welding procedure and weld metal shall be selected to ensure sound welds.

- C Use of undermatched weld metal is highly encouraged for fillet welds connecting steels with specified minimum yield strength greater than 345MPa. Research has shown that undermatched welds are much less sensitive to delayed hydrogen cracking and are more likely to produce sound welds on a consistent basis.

6.13.3.2. Factored Resistance

1. General

The factored resistance of welded connections, R_r , at the strength limit state shall be taken as specified in Articles [6.13.3.2.2](#) through [6.13.3.2.4](#).

The effective area of the weld shall be taken as specified in Article 6.13.3.3. The factored resistance of the connection material shall be taken as specified in Article 6.13.5.

- C The factored resistance of a welded connection is governed by the resistance of the base metal or the deposited weld metal. The nominal resistance of fillet welds is determined from the effective throat area, whereas the nominal strength of the connected parts is governed by their respective thickness.
- C The classification strength of the weld metal can conservatively be taken as the classification number, EXX.
- C The letters XX stand for the minimum strength levels of the electrodes in ksi (multiply by 6.895 to convert to MPa).

2. Complete Penetration Groove-Welded Connections

a. Tension and Compression

The factored resistance of complete penetration groove-welded connections subjected to tension or compression normal to the effective area or parallel to the axis of the weld shall be taken as the factored resistance of the base metal.

- C In groove welds, the maximum forces are usually tension or compression. Tests have shown that groove welds of the same thickness as the connected parts are adequate to develop the factored resistance of the connected parts.

b. Shear

The factored resistance of complete penetration groove-welded connections subjected to shear on the effective area shall be taken as the lesser of the value given by Eq. (6.248) or 60 percent of the factored resistance of the base metal in tension:

$$R_r = 0.6 \phi_{el} F_{exx} \quad (6.248)$$

where:

F_{exx} = classification strength of the weld metal (MPa)

ϕ_{el} = resistance factor for the weld metal specified in Article 6.5.4.2

3. Partial Penetration Groove-Welded Connections

a. Tension or Compression

The factored resistance of partial penetration groove-welded connections subjected to tension or compression parallel to the axis of the weld or compression normal to the effective area shall be taken as the factored resistance of the base metal.

The factored resistance for partial penetration groove-welded connections subjected to tension normal to the effective area shall be taken as the lesser of either the value given by either Eq. (6.249) or the factored resistance of the base metal:

$$R_r = 0.6 \phi_{el} F_{exx} \quad (6.249)$$

where:

ϕ_{el} = resistance factor for the weld metal specified in Article 6.5.4.2

- C For restrictions on the use of partial penetration groove welds in this application, see Article [6.6.1.2.4](#).

b. Shear

The factored resistance of partial penetration groove-welded connections subjected to shear parallel to the axis of the weld shall be taken as the lesser of either the factored nominal resistance of the connected material specified in Article [6.13.5](#) or the factored resistance of the weld metal taken as:

$$R_r = 0.6 \phi_{e2} F_{exx} \quad (6.250)$$

where:

ϕ_{e2} = resistance factor for the weld metal as specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

4. Fillet-Welded Connections

a. Tension and Compression

The factored resistance for fillet-welded connections subjected to tension or compression parallel to the axis of the weld shall be taken as the factored resistance of the base metal.

- C Flange-to-web fillet-welded connections may be designed without regard to the tensile or compressive stress in those elements parallel to the axis of the welds.

b. Shear

The resistance of fillet welds in shear which are made with matched or undermatched weld metal and which have typical weld profiles shall be taken as the product of the effective area specified in Article [6.13.3.3](#) and the factored resistance of the weld metal taken as:

$$R_r = 0.6 \phi_{e2} F_{exx} \quad (6.251)$$

- C The factored resistance of fillet welds subjected to shear along the length of the weld is dependent upon the strength of the weld metal and the direction of applied load, which may be parallel or transverse to the weld. In both cases, the weld fails in shear, but the plane of rupture is not the same.
- C Shear yielding is not critical in welds because the material strain hardens without large overall deformations occurring. Therefore, the factored shear resistance is based on the shear strength of the weld metal multiplied by a suitable resistance factor to ensure that the connected part will develop its full strength without premature failure of the weldment.
- C If fillet welds are subjected to eccentric loads that produce a combination of shear and bending stresses, they must be proportioned on the basis of a direct vector addition of the shear forces on the weld.
- C It is seldom that weld failure will ever occur at the weld leg in the base metal. The applicable effective area for the base metal is the weld leg which is 30 percent greater than the weld throat. If overstrength weld metal is used or the weld throat has excessive convexity, the capacity can be governed by the weld leg and the shear fracture resistance of the base metal $0.6 F_u$.

6.13.3.3. Effective Area

The effective area shall be the effective weld length multiplied by the effective throat. The effective throat shall be the shortest distance from the joint root to the weld face.

- C Additional requirements can be found in the AASHTO/AWS D1.5M/D1.5 Bridge Welding Code, Article 2.3.

6.13.3.4. Size of Fillet Welds

The size of a fillet weld that may be assumed in the design of a connection shall be such that the forces due to the factored loadings do not exceed the factored resistance of the connection specified in Article [6.13.3.2](#).

The maximum size of fillet weld that may be used along edges of connected parts shall be taken as:

- For material less than 6 mm thick: the thickness of the material, and
- For material 6 mm or more in thickness: 2 mm less than the thickness of the material, unless the weld is designated on the contract documents to be built out to obtain full throat thickness.

The minimum size of fillet weld should be taken as specified in [Table 6.19](#). The weld size need not exceed the thickness of the thinner part joined. Smaller fillet welds may be approved by the Engineer based upon applied stress and the use of appropriate preheats.

Table 6.19: Minimum Size of Fillet Welds (mm).

Base Metal Thickness of Thicker Part Joined (T)	Minimum Size of Fillet Weld
$T \leq 20$	6
$20 < T$	8

- C The requirements for minimum size of fillet welds are based upon the quench effect of thick material on small welds, not on strength considerations. Very rapid cooling of weld metal may result in a loss of ductility. Further, the restraint to weld metal shrinkage provided by thick material may result in weld cracking. An 8-mm fillet weld is the largest that can be deposited in a single pass by manual process, but minimum preheat and interpass temperatures are to be provided.

6.13.3.5. Minimum Effective Length of Fillet Welds

The minimum effective length of a fillet weld shall be four times its size and in no case less than 40 mm.

6.13.3.6. Fillet Weld End Returns

Fillet welds that resist a tensile force not parallel to the axis of the weld or proportioned to withstand repeated stress shall not terminate at corners of parts or members. Where such returns can be made in the same plane, they shall be returned continuously, full size, around the corner, for a length equal to twice the weld size. End returns shall be indicated in the contract documents.

- C End returns should not be provided around transverse stiffeners.

Fillet welds deposited on the opposite sides of a common plane of contact between two parts shall be interrupted at a corner common to both welds.

6.13.3.7. Seal Welds

Seal welds should be a continuous weld combining the functions of sealing and strength, changing section only as required by strength or the requirements for minimum size fillet weld.

6.13.4. Block Shear Rupture Resistance

The web connection of coped beams and all tension connections, including connection plates, splice plates and gusset plates, shall be investigated to ensure that adequate connection material is provided to develop the factored resistance of the connection.

- C Block shear rupture is one of several possible failure modes for splices, connections, and gusset plates. Investigation of other failure modes and critical sections is still required, e.g., a net section extending across the full plate width, and, therefore, having no parallel planes, may be a more severe requirement for a girder flange or splice plate than the block shear rupture mode. The provisions of Articles [6.13.5](#), [6.13.6](#) and [6.14.2.8](#) should be consulted.
- C Tests on coped beams have indicated that a tearing failure mode can occur along the perimeter of the bolt holes (Birknoe and Gilmour, 1978). This block shear failure mode is one in which the resistance is determined by the sum of the nominal shear resistance on a failure path(s) and the nominal tensile resistance on a perpendicular segment. The block shear rupture mode is not limited to the coped ends of beams. Tension member connections are also susceptible. The block shear rupture mode should also be checked around the periphery of welded connections.
- C More recent tests (Ricles and Yura, 1983; Hardash and Bjorhovde, 1985) suggest that it is reasonable to add the yield strength on one plane to the fracture strength of the perpendicular plane. Therefore, two possible block shear strengths can be calculated: either fracture strength F_u on the net tensile section along with shear yielding, $0.58F_y$, on the gross section on the shear plane(s) or fracture $0.58 F_u$ on the net shear area(s) combined with yielding F_y on the gross tensile area.
- C The two formulae are consistent with the philosophy for tension members, where gross area is used for yielding, and the net area is used for fracture.

The connection shall be investigated by considering all possible failure planes in the member and connection plates. Such planes shall include those parallel and perpendicular to the applied forces. The planes parallel to the applied force shall be considered to resist only shear stresses. The planes perpendicular to the applied force shall be considered to resist only tension stresses.

The factored resistance of the combination of parallel and perpendicular planes shall be taken as:

- If $A_{tn} \geq 0.58 A_{vg}$, then:

$$R_r = \phi_{bs} (0.58F_y A_{vg} + F_u A_{tn}) \quad (6.252)$$

- Otherwise:

$$R_r = \phi_{bs} (0.58F_u A_{vn} + F_y A_{tg}) \quad (6.253)$$

where:

- A_{vg} = gross area along the plane resisting shear stress (mm^2)
- A_{vn} = net area along the plane resisting shear stress (mm^2)
- A_{tg} = gross area along the plane resisting tension stress (mm^2)
- A_{tn} = net area along the plane resisting tension stress (mm^2)
- F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the connected material (MPa)
- F_u = specified minimum tensile strength of the connected material specified in [Table 6.1](#) (MPa)
- ϕ_{bs} = resistance factor for block shear specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

- C The controlling resistance given by Eqs. [\(6.252\)](#) and [\(6.253\)](#) is selected by the ratio of A_{tn} to A_{vn} .

The gross area shall be determined as the length of the plane multiplied by the thickness of the component. The net area shall be the gross area, minus the number of

whole or fractional holes in the plane, multiplied by the nominal hole diameter specified in Table 6.14, plus 2.0 mm, times the thickness of the component.

In determining the net section of cuts carrying tension stress, the effect of staggered holes adjacent to the cuts shall be determined in accordance with Article 6.8.3. For net sections carrying shear stress, the full effective diameter of holes centered within two diameters of the cut shall be deducted. Holes further removed may be disregarded.

6.13.5. Connection Elements

6.13.5.1. General

This Article shall be applied to the design of connection elements such as splice plates, gusset plates, corner angles, brackets, and connection plates in tension or shear.

6.13.5.2. Tension

The factored resistance, R_r , in tension shall be taken as the least of the values given by either Eqs. (6.15) and (6.16) for yielding and fracture, respectively, or the block shear rupture resistance specified in Article 6.13.4.

In determining P_{nu} as specified in Eq. (6.16), for connection plates, splice plates, and gusset plates, the reduction factor, U , specified in Article 6.8.2.2, shall be taken to be equal to 1.0, and the net area of the plate, A_n , used in Eq. (6.16), shall not be taken as greater than 85 percent of the gross area of the plate.

- C Tests have shown that yield will occur on the gross section area before the tensile capacity of the net section is reached if the ratio $A_n/A_g \leq 0.85$ (Kulak et al., 1987).
- C Because the length of the connection plate, splice plate, or gusset plate is small compared to the member length, inelastic deformation of the gross section is limited.
- C Hence, the net area of the connecting element is limited to $0.85A_g$ in recognition of the limited inelastic deformation and to provide a reserve capacity.

6.13.5.3. Shear

For connection elements in shear, the factored resistance, R_r , shall be taken as:

$$R_r = \phi_v R_n \quad (6.254)$$

where:

- R_n = nominal resistance in shear (N)
- A_g = gross area of the connection element (mm^2)
- F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the connection element (MPa)
- ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear as specified in Article 6.5.4.2

6.13.6. Splices

6.13.6.1. Bolted Splices

1. General

Bolted splices shall be designed at the strength limit state to satisfy the requirements specified in Article 6.13.1.

Where a section changes at a splice, the smaller of the two connected sections shall be used in the design.

2. Tension Members

Splices for tension members shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article [6.13.5.2](#). Splices for tension members shall be designed using slip-critical connections as specified in Article [6.13.2.1.1](#).

3. Compression Members

Splices for compression members detailed with milled ends in full contact bearing at the splices and for which the contract documents specify inspection during fabrication and erection, may be proportioned for not less than 50 percent of the lower factored resistance of the sections spliced.

- C This is consistent with the provisions of past editions of the Standard Specifications which permitted up to 50 percent of the force in a compression member to be carried through a splice by bearing on milled ends of components.

Splices in truss chords, arch members, and columns should be located as near to the panel points as practicable and usually on that side where the smaller force effect occurs. The arrangement of plates, angles, or other splice elements shall be such as to make proper provision for all force effects in the component parts of the members spliced.

4. Flexural Members

a. General

In continuous spans, splices should be made at or near points of dead load contra-flexure. Web and flange splices in areas of stress reversal shall be investigated for both positive and negative flexure.

In both web and flange splices, there shall not be less than two rows of bolts on each side of the joint. Oversize or slotted holes shall not be used in either the member or the splice plates at bolted splices.

Bolted splices for flexural members shall be designed using slip critical connections as specified in Article [6.13.2.1.1](#). The connections shall also be proportioned to prevent slip during the erection of the steel and during the casting of the concrete deck.

The factored flexural resistance of the flanges at the point of splice at the strength limit state shall satisfy the applicable provisions of Article [6.10.6.2](#).

The flexural stresses due to the factored loads at the strength limit state and for checking slip of the bolted connections at the point of splice shall be determined using the gross section properties.

Bolted flange angle splices shall include two angles, one on each side of the flexural member.

- C For more information see Article [6.20.38](#) in Appendix D6.

b. Web Splices

Web splice plates and their connections shall be designed for shear, the moment due to the eccentricity of the shear at the point of splice and the portion of the flexural moment assumed to be resisted by the web at the point of splice. For all single box sections, and for multiple box sections in bridges not satisfying the requirements of Article [6.11.2.3](#), including horizontally curved bridges, or with box flanges that are not fully effective according to the provisions of Article [6.11.1.1](#), the shear shall be taken as

the sum of the flexural and St. Venant torsional shears in the web subjected to additive shears. For boxes with inclined webs, the web splice shall be designed for the component of the vertical shear in the plane of the web.

As a minimum, at the strength limit state, the design shear, V_{uw} , shall be taken as follows:

- If $0.5 V_u < 0.5 \phi_v V_n$, then:

$$V_{uw} = 1.5 V_u \quad (6.255)$$

- Otherwise:

$$V_{uw} = \frac{(V_u - \phi_v V_n)}{2} \quad (6.256)$$

where:

ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear specified in Article 6.5.4.2

V_u = shear due to the factored loading at the point of splice (N)

V_n = nominal shear resistance determined as specified in Articles 6.10.9.2 and 6.10.9.3 for unstiffened and stiffened webs, respectively (N)

The design shear at the strength limit state shall not exceed the lesser of the factored shear resistance of the web splice plates specified in Article 6.13.4 or the factored shear resistance of the web splice plates specified in Article 6.13.5.3.

The eccentricity of the design shear shall be taken as the distance from the centerline of the splice to the centroid of the connection on the side of the joint under consideration.

At the strength limit state, the flexural stress in the web splice plates shall not exceed the specified minimum yield strength of the splice plates times the resistance factor, ϕ_f , specified in Article 6.5.4.2.

Bolted connections for web splices shall be designed as slip-critical connections for the maximum resultant bolt design force. As a minimum, for checking slip of the web splice bolts, the design shear shall be taken as the shear at the point of splice under Load Combination Service II, as specified in Table 3.1.

Webs shall be spliced symmetrically by plates on each side. The splice plates shall extend as near as practical for the full depth between flanges.

C For more information see Article 6.20.39 in Appendix D6.

c. Flange Splices

At the strength limit state, splice plates and their connections on the controlling flange shall be proportioned to provide a minimum resistance taken as the design stress, F_{cf} , times the smaller effective flange area, A_e , on either side of the splice, where F_{cf} is defined as:

$$F_{cf} = \frac{\left(\left| \frac{f_{cf}}{R_h} \right| + \alpha \phi_f F_{yf} \right)}{2} \geq 0.75 \alpha \phi_f F_{yf} \quad (6.257)$$

in which A_e = effective area of the flange (mm^2). For compression flanges, A_e shall be taken as the gross area of the flange. For tension flanges, A_e shall be taken as:

$$A_e = \left(\frac{\phi_u F_u}{\phi_y F_{yt}} \right) A_n \leq A_g \quad (6.258)$$

where:

- f_{cf} = maximum flexural stress due to the factored loads at the midthickness of the controlling flange at the point of splice (MPa)
- R_h = hybrid factor specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1. For hybrid sections in which F_{cf} does not exceed the specified minimum yield strength of the web, the hybrid factor shall be taken as 1.0
- α = 1.0, except that a lower value equal to (F_n/F_{yf}) may be used for flanges where F_n is less than F_{yf}
- ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- F_n = nominal flexural resistance of the flange (MPa)
- F_{yf} = specified minimum yield strength of the flange (MPa)
- ϕ_u = resistance factor for fracture of tension members as specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- ϕ_y = resistance factor for yielding of tension members as specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- A_n = net area of the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.8.3 (mm²)
- A_g = gross area of the tension flange (mm²)
- F_u = specified minimum tensile strength of the tension flange determined as specified in Table 6.1 (MPa)
- F_{yt} = specified minimum yield strength of the tension flange (MPa)

Splice plates and their connections on the non-controlling flange at the strength limit state shall be proportioned to provide a minimum resistance taken as the design stress, F_{ncf} , times the smaller effective flange area, A_e , on either side of the splice, where F_{ncf} is defined as:

$$F_{ncf} = R_{cf} \left| \frac{f_{ncf}}{R_h} \right| \geq 0.75 \alpha \phi_f F_{yf} \quad (6.259)$$

where:

- R_{cf} = the absolute value of the ratio of F_{cf} to f_{cf} for the controlling flange
- f_{ncf} = flexural stress due to the factored loads at the mid-thickness of the non-controlling flange at the point of splice concurrent with f_{cf} (MPa)
- R_h = hybrid factor specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1. For hybrid sections in which f_{cf} does not exceed the specified minimum yield strength of the web, the hybrid factor shall be taken as 1.0

At the strength limit state, the design force in splice plates subjected to tension shall not exceed the factored resistance in tension specified in Article 6.13.5.2. The design force in splice plates subjected to compression shall not exceed the factored resistance, R_r , in compression taken as:

$$R_r = \phi_c F_y A_s \quad (6.260)$$

where:

- ϕ_c = resistance factor for compression as specified in Article 6.5.4.2

F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the splice plate (MPa)

A_s = gross area of the splice plate (mm²)

Bolted connections for flange splices shall be designed as slip-critical connections for the flange design force. As a minimum, for checking slip of the flange splice bolts, the design force for the flange under consideration shall be taken as the Service II design stress, F_s , times the smaller gross flange area on either side of the splice, where F_s is taken as:

$$F_s = \frac{f_s}{R_h} \quad (6.261)$$

where:

f_s = maximum flexural stress due to Load Combination Service II at the mid-thickness of the flange under consideration for the smaller section at the point of splice (MPa)

R_h = hybrid factor specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1. For hybrid sections in which f_s in the flange with the larger stress does not exceed the specified minimum yield strength of the web, the hybrid factor shall be taken as 1.0

Where filler plates are required, the provisions of Article 6.13.6.1.5 shall apply.

For all single box sections, and for multiple box sections in bridges not satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3, including horizontally curved bridges, or with box flanges that are not fully effective according to the provisions of Article 6.11.1.1, longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion shall be considered when checking bolted flange splices for slip and for fatigue. Longitudinal warping stresses may be ignored at the strength limit state. St. Venant torsional shear shall also be considered in the design of box-flange bolted splices for these sections at all limit states.

Where applicable, lateral bending effects in discretely braced top flanges of tub sections and in discretely braced flanges of I-sections shall be considered in the design of the bolted flange splices.

C For more information see Article 6.20.40 in Appendix D6.

5. Fillers

When bolts carrying loads pass through fillers 6.0 mm or more in thickness in axially loaded connections, including girder flange splices, either:

- The fillers shall be extended beyond the gusset or splice material, and the filler extension shall be secured by enough additional bolts to distribute the total stress in the member uniformly over the combined section of the member and the filler, or
- as an alternative, the fillers need not be extended and developed provided that the factored resistance of the bolts in shear at the strength limit state, specified in Article 6.13.2.2, is reduced by the following factor:

$$R = \left[\frac{(1 + \gamma)}{(1 + 2\gamma)} \right] \quad (6.262)$$

where:

$$\gamma = \frac{A_f}{A_p}$$

A_f = sum of the area of the fillers on the top and bottom of the connected plate (mm²)

A_p = smaller of either the connected plate area or the sum of the splice plate areas on the top and bottom of the connected plate (mm²)

For slip-critical connections, the factored slip resistance of a bolt at the Load Combination Service II need not be adjusted for the effect of the fillers.

Fillers 6.0 mm or more in thickness shall consist of not more than two plates, unless approved by the Engineer.

For bolted web splices with thickness differences of 2.0 mm or less, no filler plates are required.

The specified minimum yield strength of fillers 6.0 mm or greater in thickness should not be less than the larger of 70 percent of the specified minimum yield strength of the connected plate and 250 MPa.

C For more information see Article [6.20.41](#) in Appendix D6.

6.13.6.2. Welded Splices

Welded splice design and details shall conform to the requirements of the latest edition of **AASHTO/AWS D1.5M/D1.5 Bridge Welding Code** and the following provisions specified herein.

Welded splices shall be designed to resist the design moment, shear, or axial force specified in Article [6.13.1](#). Tension and compression members may be spliced by means of full penetration butt welds; splice plates should be avoided.

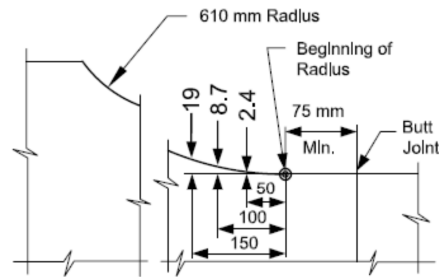
Welded field splices should be arranged to minimize overhead welding.

Material of different widths spliced by butt welds shall have symmetric transitions conforming to [Figure 6.4](#).

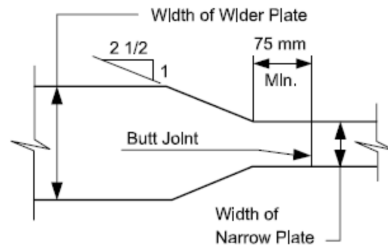
The type of transition selected shall be consistent with the Detail Categories of [Table 6.3](#) for the groove-welded splice connection used in the design of the member. The contract documents shall specify that butt weld splices joining material of different thicknesses be ground to a uniform slope between the offset surfaces, including the weld, of not more than 1 in 2.5.

C Flange width transition details typically show the transition starting at the butt splice. [Figure 6.4](#) shows a preferred detail where the splice is located a minimum of 75 mm from the transition for ease in fitting runoff tabs.

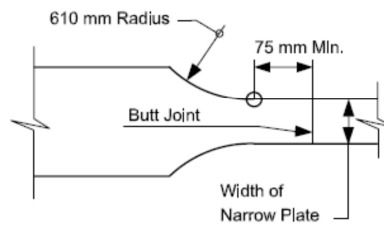
C Where possible, constant width flanges are preferred in a shipping piece.



(a) Detail of Width Transition



(b) Straight Tapered Transition



(c) 610 mm Radius Transition

Figure 6.4: Splice Details.

6.13.7. Rigid Frame Connections

6.13.7.1. General

All rigid frame connections shall be designed to resist the moments, shear, and axial forces due to the factored loading at the strength limit state.

- C The provisions for rigid frame connections are well documented in [Chapter 8 of ASCE \(1971\)](#).
- C The rigidity is essential to the continuity assumed as the basis for design.

6.13.7.2. Webs

The thickness of an un-stiffened beam web shall satisfy:

$$t_w \geq \sqrt{3} \left(\frac{M_c}{\phi_y F_y d_b d_c} \right) \quad (6.263)$$

where:

- F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the web (MPa)
- M_c = column moment due to the factored loadings (N-mm)

- d_b = beam depth (mm)
 d_c = column depth (mm)
 ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear as specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

When the thickness of the connection web is less than that given in Eq. [\(6.263\)](#), the web shall be strengthened by diagonal stiffeners or by a reinforcing plate in contact with the web over the connection area.

At knee joints where the flanges of one member are rigidly framed into the flange of another member, stiffeners shall be provided on the web of the second member opposite the compression flange of the first member where:

$$t_w < \frac{A_f}{t_b + 5k} \quad (6.264)$$

and opposite the tension flange of the first member where:

$$t_c < 0.4\sqrt{A_f} \quad (6.265)$$

where:

- T_w = thickness of web to be stiffened (mm)
 k = distance from outer face of flange to toe of web fillet of member to be stiffened (mm)
 t_b = thickness of flange transmitting concentrated force (mm)
 t_c = thickness of flange of member to be stiffened (mm)
 A_f = area of flange transmitting concentrated load (mm²)

- C The provision for checking the beam or connection web ensures adequate strength and stiffness of the steel frame connection.
 C In bridge structures, diagonal stiffeners of minimum thickness will provide sufficient stiffness. Alternately, web thickness may be increased in the connection region.
 C The provisions for investigating a member subjected to concentrated forces applied to its flange by the flanges of another member framing into it are intended to prevent crippling of the web and distortions of the flange. It is conservative to provide stiffeners of a thickness equal to that of the flanges of the other member.

6.14. PROVISIONS FOR STRUCTURE TYPES

6.14.1. Through-Girder Spans

Where beams or girders comprise the main members of through-spans, such members shall be stiffened against lateral deformation by means of gusset plates or knee braces with solid webs connected to the stiffeners on the main members and the floor-beams. Design of gusset plates shall satisfy the requirements of Article [6.14.2.8](#).

- C This requirement may be combined with other plate stiffening requirements.

6.14.2. Trusses

6.14.2.1. General

Trusses should have inclined end posts. Laterally unsupported hip joints shall be avoided.

Main trusses shall be spaced a sufficient distance apart, center-to-center, to prevent overturning.

Effective depths of the truss shall be assumed as follows:

- The distance between centers of gravity of bolted chords, and
- The distance between centers of pins.

6.14.2.2. Truss Members

- C Chord and web truss members should usually be made of H-shaped, channel shaped, or box-shaped members. The member or component thereof may be a rolled shape or a fabricated shape using welding or mechanical fasteners. Side plates or components should be solid. Cover plates or web plates may be solid or perforated.

Members shall be symmetrical about the central plane of the truss.

If the shape of the truss permits, compression chords shall be continuous.

- C In chords composed of angles in channel-shaped members, the vertical legs of the angles preferably should extend downward.

If web members are subject to reversal of stress, their end connections shall not be pinned.

Counters should be avoided.

- C Counters are sometimes used as web members of light trusses.
- C Counters should be rigid. If used, adjustable counters should have open turnbuckles, and in the design of these members an allowance of 70.0 MPa shall be made for initial stress. Only one set of diagonals in any panel should be adjustable. Sleeve nuts and loop bars should not be used.
- C The load factor for initial stress should be taken as 1.0.

6.14.2.3. Secondary Stresses

The design and details shall be such that secondary stresses will be as small as practicable. Stresses due to the dead load moment of the member shall be considered, as shall those caused by eccentricity of joints or working lines. Secondary stresses due to truss distortion or floor-beam deflection need not be considered in any member whose width measured parallel to the plane of distortion is less than one-tenth of its length.

6.14.2.4. Diaphragms

Diaphragms in trusses shall be provided according to the requirements specified in Article [6.7.4.4](#).

6.14.2.5. Camber

The length of the truss members shall be adjusted such that the camber will be equal to or greater than the deflection produced by the dead load.

The gross area of each truss member shall be used in computing deflections of trusses. If perforated plates are used, the effective area of the perforated plate shall be

the net volume between centers of perforations divided by the length from center-to-center of perforations.

Design requirements for perforated plates shall satisfy the requirements specified in Articles [6.8.5.2](#) and [6.9.4.3.2](#).

6.14.2.6. Working Lines and Gravity Axes

Main members shall be proportioned so that their gravity axes will be as nearly as practicable in the center of the section.

In compression members of unsymmetrical section, such as chord sections formed of side segments and a cover plate, the gravity axis of the section shall coincide as nearly as practicable with the working line, except that eccentricity may be introduced to counteract dead load flexure. In two-angle bottom chord or diagonal members, the working line may be taken as the gage line nearest the back of the angle or at the center of gravity for welded trusses.

6.14.2.7. Portal and Sway Bracing

1. General

The need for vertical cross-frames used as sway bracing in trusses shall be investigated. Any consistent structural analysis with or without intermediate sway bracing shall be acceptable as long as equilibrium, compatibility, and stability are satisfied for all applicable limit states.

2. Through-Truss Spans

Through-truss spans shall have portal bracing or the strength and stiffness of the truss system shall be shown to be adequate without a braced portal. If portal bracing is used, it should be of the two-plane or box-type, rigidly connected to the end post and the top chord flanges, and be as deep as the clearance will allow. If a single-plane portal is used, it should be located in the central transverse plane of the end posts, with diaphragms between the webs of the posts to provide for a distribution of the portal stresses.

The portal, with or without bracing, shall be designed to take the full reaction of the top chord lateral system, and the end posts shall be designed to transfer this reaction to the truss bearings.

3. Deck Truss Spans

Deck truss spans shall have sway bracing in the plane of the end posts, or the strength and stiffeners of the truss system shall be shown to be adequate. Where sway bracing is used, it shall extend the full depth of the trusses below the floor system, and the end sway bracing shall be proportioned to carry the entire upper lateral load to the supports through the end posts of the truss.

- C Generally, full depth sway bracing is easily accommodated in deck trusses, and its use is encouraged.

6.14.2.8. Gusset Plates

- C Gusset plates may be designed for shear, bending, and axial force effects by the conventional "Method-of-Section" procedures or by continuum methods.

The provisions of Articles [6.13.4](#) and [6.13.5](#) shall apply, as applicable.

Gusset or connection plates should be used for connecting main members, except where the members are pin-connected. The fasteners connecting each member shall be symmetrical with the axis of the member, so far as practicable, and the full development of the elements of the member should be given consideration.

Re-entrant cuts, except curves made for appearance, should be avoided as far as practicable.

The maximum stress from combined factored flexural and axial loads shall not exceed ϕF_y based on the gross area.

The maximum shear stress on a section due to the factored loads shall be $\phi_v F_y / \sqrt{3}$ for uniform shear and $\phi_v 0.74 F_y / \sqrt{3}$ for flexural shear computed as the factored shear force divided by the shear area.

If the length of the unsupported edge of a gusset plate exceeds $2.06(E/F_y)^{1/2}$ times its thickness, the edge shall be stiffened. Stiffened and un-stiffened gusset edges shall be investigated as idealized column sections.

- C Plastic shape factors or other parameters that imply plastification of the cross-section should not be used.

6.14.2.9. Half Through-Trusses

The vertical truss members and the floor-beams and their connections in half through-truss spans shall be proportioned to resist a lateral force of not less than 4.38 N/mm applied at the top chord panel points of each truss, considered as a permanent load for the Strength I Load Combination and factored accordingly.

The top chord shall be considered as a column with elastic lateral supports at the panel points.

- C A discussion of the buckling analysis of columns with elastic lateral supports is contained in [Timoshenko and Gere \(1961\)](#) and in [Galambos \(1998\)](#).

6.14.2.10. Factored Resistance

The factored resistance of tension members shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article [6.8.2](#). The factored resistance of compression members shall satisfy the requirements specified in Article [6.9.2](#). The nominal bending resistance of the members whose factored resistance is governed by interaction equations, specified in Articles [6.8.2.3](#) or [6.9.2.2](#), shall be evaluated as specified in Article [6.12](#).

6.14.3. Orthotropic Deck Superstructures

- C Orthotropic deck roadways may be used as upper or lower flanges of trusses, plate girder or box girder bridges, stiffening members of suspension or cable-stayed bridges, tension ties of arch bridges, etc.
- C Detailed provisions for the design of orthotropic decks are given in Article [7.8.3](#).

6.14.3.1. General

The provisions of this Article shall apply to the design of steel bridges that utilize a stiffened steel plate as a deck.

An orthotropic deck shall be considered an integral part of the bridge superstructure and shall participate in resisting global force effects on the bridge. Connections between the deck and the main structural members shall be designed for interaction effects specified in Article [7.4.1](#).

The effect of torsional distortions of the cross-sectional shape shall be accounted for in analyzing the girders of orthotropic box girder bridges.

6.14.3.2. Effective Width of Deck

The provisions of Article [4.6.2.6.4](#) shall apply.

6.14.3.3. Superposition of Global and Local Effects

1. General

In calculating extreme force effects in the deck, global and local effects shall be superimposed. Such combined force effects shall be computed for the same configuration and position of live load.

2. Decks in Global Tension

Factored resistance of decks subject to global tension, P_u , due to the factored loads with simultaneous global shear combined with local flexure shall satisfy:

$$\frac{P_u}{P_r} + \frac{M_{ur}}{M_{rr}} \leq 1.33 \quad (6.266)$$

in which:

$$P_u = A_{d,eff} \left(f_g^2 + 3f_{vg}^2 \right)^{0.5} \quad (6.267)$$

where:

- f_g = axial global stress in deck (MPa)
- f_{vg} = simultaneous global shear in deck (MPa)
- $A_{d,eff}$ = effective cross-section area of deck, including longitudinal ribs (mm^2)
- P_r = nominal tensile resistance of the deck, with consideration of effective width of deck (N)
- M_{ur} = local flexural moment of longitudinal rib due to the factored loads (N-mm)
- M_{rr} = flexural resistance of longitudinal rib, governed by reaching yield in extreme fiber (N-mm)

- C Reduction of combined superimposed local and global effects is justified by the small probability of a simultaneous occurrence of the maximum local and global tensile effects and large capacity of orthotropic decks for local overloads.
- C Global shear effects in orthotropic decks, acting simultaneously with global tensile effects, will increase governing tension in deck. This may be assessed by the Huber-Mises yield criterion used to define the total tensile force effect in Eq. [\(6.267\)](#). The effect of simultaneous shear is usually not significant in orthotropic roadways of girder or truss bridges, but it may be important in decks used as tension ties in arch or cable-stayed bridges.

3. Decks in Global Compression

Unless it can be shown by rigorous analysis that overall buckling of the deck will not occur as a result of global compression combined with local flexural compressive forces in the longitudinal ribs, longitudinal ribs, including effective width of deck plate, shall be designed as individual columns assumed to be simply-supported at transverse beams.

- C Elastic stability of orthotropic deck ribs under combined loading may be evaluated by formulas in [Appendix II of Wolchuk \(1963\)](#).

6.14.3.4. Transverse Flexure

The factored moment resistances of the transverse beams and deck plate shall be such that:

$$\frac{M_{fb}}{M_{rb}} + \frac{M_{fr}}{M_{rt}} \leq 1.0 \quad (6.268)$$

where:

- M_{fb} = applied moment due to the factored loads in transverse beam (N-mm)
- M_{rb} = factored moment resistance of transverse beam (N-mm)
- M_{fr} = applied transverse moment in the deck plate due to the factored loads as a result of the plate carrying wheel loads to adjacent longitudinal ribs (N-mm)
- M_{rt} = factored moment resistance of deck plate in carrying wheel loads to adjacent ribs (N-mm)

For deck configurations in which the spacing of transverse beams is at least three times the spacing of longitudinal rib webs, the second term in Eq. [\(6.268\)](#) may be omitted.

6.14.3.5. Diaphragms

Diaphragms or cross-frames shall be provided at each support and shall have sufficient stiffness and strength to transmit lateral forces to the bearings and to resist transverse rotation, displacement, and distortion.

Intermediate diaphragms or cross-frames shall be provided at locations consistent with the analysis of the girders and shall have sufficient stiffness and strength to resist transverse distortions.

6.14.4. Solid Web Arches

6.14.4.1. Moment Amplification for Deflection

For moment amplification, provisions specified in Article [4.5.3.2.2.c](#) shall be satisfied.

6.14.4.2. Web Slenderness

The slenderness of the webs of arch ribs shall satisfy:

$$\frac{D}{t_w} \leq k \sqrt{\frac{E}{f_a}} \quad (6.269)$$

where:

- f_a = axial stress due to the factored loads (MPa)
- k = plate stability factor specified in [Table 6.20](#)

Table 6.20: Plate Slenderness of Arches.

Condition	k	I_s
No longitudinal stiffener	1.25	—
One longitudinal stiffener	1.88	$I_s = 0.75D t_w^3$
Two longitudinal stiffeners	2.51	$I_s = 2.2 D t_w^3$

The moment of inertia of the stiffeners about an axis parallel to the web at the base of the stiffener shall not be less than that specified in [Table 6.20](#).

The width to thickness ratio for the stiffeners shall satisfy:

$$\frac{h}{t_s} \leq 0.408 \sqrt{\frac{E}{f_a + \frac{f_b}{3}}} \leq 12 \quad (6.270)$$

where:

f_b = maximum stress due to the factored loads, including moment amplification (MPa)

6.14.4.3. Flange Stability

The width-to-thickness ratio of flanges shall satisfy:

- For the width between webs:

$$\frac{b}{t} \leq 1.06 \sqrt{\frac{E}{f_a + f_b}} \quad (6.271)$$

- For overhang widths:

$$\frac{b}{t} \leq 0.408 \sqrt{\frac{E}{f_a + f_b}} \leq 12 \quad (6.272)$$

6.15. PILES

6.15.1. General

Piles shall be designed as structural members capable of safely supporting all imposed loads.

For a pile group composed of only vertical piles which is subjected to lateral load, the pile structural analysis shall include explicit consideration of soil-structure interaction effects as specified in Article [8.7.3.9](#).

- C Typically, due to the lack of a detailed soil-structure interaction analysis of pile groups containing both vertical and battered piles, evaluation of combined axial and flexural loading will only be applied to pile groups containing all vertical piles.

6.15.2. Structural Resistance

Resistance factors, ϕ_c and ϕ_f , for the strength limit state shall be taken as specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#). The resistance factors for axial resistance of piles in compression which are subject to damage due to driving shall be applied only to that section of the pile likely to experience damage. Therefore, the specified ϕ_c factors for axial resistance of 0.50 to 0.70 for piles in compression without bending shall be applied only to the axial capacity of the pile. The ϕ_c factors of 0.70 and 0.80 and the ϕ_f factor of 1.00 shall be

applied to the combined axial and flexural resistance of the pile in the interaction equation for the compression and flexure terms, respectively.

C For more information see Article [6.20.42](#) in Appendix D6.

6.15.3. Compressive Resistance

6.15.3.1. Axial Compression

For piles under axial load, the factored resistance of piles in compression, P_r , shall be taken as specified in Article [6.9.2.1](#) using the resistance factor, ϕ_c , specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#).

6.15.3.2. Combined Axial Compression and Flexure

Piles subjected to axial load and flexure shall be designed in accordance with Article [6.9.2.2](#) using the resistance factors, ϕ_c and ϕ_f , specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#).

6.15.3.3. Buckling

Instability of piles which extend through water or air shall be accounted for as specified in Article [6.9](#). Piles which extend through water or air shall be assumed to be fixed at some depth below the ground. Stability shall be determined in accordance with provisions in Article [6.9](#) for compression members using an equivalent length of the pile equal to the laterally unsupported length, plus an embedded depth to fixity. The depth to fixity shall be determined in accordance with Article [8.7.3.13.3](#) for battered piles or P - Δ analysis for vertical piles.

C An approximate method acceptable to the Engineer may be used in lieu of a P - Δ analysis.

6.15.4. Maximum Permissible Driving Stresses

Maximum permissible driving stresses for top driven steel piles shall be taken as specified in Article [8.7.8](#).

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6.17. APPENDIX A6: FLEXURAL RESISTANCE OF STRAIGHT COMPOSITE I-SECTIONS IN NEGATIVE FLEXURE AND STRAIGHT NONCOMPOSITE I-SECTIONS WITH COMPACT OR NONCOMPACT WEBS

6.17.1. General

These provisions shall apply only to sections in straight bridges that satisfy the following requirements:

- the specified minimum yield strengths of the flanges and web do not exceed 485 MPa,
- the web satisfies the non-compact slenderness limit:

$$\frac{2D_c}{t_w} < 5.7 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (\text{A6.1})$$

and:

- the flanges satisfy the following ratio:

$$\frac{I_{yc}}{I_{yt}} \geq 0.3 \quad (\text{A6.2})$$

where:

- D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.1.
- L_{yc} = moment of inertia of the compression flange of the steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm⁴)
- I_{yt} = moment of inertia of the tension flange of the steel section about the vertical axis in the plane of the web (mm⁴)

Otherwise, the section shall be proportioned according to the provisions specified in Article 6.10.8.

Sections designed according to these provisions shall qualify as either compact web sections or noncompact web sections determined as specified in Article 6.17.2.

- C The optional provisions of Article 6.17 account for the ability of compact and noncompact web I-sections to develop flexural resistances significantly greater than M_y when the web slenderness, $2D_c/t_w$, is well below the noncompact limit of Eq. (A6.1), which is a restatement of Eq. (6.80), and when sufficient requirements are satisfied with respect to the flange specified minimum yield strengths, the compression-flange slenderness, $B_{fc}/2t_{fc}$ and the lateral brace spacing. These provisions also account for the beneficial contribution of the St. Venant torsional constant, J . This may be useful, particularly under construction situations, for sections with compact or noncompact webs having larger unbraced lengths for which additional lateral torsional buckling resistance may be required. Also, for heavy column shapes with $D/b_f < 1.7$, which may be used as beam-columns in steel frames, both the inelastic and elastic buckling resistances are heavily influenced by J . The potential benefits of the Article 6.17 provisions tend to be small for I-sections with webs that approach the noncompact web slenderness limit of Eq. (A6.1). For these cases, the simpler and more streamlined provisions of Article 6.10.8 are recommended.
- C The potential gains in economy by using Article 6.17 increase with decreasing web slenderness. The Engineer should give strong consideration to utilizing Appendix A for sections in which the web is

compact or nearly compact. In particular, the provisions of Article 6.17 are recommended for sections with compact webs, as defined in Article 6.17.2.1.

- C The provisions of Article 6.17 are fully consistent with and are a direct extension of the main procedures in Article 6.10.8 in concept and in implementation. The calculation of potential flexural resistances greater than M_y is accomplished through the use of the web plastification parameters R_{pc} and R_{pt} of Article 6.17.2, corresponding to flexural compression and tension, respectively. These parameters are applied much like the web bend-buckling and hybrid girder parameters R_b and R_h in the main specification provisions. I-section members with specified minimum yield strength of the flanges greater than 485 MPa are more likely to be limited by Eq. (A6.1) and are likely to be controlled by design considerations other than the Strength Load Combinations in ordinary bridge construction. In cases where Eq. (A6.1) is satisfied with $F_{yc} > 485$ MPa, the implications of designing such members in general using a nominal flexural resistance greater than M_y have not been sufficiently studied to merit the use of Article 6.17.
- C Eq. (A6.2) is specified to guard against extremely monosymmetric noncomposite I-sections, in which analytical studies indicate a significant loss in the influence of the St. Venant torsional rigidity GJ on the lateral-torsional buckling resistance due to cross-section distortion. The influence of web distortion on the lateral torsional buckling resistance is larger for such members. If the flanges are of equal thickness, this limit is equivalent to $b_{fc} \geq 0.67b_f$.

6.17.1.1. Sections with Discretely Braced Tension Flanges

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$M_u + \frac{1}{3} f_e S_{xt} \leq \phi_f M_{nt} \quad (\text{A6.3})$$

where:

- M_{nt} = nominal flexural resistance based on tension yielding determined as specified in Article 6.17.4 (N-mm)
- M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- S_{xt} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the tension flange taken as M_{yt}/F_{yt} (mm^3)

- C Eq. (6.3) for discretely braced compression flanges, but applies to the case of discretely braced flanges in flexural tension due to the major-axis bending moment.
- C When f_t is equal to zero and M_{yc} is less than or equal to M_{yt} the flexural resistance based on the tension flange does not control and Eq. (6.3) need not be checked. The web plastification factor for tension flange yielding, R_{pt} from Article 6.17.2 also need not be computed for this case.
- C Eq. (A6.3) addresses the effect of combined major-axis bending and compression flange lateral bending using an interaction equation approach. This equation expresses the flexural resistance in terms of the section major-axis bending moment, M_u , and the flange lateral bending stress, f_t , computed from an elastic analysis, applicable within the limits on f_t specified in Article 6.10.1.6 (White and Grubb, 2005).
- C For adequately braced sections with a compact web and compression flange, Eqs. (A6.3) and (A6.4) are generally a conservative representation of the resistance obtained by procedures that address the effect of flange wind moments given in Article 6.10.3.5.1 of AASHTO (2004). In the theoretical limit that the web area becomes negligible relative to the flange area, these equations closely approximate the results of an elastic-plastic section analysis in which a fraction of the width from the tips of the flanges is deducted to accommodate the flange lateral bending. The conservatism of these equations relative to the theoretical solution increases with increasing $D_{cp}t_w/b_{fc}t_{fc}$, and/or $|D_{cp} - D_c|$. The conservatism at the limit on f_t specified by Eq. (6.44) ranges from about three to ten percent for practical flexural I-sections.

- C The multiplication of f_r by S_{xc} in Eq. (A6.3) and by S_{xt} in Eq. (A6.4) stems from the derivation of these equations, and is explained further in White and Grubb (2005). These equations may be expressed in a stress format by dividing both sides by the corresponding elastic section modulus, in which case, Eq. (A6.3) reduces effectively to Eqs. (6.69) and (6.91) in the limit that the web approaches its noncompact slenderness limit. Correspondingly, Eq. (A6.4) reduces effectively to Eqs. (6.87) and (6.92) in this limit.
- C The elastic section moduli, S_{xc} in this Article and S_{xt} in Article 6.17.1.2, are defined as M_{yc}/F_{yc} and M_{yt}/F_{yt} respectively, where M_{yc} and M_{yt} are calculated as specified in Article 6.19.2. This definition is necessary so that for a composite section with a web proportioned precisely at the noncompact limit given by Eq. (A6.3), the flexural resistance predicted by Article 6.17 is approximately the same as that predicted by Article 6.10.8. Differences between these predictions are due to the simplifying assumptions of $J = 0$ versus $J \neq 0$ in determining the elastic lateral torsional buckling resistance and the limiting unbraced length L_r , the use of $k_c = 0.35$ versus the use of k_c from Eq. (A6.19) in determining the limiting slenderness for a noncompact flange, and the use of a slightly different definition for F_{yr} . The maximum potential flexural resistance, shown as F_{max} in Figure 6.12, is defined in terms of the flange stresses as $R_h F_{yt}$ for a section with a web proportioned precisely at the noncompact web limit and designed according to the provisions of Article 6.10.8, where R_h is the hybrid factor defined in Article 6.10.1.10.1. As discussed in Article 6.10.1.1.1 a, for composite sections, the elastically computed flange stress to be compared to this limit is to be taken as the sum of the stresses caused by the loads applied separately to the steel, short-term composite and long-term composite sections.
- C The resulting provisions of Article 6.10.8 are a reasonable strength prediction for slender-web sections in which the web is proportioned precisely at the noncompact limit. By calculating S_{xc} and S_{xt} in the stated manner, elastic section moduli are obtained that, when multiplied by the corresponding flexural resistances predicted from Article 6.10.8 for the case of a composite slender-web section proportioned precisely at the noncompact web limit, produce approximately the same flexural resistances as predicted in Article 6.17.
- C For composite sections with web slenderness values that approach the compact web limit of Eq. (A6.7), the effects of the loadings being applied to the different steel, short-term and long-term sections are nullified by the yielding within the section associated with the development of the stated flexural resistance. Therefore, for compact web sections, these Specifications define the maximum potential flexural resistance, shown as M_{max} in Figure 6.12, as the plastic moment M_p , which is independent of the effects of the different loadings.

6.17.1.2. Sections with Continuously Braced Compression Flanges

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$M_u \leq \phi_f R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (\text{A6.4})$$

where:

- M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- R_{pc} = web plastification factor for the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2.1 or Article 6.19.3.2, as applicable

- C Flange lateral bending need not be considered in continuously braced flanges, as discussed further in Article 6.10.1.6.

6.17.1.3. Sections with Continuously Braced Tension Flanges

At the strength limit state, the following requirement shall be satisfied:

$$M_u \leq \phi_f R_{pt} M_{yt} \quad (\text{A6.5})$$

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where:

M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)

R_{pt} = web plastification factor for the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2.1 or Article 6.19.3.2, as applicable

6.17.2. Web Plastification Factors

6.17.2.1. Compact Web Sections

Sections that satisfy the following requirement shall qualify as compact web sections:

$$\frac{2D_{cp}}{t_w} \leq \lambda_{pw(D_{cp})} \quad (A6.6)$$

in which:

$\lambda_{pw(D_{cp})}$ = limiting slenderness ratio for a compact web corresponding to $2D_{cp}/t_w$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}}}{\left(0.54 \frac{M_p}{R_h M_y} - 0.09\right)^2} \leq \lambda_{rw} \left(\frac{D_{cp}}{D_c}\right) \quad (A6.7)$$

λ_{rw} = limiting slenderness ratio for a noncompact web

$$= 5.7 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (A6.8)$$

where:

D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.1.

D_{cp} = depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.2 (mm)

M_y = yield moment taken as the smaller of M_{yc} and M_{yt} determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)

R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

The web plastification factors shall be taken as:

$$R_{pc} = \frac{M_p}{M_{yc}} \quad (A6.9)$$

$$R_{pt} = \frac{M_p}{M_{yt}} \quad (A6.10)$$

where:

M_p = plastic moment determined as specified in Article 6.19.1 (N-mm)

- M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- R_{pc} = web plastification factor for the compression flange
- R_{pt} = web plastification factor for tension flange yielding

Eq. (A6.6) ensures that the section is able to develop the full plastic moment capacity M_p provided that other flange slenderness and lateral torsional bracing requirements are satisfied. This limit is significantly less than the noncompact web limit shown in Table 6.11. It is generally satisfied by rolled I-shapes, but typically not by the most efficient built-up section proportions.

Eq. (A6.7) is a modified web compactness limit relative to prior Specifications that accounts for the higher demands on the web in noncomposite monosymmetric I-sections and in composite I-sections in negative bending with larger shape factors, M_p/M_y (White and Barth, 1998; Barth et al., 2005). This updated web compactness limit eliminates the need for providing an interaction equation between the web and flange compactness requirements (AASHTO, 1996, 2004). Eq. (A6.7) reduces to the previous web compactness limit given by Eq. 6.10.4.1.2-1 in AASHTO (2004) when $M_p/M_y = 1.12$, which is representative of the shape factor for doubly-symmetric noncomposite I-sections. The previous web compactness limit is retained in Eq. (6.79) for composite sections in positive flexure since research does not exist to quantify the web compactness requirements for these types of sections with any greater precision, and also since most composite sections in positive flexure easily satisfy this requirement.

The compactness restrictions on the web imposed by Eq. (A6.7) are approximately the same as the requirements implicitly required for development of the plastic moment resistance, M_p , by the Q formula in AASHTO (2004). Both of these requirements are plotted as a function of M_p/M_y for $F_{yc} = 345$ MPa in Figure A6.1.

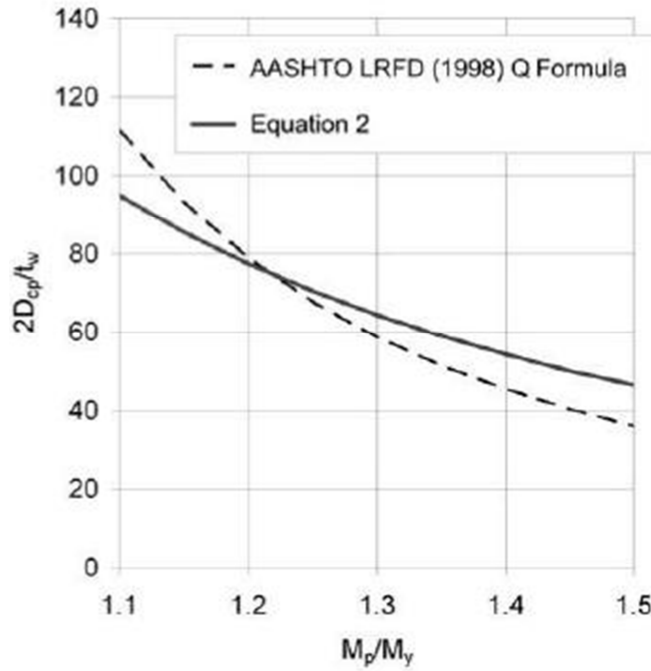


Figure A6.1: Web Compactness Limits as a Function of M_p/M_y from the AASHTO (2004) Q formula and from Eq. (A6.7) for $F_{yc} = 345$ MPa.

For a compact web section, the maximum potential moment resistance, represented by M_{max} in Figure 6.12, is simply equal to M_p . Eqs. (A6.9) and (A6.10) capture this attribute and eliminate the need to repeat the subsequent flexural resistance equations in a nearly identical fashion for compact and noncompact web sections. For a compact web section, the web plastification factors are equivalent to the cross-section shape factors.

6.17.2.2. Noncompact Web Sections

Sections that do not satisfy the requirement of Eq. (A6.6), but for which the web slenderness satisfies the following requirement:

$$\lambda_w < \lambda_{rw} \quad (\text{A6.11})$$

shall qualify as noncompact web sections, where:

λ_w = slenderness ratio for the web based on the elastic moment

$$= \frac{2D_c}{t_w} \quad (\text{A6.12})$$

λ_{rw} = limiting slenderness ratio for a noncompact web

$$= 5.7 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (\text{A6.13})$$

D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.1.

The web plastification factors shall be taken as:

$$R_{pc} = \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{R_h M_{yc}}{M_p} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda_w - \lambda_{pw(D_c)}}{\lambda_{rw} - \lambda_{pw(D_c)}} \right) \right] \frac{M_p}{M_{yc}} \leq \frac{M_p}{M_{yc}} \quad (\text{A6.14})$$

$$R_{pt} = \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{R_h M_{yt}}{M_p} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda_w - \lambda_{pw(D_c)}}{\lambda_{rw} - \lambda_{pw(D_c)}} \right) \right] \frac{M_p}{M_{yt}} \leq \frac{M_p}{M_{yt}} \quad (\text{A6.15})$$

where:

$$\lambda_{pw(D_c)} = \lambda_{pw(D_{cp})} \left(\frac{D_c}{D_{cp}} \right) \leq \lambda_{rw} \quad (\text{A6.16})$$

- C Eqs. (A6.14) and (A6.15) account for the influence of the web slenderness on the maximum potential flexural resistance, M_{max} in Figure 6.12, for noncompact web sections. As $2D_c/t_w$ approaches the noncompact web limit λ_{rw} , R_{pc} and R_{pt} approach values equal to R_h and the maximum potential flexural resistance expressed within the subsequent limit state equations approaches a limiting value of $R_h M_y$. As $2D_c/t_w$ approaches the compact web limit $\lambda_{pw(D_{cp})}$, Eqs. (A6.14) and (A6.15) define a smooth transition in the maximum potential flexural resistance, expressed by the subsequent limit state equations, from M_y to the plastic moment resistance M_p . For a compact web section, the web plastification factors R_{pc} and R_{pt} are simply the section shape factors corresponding to the compression and tension flanges, M_p/M_{yc} and M_p/M_{yt} . The subsequent flexural resistance equations are written using R_{pc} and R_{pt} for these types of sections rather than expressing the maximum resistance simply as M_p to avoid repetition of strength equations that are otherwise identical.
- C In Eqs. (A6.14) and (A6.15), explicit maximum limits of M_p/M_{yc} and M_p/M_{yt} are placed on R_{pc} and R_{pt} , respectively. As a result, the larger of the base resistances, $R_{pc} M_{yc}$ or $R_{pt} M_{yt}$, is limited to M_p . for a highly monosymmetric section in which M_{yc} or M_{yt} can be greater than M_p . The limits on I_y/I_t given in Article 6.10.2.2 will tend to prevent the use of extremely monosymmetric sections that have M_{yc} or M_{yt} values greater than M_p . The upper limits on R_{pc} and R_{pt} have been provided to make Eqs. (A6.14) and (A6.15) theoretically correct in these extreme cases, even though the types of monosymmetric sections where these limits control will not likely occur.
- C Eq. (A6.16) converts the web compactness limit given by Eq. (A6.7), which is defined in terms of D_{cp} , to a value that can be used consistently in terms of D_c in Eqs. (A6.14) and (A6.15). In cases where $D_c/D > 0.5$, D_{cp}/D is typically larger than D_c/D ; therefore, $\lambda_{pw(D_c)}$ is smaller than $\lambda_{pw(D_{cp})}$.
- C However, when $D_c/D < 0.5$, D_{cp}/D is typically smaller than D_c/D and $\lambda_{pw(D_c)}$ is larger than $\lambda_{pw(D_{cp})}$. In extreme cases where D_c/D is significantly less than 0.5, the web slenderness associated with the elastic cross-section, $2D_c/t_w$ can be larger than λ_{rw} while that associated with the plastic cross-section, $2D_{cp}/t_w$, can be smaller than $\lambda_{pw(D_{cp})}$ without the upper limit on $\lambda_{rw}(D_{cp}/D_c)$ that is placed on this value. That is, the elastic web is classified as slender while the plastic web is classified as compact. In these cases, the compact web limit is defined as $\lambda_{pw(D_{cp})} = \lambda_{rw}(D_{cp}/D_c)$. This is a conservative approximation aimed at protecting against the occurrence of end-buckling in the web prior to reaching the section plastic resistance.
- C The ratio D_c/D is generally greater than 0.5 for noncomposite sections with a smaller flange in compression, such as typical composite I-girders in positive bending before they are made composite.

6.17.3. Flexural Resistance Based On The Compression Flange

6.17.3.1. General

The nominal flexural resistance based on the compression flange shall be taken as the smallest of the local buckling resistance determined as specified in Article 6.17.3.2, and the lateral torsional buckling resistance determined as specified in Article 6.13.3.3.

- C All of the I-section compression-flange flexural resistance equations of these Specifications are based consistently on the logic of identifying the two anchor points shown in Figure 6.12 for the case of uniform major-axis bending. Anchor point 1 is located at the length $L_b = L_p$ for lateral torsional buckling (LTB) or the flange slenderness $b_{fc}/2t_{fc} = \lambda_{pf}$ for flange local buckling (FLB) corresponding to development of the maximum potential flexural resistance, labeled as F_{max} or M_{max} in the figure, as applicable. Anchor point 2 is located at the length L_r or flange slenderness λ_{rf} for which the inelastic and elastic LTB or FLB resistances are the same.
- C In this Article, this resistance is taken as $R_b F_{yr} S_{xc}$ where F_{yr} is taken as the smaller of $0.7F_{yc}$, F_{yw} , or $R_h F_{yt} S_{xt}/S_{xc}$, but not smaller than $0.5F_{yc}$. The first two of these resistances are the same as in Article 6.10.8. The third resistance expression, $R_h F_{yt} S_{xt}/S_{xc}$, which is simply the elastic compression-flange stress at the cross-section moment $R_h F_{yt} S_{xt} = R_h M_{yt}$ is specific to this Article and captures the effects of significant early tension-flange yielding in sections with a small depth of web in compression. In sections that have this characteristic, the early tension-flange yielding invalidates the elastic lateral torsional buckling equation on which the noncompact bracing limit L_r is based, and also makes the corresponding elastic flange local buckling equation suspect due to potential significant inelastic redistribution of stresses to the compression flange. The limit $R_h F_{yt} S_{xt}/S_{xc}$ rarely controls for bridge I-girders, but it may control in some instances of pier negative moment sections in composite continuous spans, prior to the section becoming composite, in which the top flange is significantly smaller than the bottom flange. For $L_b > L_r$ or $b_{fc}/2t_{fc} > \lambda_{rf}$, the LTB and FLB resistances are governed by elastic buckling. However, the elastic FLB resistance equations are not specified explicitly in these provisions since the limits of Article 6.10.2.2 preclude elastic FLB for specified minimum yield strengths up to and including $F_{yc} = 485$ MPa, which is the limiting yield strength for the application of the provisions of Article 6.17.
- C For unbraced lengths subjected to moment gradient, the LTB resistances for the case of uniform major-axis bending are simply scaled by the moment gradient modifier C_b , with the exception that the LTB resistance is capped at F_{max} or M_{max} , as illustrated by the dashed line in Figure 6.12. The maximum unbraced length at which the LTB resistance is equal to F_{max} or M_{max} under a moment gradient may be determined from Article 6.19.4.1 or 6.19.4.2, as applicable. The FLB resistance for moment gradient cases is the same as that for the case of uniform major-axis bending, neglecting the relatively minor influence of moment gradient effects.

6.17.3.2. Local Buckling Resistance

The flexural resistance based on compression flange local buckling shall be taken as:

- If $\lambda_f \leq \lambda_{pf}$, then:

$$M_{nc} = R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (A6.17)$$

- Otherwise:

$$M_{nc} = \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{F_{yr} S_{xc}}{R_{pc} M_{yc}} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda_f - \lambda_{pf}}{\lambda_{rf} - \lambda_{pf}} \right) \right] R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (A6.18)$$

in which:

λ_f = slenderness ratio for the compression flange

$$\lambda_f = \frac{b_{fc}}{2t_{fc}} \quad (A6.19)$$

λ_{pf} = limiting slenderness ratio for a compact flange

$$= 0.38 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (\text{A6.20})$$

λ_{tf} = limiting slenderness ratio for a non-compact flange

$$= 0.95 \sqrt{\frac{EK_c}{F_{yr}}} \quad (\text{A6.21})$$

K_c = flange local buckling coefficient

- For built-up sections:

$$= \frac{4}{\sqrt{\frac{D}{t_w}}} \quad (\text{A6.22})$$

$$0.35 \leq K_c \leq 0.76$$

- For rolled shapes:

$$= 0.76$$

where:

F_{yr} = compression-flange stress at the onset of nominal yielding within the cross-section, including residual stress effects, but not including compression-flange lateral bending, taken as the smaller of $0.7F_{yc}$, $R_h F_{yt}$, S_{xt}/S_{xc} and F_{yw} , but not less than $0.5F_{yc}$

M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)

M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)

R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1

R_{pc} = web plastification factor for the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.17.2.1 or Article 6.17.2.2, as applicable

S_{xc} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the compression flange taken as M_{yc}/F_{yc} (mm³)

S_{xt} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the tension flange taken as M_{yt}/F_{yt} (mm³)

- C Eq. (A6.20) defines the slenderness limit for a compact flange, whereas Eq. (A6.21) gives the slenderness limit for a noncompact flange. The nominal flexural resistance of a section with a compact flange is independent of the flange slenderness, whereas the flexural resistance of a section with a noncompact flange is expressed as a linear function of the flange slenderness as illustrated in Figure 6.12. The compact flange slenderness limit is the same as specified in AISC (2005), AASHTO (1996,2004), and Article 6.10.8.2.2. For different grades of steel, this slenderness limit is specified in Table 6.13. All current ASTM W shapes except W530x71, W360x147, W360x134, W310x97, W250x17.9, W200x46.1, W200x15, W150x22.5, W150x13.5 and W150x12.7 have compact flanges at $F_y < 345$ MPa.

- C Eq. (A6.22) for the flange local buckling coefficient comes from the implementation of Johnson's (1985) research in AISC (2005). The value $k_c = 0.35$ is a lower bound to values back calculated by

equating the resistances from these provisions, or those of Article 6.10.8.2.2 where this Article is not applicable, to the measured resistances from Johnson's and other tests such as those conducted by Basler et al. (1960). Tests ranging from $D/t_w = 72$ to 245 were considered. One of the tests from Basler et al. (1960) with $D/t_w = 185$, in which the compression flange was damaged in a previous test and then subsequently straightened and cut-back to a narrower width prior to retesting, exhibited a back-calculated k_c of 0.28. This test was not considered in selecting the lower bound. Other tests by Johnson (1985) that had higher D/t_w values exhibited back-calculated k_c values greater than 0.4. A value of $k_c = 0.43$ is obtained for ideally simply-supported boundary conditions at the web-flange juncture (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961). Smaller values of k_c correspond to the fact that web local buckling in more slender webs tends to destabilize the compression flange. The value of $k_c = 0.76$ for rolled shapes is taken from AISC (2005).

6.17.3.3. Lateral Torsional Buckling Resistance

For unbraced lengths in which the member is prismatic, the flexural resistance based on lateral torsional buckling shall be taken as:

- If $L_b \leq L_p$, then:

$$M_{nc} = R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (A6.23)$$

- If $L_p < L_b \leq L_r$, then:

$$M_{nc} = C_b \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{F_{yr} S_{xc}}{R_{pc} M_{yc}} \right) \left(\frac{L_b - L_p}{L_r - L_p} \right) \right] R_{pc} M_{yc} \leq R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (A6.24)$$

- If $L_b > L_r$, then:

$$M_{nc} = F_{cr} S_{xc} \leq R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (A6.25)$$

in which:

L_b = unbraced length (mm)

L_p = limiting unbraced length to achieve the nominal flexural resistance $R_{pc} M_{yc}$ under uniform bending (mm)

$$= 1.0 r_t \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (A6.26)$$

L_r = limiting unbraced length to achieve the nominal onset of yielding in either flange under uniform bending with consideration of compression flange residual stress effects (mm)

$$= 1.95 r_t \frac{E}{F_{yr}} \sqrt{\frac{J}{S_{xc} h}} \sqrt{1 + \left(1 + 6.76 \left(\frac{F_{yr} S_{xc} h}{E J} \right)^2 \right)^{0.5}} \quad (A6.27)$$

C_b = moment gradient modifier. In lieu of an alternative rational analysis, C_b may be calculated as follows:

- For unbraced cantilevers and for members where

$$\begin{aligned} M_{mid}/M_2 > 1 \text{ or } M_2 = 0 \\ C_b = 1.0 \end{aligned} \quad (A6.28)$$

- For all other cases,

$$C_b = 1.75 - 1.05 \left(\frac{M_1}{M_2} \right) + 0.3 \left(\frac{M_1}{M_2} \right)^2 \leq 2.3 \quad (A6.29)$$

F_{cr} = elastic lateral torsional buckling stress (MPa)

$$= \frac{C_b \pi^2 E}{(L_b / r_t)^2} \sqrt{1 + 0.078 \frac{J}{S_{xc} h} (L_b / r_t)^2} \quad (\text{A6.30})$$

J = st. Venant torsional constant (mm^4)

$$= \frac{Dt_w^3}{3} + \frac{b_{fc} t_{fc}^3}{3} \left(1 - 0.63 \frac{t_{fc}}{b_{fc}} \right) + \frac{b_{ft} t_{ft}^3}{3} \left(1 - 0.63 \frac{t_{ft}}{b_{ft}} \right) \quad (\text{A6.31})$$

r_t = effective radius of gyration for lateral torsional buckling (mm)

$$= \frac{b_{fc}}{\sqrt{12 \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{D_c t_w}{b_{fc} t_{fc}} \right)}} \quad (\text{A6.32})$$

where:

F_{yr} = compression-flange stress at the onset of nominal yielding within the cross-section. Including residual stress effects, but not including compression-flange lateral bending, taken as the smaller of $0.7F_{yc}$, $R_h F_{yt} S_{xt}/S_{xc}$ and F_{yw} , but not less than $0.5F_{yc}$

D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article [6.19.4.1](#).

h = depth between the centerline of the flanges (mm)

M_{mid} = major-axis bending moment at the middle of the unbraced length, calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point in the flange under consideration, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression (N-mm). M_{mid} shall be due to the factored loads and shall be taken as positive when it causes compression and negative when it causes tension in the flange under consideration.

M_0 = moment at the brace point opposite to the one corresponding to M_2 calculated from the moment envelope value that produces the largest compression at this point in the flange under consideration, or the smallest tension if this point is never in compression (N-mm). M_0 shall be due to the factored loads and shall be taken as positive when it causes compression and negative when it causes tension in the flange under consideration.

M_1 = moment at the brace point opposite to the one corresponding to M_2 calculated as the intercept of the most critical assumed linear moment variation passing through M_2 and either M_{mid} or M_0 , whichever produces the smaller value of C_b (N-mm). M_1 may be calculated as follows:

- When the variation in the moment along the entire length between the brace points is concave in shape:

$$M_1 = M_0 \quad (\text{A6.33})$$

- Otherwise:

$$M_1 = 2M_{mid} - M_2 \geq M_0 \quad (\text{A6.34})$$

- M_2 = except as noted below, largest major-axis bending moment at either end of the unbraced length causing compression in the flange under consideration, calculated from the critical moment envelope value (N-mm). M_2 shall be due to the factored loads and shall be taken as positive. If the moment is zero or causes tension in the flange under consideration at both ends of the unbraced length, M_2 shall be taken as zero.
- M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)
- R_h = hybrid factor determined as specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1
- R_{pc} = web plastification factor for the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.17.2.1 or Article 6.17.2.2, as applicable
- S_{xc} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the compression flange taken as M_y/F_{yc} (mm³)
- S_{xt} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the tension flange taken as M_y/F_{yc} (mm³)

For unbraced lengths where the member consists of non composite monosymmetric sections and is subject to reverse curvature bending, the lateral torsional buckling resistance shall be checked for both flanges, unless the top flange is considered to be continuously braced.

For unbraced lengths in which the member is nonprismatic, the flexural resistance based on lateral torsional buckling may be taken as the smallest resistance within the unbraced length under consideration determined from Eqs. (A6.23), (A6.24) or (A6.25) as applicable, assuming the unbraced length is prismatic. The flexural resistance M_{nc} at each section within the unbraced length shall be taken equal to this resistance multiplied by the ratio of S_{xc} at the section under consideration to S_{xc} at the section governing the lateral torsional buckling resistance. The moment gradient modifier, C_b , shall be taken equal to 1.0 in this case and L_b shall not be modified by an effective length factor.

For unbraced lengths containing a transition to a smaller section at a distance less than or equal to 20 percent of the unbraced length from the brace point with the smaller moment, the flexural resistance based on lateral torsional buckling may be determined assuming the transition to the smaller section does not exist, provided the lateral moment of inertia of the flange or flanges of the smaller section is equal to or larger than one-half the corresponding value in the larger section.

Eq. (A6.26) defines the compact unbraced length limit for a member subjected to uniform major-axis bending, whereas Eq. (A6.27) gives the corresponding noncompact unbraced length limit. The nominal flexural resistance of a member braced at or below the compact limit is independent of the unbraced length, whereas the flexural resistance of a member braced at or below the noncompact limit is expressed as a linear function of the unbraced length as illustrated in Figure 6.12. The compact bracing limit of Eq. (A6.26) is similar to the bracing requirement for use of the general compact-section flexural resistance equations and/or the Q formula equations in AASHTO (2004). The limit given by Eq. (A6.26) is generally somewhat more restrictive than the limit given by

the corresponding L_p equation in AASHTO (2004) and AISC (2005). The limit given by Eq.(A6.26) is based on linear regression analysis within the region corresponding to the inelastic lateral torsional buckling equation, shown qualitatively in Figure 6.12, for a wide range of data from experimental flexural tests involving uniform major-axis bending and in which the physical effective length for lateral torsional buckling is effectively 1.0.

Note that the most economical solution is not necessarily achieved by limiting the unbraced length to L_p in order to reach the maximum flexural resistance, M_{max} , particularly if the moment gradient modifier, C_b , is taken equal to 1.0.

Eq.(A6.30) gives the exact beam-theory based solution for the elastic lateral torsional buckling of a doubly-symmetric I-section (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961) for the case of uniform major-axis bending when C_b is equal to 1.0 and when r_t is defined as specified by Eq.(6.99).

Eq.(D6.10) is a simplification of this r_t equation obtained by assuming $D = h = d$. For sections with thick flanges, Eq.(A6.32) gives an r_t value that can be as much as three to four percent conservative relative to the exact equation. Use of Eq.(D6.10) is permitted for software calculations or if the Engineer requires a more precise calculation of the elastic LTB resistance. The format of Eq.(A6.30) and the corresponding L_r limit of Eq.(A6.27) are particularly convenient for design usage since the terms L_b , r_t , J , S_{xc} and are familiar and are easily calculated or can be readily obtained from design tables. Also, by simply setting J to zero, Eq.(A6.30) reduces to the elastic lateral torsional buckling resistance used in Article 6.10.8.2.3.

Eq.(A6.30) also gives an accurate approximation of the exact beam-theory based solution for elastic lateral torsional buckling of monosymmetric I-section members (White and Jung, 2003). For the case of $J > 0$ and uniform bending, and considering I-sections with $D/b_f > 2$, $b_{fc}/2t_{fc} > 5$ and $L_b = L_r$ the error in Eq.(A6.30) relative to the exact beam-theory solution ranges from 12 percent conservative to two percent unconservative (White and Jung, 2003). A comparable I_{yc} -based equation in AASHTO (2004) gives maximum unconservative errors of approximately 14 percent for the same set of parameters studied. For the unusual case of a noncomposite compact or noncompact web section with $I_{yc}/I_{yt} > 1.5$ and $D/b_{fc} < 2$, $D/b_{ft} < 2$ or $b_{ft}/t_{ft} < 10$, consideration should be given to using the exact beam-theory equations (White and Jung, 2003) in order to obtain a more accurate solution, or else J from Eq.(A6.31) may be factored by 0.8 to account for the tendency of Eq.(A6.30) to overestimate the lateral torsional buckling resistance in such cases. For highly monosymmetric I-sections with a smaller compression flange or for composite I-sections in negative flexure, both Eq.(A6.30) and the prior lye-based equation in AASHTO (2004) are somewhat conservative compared to rigorous beamtheory based solutions. This is due to the fact that these equations do not account for the restraint against lateral buckling of the compression flange provided by the larger tension flange or the deck. However, the distortional flexibility of the web significantly reduces this beneficial effect in many practical situations.

Eq.(A6.31) is taken from EI Darwish and Johnston (1965) and provides an accurate approximation of the St. Venant torsional constant, J , neglecting the effect of the web-to-flange fillets. For a compression or tension flange with a ratio, $b_f/2t_f$, greater than 7.5, the term in parentheses given in Eq.(A6.31) for that flange may be taken equal to one. Equations from EI Darwish and Johnston (1965) that are employed in the

calculation of AISC (2005) manual values for J and include the effect of the web-to-flange fillets are included in Seaburg and Carter (1997).

The Engineer should note the importance of the web term $D_c t_w$ within Eq. (A6.32). Prior Specifications have often used the radius of gyration of only the compression flange, $r_{yc} = b_{fc} / \sqrt{12}$, within design equations for LTB. This approximation can lead to significant unconservative predictions relative to experimental and refined finite element results. The web term in Eq. (A6.32) accounts for the destabilizing effects of the flexural compression within the web.

The effect of the variation in the moment along the length between brace points is accounted for by using the moment gradient modifier, C_b . Commentaries in Article 6.10.8.2.3 discusses the C_b parameter in detail. Article 6.10.8.2.3 addresses unbraced lengths in which the member is nonprismatic. This Article extends the provisions for such unbraced lengths to members with compact and noncompact webs. This resistance may exceed F_e in some cases. The major-axis bending moment due to the factored loads, M_u at each cross-section throughout the unbraced length must not exceed this resistance times the value of S_{xc} at the section under consideration. As discussed in commentaries in Article 6.10.8.2.3, when computing M_{nc} for this case, the moment gradient modifier, C_b , should be taken equal to 1.0 and L_b should not be modified by an effective length factor.

Where C_b is greater than 1.0, indicating the presence of a moment gradient, the lateral torsional buckling resistances may alternatively be calculated by the equivalent procedures specified in Article 6.19.4.2. Both the equations in this Article and in Article 6.19.4.2 permit M_{max} in Figure 6.12 to be reached at larger unbraced lengths when C_b is greater than 1.0. The procedures in Article 6.19.4.2 allow the Engineer to focus directly on the maximum unbraced length at which the flexural resistance is equal to M_{max} . The use of these equivalent procedures is strongly recommended when C_b values greater than 1.0 are utilized in the design.

6.17.4. Flexural Resistance Based On Tension Flange Yielding

The nominal flexural resistance based on tension flange yielding shall be taken as:

$$M_{nt} = R_{pt} M_{yt} \quad (\text{A6.35})$$

where:

M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)

R_{pt} = web plastification factor for tension flange yielding determined as specified in Article 6.17.2.1 or Article 6.17.2.2, as applicable

- C Eq. (A6.35) implements a linear transition in the flexural resistance between M_p and M_{yt} as a function of $2D_c/t_w$ for non-symmetric sections with a larger tension flange and for composite sections in negative flexure where first yielding occurs in the top flange or in the longitudinal reinforcing steel. In the limit that $2D_c/t_w$ approaches the noncompact web limit given by Eq. (A6.13), (A6.35) reduces to the tension flange yielding limit specified in Article 6.10.8.3.
- C For sections in which $M_{yt} > M_{yc}$ Eq. (A6.35) does not control and need not be checked.

6.18. APPENDIX B6: MOMENT DISTRIBUTION FROM INTERIOR-PIER I-SECTIONS IN STRAIGHT CONTINUOUS-SPAN BRIDGES

6.18.1. GENERAL

This Article shall apply for the calculation of redistribution moments from the interior-pier sections of continuous span I-section flexural members at the service and/or strength limit states. These provisions shall apply only for I-section members that satisfy the requirements of Article [6.18.2](#).

- C These optional provisions replace the ten-percent redistribution allowance given in previous Specifications and provide a simple more rational approach for calculating the percentage redistribution from interior-pier sections. This approach utilizes elastic moment envelopes and does not require the direct use of any inelastic analysis methods. The restrictions of Article [6.18.2](#) ensure significant ductility and robustness at the interior-pier sections.
- C In conventional elastic analysis and design. Moment and shear envelopes are typically determined by elastic analysis with no redistribution due to the effects of yielding considered. The sections are typically dimensioned for a resistance equal to or greater than that required by the envelopes. Designs to meet these requirements often involve the addition of cover plates to rolled beams, which introduces details that often have low fatigue resistance, or the introduction of multiple flange transitions in welded beams, which can result in additional fabrication costs. Where appropriate, the use of these provisions to account for the redistribution of moments makes it possible to eliminate such details by using prismatic sections along the entire length of the bridge or between field splices. This practice can improve overall fatigue resistance and provide significant fabrication economies.
- C Development of these provisions is documented in a number of comprehensive reports ([Barker et al., 1997](#); [Schilling et al., 1997](#); [White et al. 1997](#)) and in a [summary paper by Barth et al. \(2004\)](#), which gives extensive references to other supporting research. These provisions account for the fact that the compression flange slenderness, $bf_c/2t_{fc}$, and the cross-section aspect ratio, D/bf_c , are the predominant factors that influence the moment-rotation behavior at adequately braced interior pier sections. The provisions apply to sections with compact, noncompact or slender webs.

6.18.2. SCOPE

Moment redistribution shall be applied only in straight continuous span I-section members whose bearing lines are not skewed more than 10° from radial and along which there are no staggered cross-farms. Sections may be either composite or noncomposite in positive or negative flexure.

- C The subject procedures have been developed predominantly in the context of straight non-skewed bridge superstructures without staggered cross-frames. Therefore, their use is restricted to bridges that do not deviate significantly from these idealized conditions.

Cross-sections throughout the unbraced lengths immediately adjacent to interior-pier sections from which moments are redistributed shall have a specified minimum yield strength not exceeding 485 MPa. Holes shall not be placed within the tension flange over a distance of two times the web depth from either side of the interior pier sections from which moments are redistributed. All other sections having tension flange holes shall satisfy the requirements of Article [6.10.1.8](#) after the moments are redistributed.

- C The development of these provisions focused on non-hybrid and hybrid girders with specified minimum yield strengths up to and including 485 MPa. Therefore, use of these provisions with larger yield strengths is not permitted. The influence of tension-flange holes on potential net section fracture at cross-sections experiencing significant inelastic strains is not well known. Therefore, tension flange holes are not allowed over a distance of two times the web depth, D , on either side of the interior-pier sections from which moments are redistributed. The distance $2D$ is an approximate upper bound for the length of the zone of primary inelastic response at these pier sections.

Moments shall be redistributed only at interior-pier sections for which the cross-sections throughout the unbraced lengths immediately adjacent to those sections satisfy the requirements of Articles 6.18.2.1 through 6.18.2.6.

If the refined method of Article 6.18.6 is used for calculation of the redistribution moments, all interior-pier sections are not required to satisfy these requirements; however, moments shall not be redistributed from sections that do not satisfy these requirements. Such sections instead shall satisfy the provisions of Articles 6.10.4.2, 6.10.8.1 or Article 6.17.1, as applicable, after redistribution.

If the provisions of Articles 6.18.3 or 6.18.4 are utilized to calculate interior-pier redistribution moments, the unbraced lengths immediately adjacent to all interior-pier sections shall satisfy the requirements of Articles 6.18.2.1 through 6.18.2.6.

- C Unless a direct analysis is conducted by the Refined Method outlined in Article 6.18.6, all the interior-pier sections of a continuous-span member are required to satisfy the requirements of Articles 6.18.2.1 through 6.18.2.6 in order to redistribute the pier moments. This is because of the approximations involved in the simplified provisions of Articles 6.18.3 and 6.18.4 and the fact that inelastic redistribution moments from one interior support generally produce some nonzero redistribution moments at all of the interior supports.

6.18.2.1. Web Proportions

The web within the unbraced length under consideration shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{D}{t_w} \leq 150 \quad (\text{B6.1})$$

$$\frac{2D_c}{t_w} \leq 6.8 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (\text{B6.2})$$

and

$$D_{cp} \leq 0.75D \quad (\text{B6.3})$$

where:

- D_c = depth of the web in compression in the elastic range (mm). For composite sections, D_c shall be determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.1.
- D_{cp} = depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.2 (mm)

- C Eq. (B6.1) simply parallels Eq. (6.62) and is intended to eliminate the use of any benefits from longitudinal stiffening of the web at the pier section. The moment-rotation characteristics of sections with longitudinal web stiffeners have not been studied. Eqs. (B6.2) and (B6.3) are limits of the web slenderness and the depth of the web in compression considered in the development of these procedures.

6.18.2.2. Compression Flange Proportions

The compression flange within the unbraced length under consideration shall be proportioned such that:

$$\frac{b_{fc}}{2t_{fc}} \leq 0.38 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (\text{B6.4})$$

and:

$$b_{fc} \geq \frac{D}{4.25} \quad (\text{B6.5})$$

- C The compression flange is required to satisfy the compactness limit within the unbraced lengths adjacent to the pier section. This limit is restated in Eq. (B6.4). Slightly larger $b_{fc}/2t_{fc}$ values than this limit have been considered within the supporting research for these provisions. The compactness limit from Articles 6.17.3.2 and 6.10.8.2 is used for simplicity.
- C Eq. (B6.5) represents the largest aspect ratio $D/b_{fc} = 4.25$ considered in the supporting research. As noted in Articles 6.10.2.2 and 6.18.1, increasing values of this ratio have a negative influence on the strength and moment-rotation characteristics of I-section members.

6.18.2.3. Section Transitions

The steel I-section member shall be prismatic within the unbraced length under consideration.

- C Only members that are prismatic within the unbraced lengths adjacent to interior piers have been considered in the supporting research. Therefore, section transitions are prohibited in these regions.

6.18.2.4. Lateral Bracing

The unbraced length under consideration shall satisfy:

$$L_b \leq \left[0.1 - 0.06 \left(\frac{M_1}{M_2} \right) \right] \frac{r_1 E}{F_{yc}} \quad (\text{B6.6})$$

where:

- L_b = unbraced length (mm)
- M_1 = bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section at the brace point with the lower moment due to the factored loads, taken as either the maximum or minimum moment envelope value, whichever produces the smallest permissible unbraced length (N-mm)
- M_2 = bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section at the brace point with the higher moment due to the factored loads, taken as the critical moment envelope value (N-mm)
- r_1 = effective radius of gyration for lateral torsional buckling within the unbraced length under consideration determined from Eq. (6.107) (mm)

(M_1/M_2) shall be taken as negative when the moments cause reverse curvature.

- C Eq. (B6.6) gives approximately the same results as the compact-section compression-flange bracing requirements in Article 6.10.4.1.7 of AASHTO (2004), but is written in terms of r_t rather than r_y . The use of r_y in the prior equation leads to an ambiguity in the application of this bracing limit to composite sections in negative flexure. Furthermore, since r_t focuses strictly on the compression region of the cross-section and does not involve the top flange or the deck for a composite section in negative flexure, it is believed to address the bracing requirements for such a section in a more correct fashion.
- C Since the negative moment envelope always tends to be concave in shape in the vicinity of interior-pier sections, the consideration of the moment values at the middle of the unbraced length, as required in general for the calculation of C_b in Articles 6.10.8.2.3 and 6.17.3.3, is not necessary.
- C Consideration of the moment gradient effects based on the ratio of the end values, M_1/M_2 is sufficient and conservative.
- C If $D_{ctw}/b_{fc}t_{fc}$ in Eq. (6.107) or (A6.32) is taken as a representative value of 2.0 and F_{yc} is taken as 345 MPa, Eq. (B6.6) is satisfied when $L_b < 13b_{fc}$ for $M_1/M_2 = 0$ and $L_b < 9b_{fc}$ for $M_1/M_2 = 0.5$.

6.18.2.5. Shear

Webs with or without transverse stiffeners within the unbraced length under consideration shall satisfy the following requirement at the strength limit state:

$$V_u \leq \phi_v V_{cr} \quad (\text{B6.7})$$

where:

- ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear specified in Article 6.5.4.2
- V_u = shear in the web due to the factored loads (N)
- V_{cr} = shear-buckling resistance determined from Eq. (6.112) for unstiffened webs and from Eq. (6.122) for stiffened webs (N)

- C Use of web shear post-buckling resistance or tension field action is not permitted within the vicinity of the pier sections designed for redistribution of the negative bending moments.

6.18.2.6. Bearing Stiffeners

Bearing stiffeners designed by the provisions of Article 6.10.11.2 shall be placed at the interior-pier section under consideration.

6.18.3. SERVICE LIMIT STATE

6.18.3.1. General

Load combination Service II in Table 3.1 shall apply.

6.18.3.2. Flexure

1. Adjacent to Interior-Pier Sections

With the exception that the requirement of Eq. (6.77) shall be satisfied, the provisions of Article 6.10.4.2 shall not be checked within the regions extending in each adjacent span from interior-pier sections satisfying the requirements of Article 6.18.2 to the nearest flange transition or point of dead-load contra flexure, whichever is closest?

- C In checking permanent deflections under Load Combination Service II, local yielding is permitted at interior supports satisfying the requirements of Article 6.18.2. This results in redistribution of moments. The permanent deflections are controlled by imposing the appropriate flange stress limits of Article 6.10.4.2 in each adjacent span at sections outside the nearest flange transition location or point of permanent-load contra-flexure, whichever is closest to the interior support under consideration, after redistribution. The appropriate redistribution moments are to be added to the elastic moments due to the Service II loads prior to making these checks. The influence of the strength and ductility at the interior-pier sections is considered within the calculation of the redistribution moments. Therefore, the flange stress limits of Article 6.10.4.2 need not be checked within the regions extending into each adjacent span from the interior-pier section under consideration to the closest point cited above. The provisions of Article 6.18 are not intended to relax the requirement of Eq. (6.77). This requirement should be satisfied based on the elastic moments before redistribution.
- C Additional cambering to account for the small residual deformations associated with redistribution of interior-pier section moments is not recommended. A full-scale bridge designed to permit redistribution of negative moments sustained only very small permanent deflections when tested under the overload condition (Roeder and Eltvik, 1985).

2. At All Other Locations

Sections at all other locations shall satisfy the provisions of Article 6.10.4.2, as applicable, after redistribution. For composite sections in positive flexure, the redistribution moments shall be applied to the long-term composite section when computing flexural stresses in the steel section. For computing longitudinal flexural stresses in the concrete deck due to the redistribution moments, the provisions of Article 6.10.1.1.1.d shall apply.

The redistribution moments shall be calculated according to the provisions specified in Article 6.18.3.3 and shall be added to the elastic moments due to the Service II loads.

- C The redistribution moments are in effect permanent moments that remain in the structure. The corresponding locked-in redistribution stresses in composite sections tend to decrease with time as a result of creep in the concrete. However, these redistribution stresses may be continually renewed by subsequent passages of similar loadings. Therefore, the flexural stresses in the steel section due to these moments are to be conservatively calculated based on the long-term composite section.

6.18.3.3. Redistribution Moments

1. At Interior-Pier Sections

At each interior-pier section where the flexural stresses are not checked as permitted in Article 6.18.3.2.1, the redistribution moment for the Service II loads shall be taken as:

$$M_{rd} = |M_e| - M_{pe} \quad (\text{B6.8})$$

in which:

$$0 \leq M_{rd} \leq 0.2|M_e| \quad (\text{B6.9})$$

where:

- M_{pe} = negative flexure effective plastic moment for the service limit state determined as specified in Article 6.18.5 (N.mm)
- M_e = critical elastic moment envelope value at the interior-pier section due to the Service II loads (N.mm)

- C Eqs. (B6.8), (B6.10) and (B6.11) are based on concepts from shakedown analysis of continuous-span girders under repeated application of moving loads (ASCE, 1971; Schilling et al., 1997) using an effective plastic moment that accounts for the interior-pier section moment-rotation characteristics. Shakedown is the appropriate limit state related to moment redistribution in bridges (Galambos et al., 1993).
- C At the service limit state, the effective plastic moment in Eq. (B6.8) is based on an estimated upper-bound plastic rotation of 0.009 radians at the pier sections, determined by direct inelastic analysis of various trial designs (Schilling, 1986). Flange lateral bending effects are not considered in Eq. (B6.8) since due to the restrictions of Article 6.18.2, the flange lateral bending effects at the interior supports under the Service II Load Combination are taken to be negligible. The refinement of these calculations by consideration of flange lateral bending effects is considered unjustified.
- C Eq. (B6.9) is intended to prevent the use of an interior-pier section that is so small that it could potentially violate the assumed upper-bound inelastic rotation of 0.009 radians under Service II conditions. Note that if the upper limit of Eq. (B6.9) is violated, a new interior-pier section must be selected that will ensure that this limit is satisfied.

2. At All Other Locations

The redistribution-moment diagram for the Service II load combination shall be determined by connecting with straight lines the redistribution moments at adjacent

interior pier sections. The lines shall be extended to any points of zero redistribution moment at adjacent supports, including at the abutments.

- C [Figure 6.5](#) illustrates a typical redistribution moment diagram for a three-span continuous member for which the redistribution moments are greater than zero at both interior-pier sections. After the live loads are removed, the redistribution moments are held in equilibrium by the support reactions. Therefore, the redistribution moments must vary linearly between the supports.

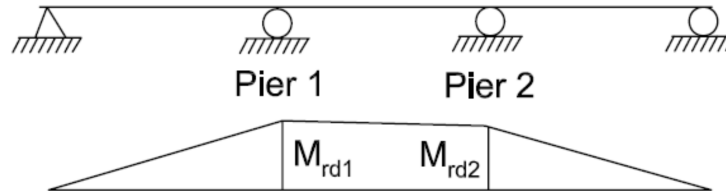


Figure 6.5 Typical Redistribution Moment Diagram.

6.18.4. STRENGTH LIMIT STATE

6.18.4.1. Flexural Resistance

1. Adjacent to Interior-Pier Sections

The flexural resistances of sections within the unbraced lengths immediately adjacent to interior-pier sections satisfying the requirements of Article [6.18.2](#) shall not be checked.

- C Yielding is permitted at interior supports at the strength limit state, and results in redistribution of moments. The influence of the strength and ductility at the interior-pier sections are considered within the calculation of the redistribution moments. Therefore, the flexural resistances of sections within the unbraced lengths immediately adjacent to interior-pier sections from which moments are redistributed need not be checked.

2. At All Other Locations

Sections at all other locations shall satisfy the provisions of Articles [6.10.7](#), [6.10.8.1](#) or [6.17.1](#), as applicable, after redistribution. For composite sections in positive flexure, the redistribution moments shall be applied to the long-term composite section when computing flexural stresses in the steel section. For computing longitudinal flexural stresses in the concrete deck due to the redistribution moments, the provisions of Article [6.10.1.1.1.d](#) shall apply.

The redistribution moments shall be calculated using the provisions of Article [6.18.4.2](#) and shall be added to the elastic moments due to the factored loads at the strength limit state.

- C Regions outside of unbraced lengths immediately adjacent to interior-pier sections from which moments are redistributed are designed in the same fashion as when the procedures of this Article are not applied, with the exception that the appropriate redistribution moments are to be added to the elastic moments due to the factored loads at the strength limit state prior to making the design checks.

6.18.4.2. Redistribution Moments

1. At Interior-Pier Sections

At each interior-pier section where the flexural resistances are not checked as permitted in Article 6.18.4.1.1, the redistribution moment at the strength limit state shall be taken as the larger of:

$$M_{rd} = |M_e| + \frac{1}{3} f_\ell S_{xc} - \phi_f M_{pe} \quad (\text{B6.10})$$

or:

$$M_{rd} = |M_e| + \frac{1}{3} f_\ell S_{xt} - \phi_f M_{pe} \quad (\text{B6.11})$$

in which:

$$0 \leq M_{rd} \leq 0.2 |M_e| \quad (\text{B6.12})$$

where:

f_ℓ = lateral bending stress in the flange under consideration at the interior-pier section (MPa). For continuously braced tension or compression flanges f_ℓ shall be taken as zero.

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2

M_{pe} = negative-flexure effective plastic moment for the strength limit state determined as specified in Article 6.18.5 (N-mm)

M_e = critical elastic moment envelope value at the interior-pier section due to the factored loads (N-mm)

M_{yc} = yield moment with respect to the compression flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)

M_{yt} = yield moment with respect to the tension flange determined as specified in Article 6.19.2 (N-mm)

S_{xc} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the compression flange taken as M_{yc}/F_{yc} (mm³)

S_{xt} = elastic section modulus about the major axis of the section to the tension flange taken as M_{yt}/F_{yt} (mm³)

- C At the strength limit state, the effective plastic moment in Eqs. (B6.10) and (B6.11) is based on an estimated upper bound plastic rotation of 0.03 radians at the pier sections, determined by direct inelastic analysis of various trial designs (Schilling, 1986).
- C Flange lateral bending effects are conservatively included in Eqs. (B6.10) and (B6.11) to account for the reduction in the flexural resistance of the interior-pier section at the strength limit state due to these effects. The inclusion of f_ℓ in these equations is intended primarily to address the design for wind loads. Eq. (B6.12) is intended to prevent the use of an interior-pier section that is so small that it could potentially violate the assumed upper-bound inelastic rotation of 0.03 radians at the strength limit state. Note that if the upper limit of Eq. (B6.12) is violated, a new interior-pier section must be selected that will ensure that this limit is satisfied.
- C A form of Eqs. (B6.10) and (B6.11) was proposed in the original research by Barker et al. (1997) that included a resistance factor for shakedown of $\phi_{sd} = 1.1$. The resistance factor of $\phi_{sd} = 1.1$ is justified for this limit state because the shakedown loading is generally less than the maximum plastic resistance and because progressively increasing permanent deflections give ample warning of

pending failure. The resistance factor for flexure ϕ of Article 6.5.4.2 is selected in these provisions to account for the fact that yielding within regions of positive flexure and the corresponding redistribution of positive bending moments to the interior-pier sections is not considered. Also, as discussed in Article 6.10.7.1.2, additional requirements are specified in continuous spans where significant yielding may occur prior to reaching the section resistances of compact sections in positive flexure.

2. At All Other Sections

The redistribution-moment diagram for the strength limit state shall be determined using the same procedure specified for the Service II load combination in Article 6.18.3.3.2.

C Figure 6.5 illustrates a typical redistribution moment diagram.

6.18.5. EFFECTIVE PLASTIC MOMENT

6.18.5.1. Interior-Pier Sections with Enhanced Moment-Rotation Characteristics

For interior-pier sections satisfying, the requirements of Article 6.18.2 and which contain:

- transverse stiffeners spaced at $D/2$ or less over a minimum distance of $D/2$ on each side of the interior-pier section

or:

- ultra compact webs that satisfy:

$$\frac{2D_{cp}}{t_w} \leq 2.3 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_{yc}}} \quad (\text{B6.13})$$

where:

D_{cp} = depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment determined as specified in Article 6.19.4.2 (mm)

the effective plastic moment shall be taken as:

- For the Service Limit State:

$$M_{pe} = M_n \quad (\text{B6.14})$$

- For the Strength Limit State:

$$M_{pe} = \left(\begin{array}{l} 2.78 - 2.3 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{ye}}{E}} \\ -0.35 \frac{D}{b_{fc}} + 0.39 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{E}} \frac{D}{b_{fc}} \end{array} \right) M_n \leq M_n \quad (\text{B6.15})$$

where:

M_n = nominal flexural resistance of the interior-pier section taken as the smaller of $F_{nc}S_{xc}$ and $F_{nt}S_{xt}$, with F_{nc} and F_{nt} determined as specified in Article 6.10.8. For sections with compact or noncompact webs, M_n may be taken as the smaller of M_{nc} and M_{nt} determined as specified in Article 6.17 (N-mm).

- C Tests have shown that members with interior-pier sections that satisfy either of the requirements of this Article, in addition to the requirements of Article 6.18.2, exhibit enhanced moment-rotation characteristics relative to members that satisfy only the requirements of Article 6.18.2 (White et al., 1997; Barth et al., 2004). These additional requirements involve the use of:
- transverse stiffeners close to the interior-pier section to help restrain the local buckling distortions of the web and compression flange within this region,
 - a web that is sufficiently stocky such that its distortions are reduced and the flange local buckling distortions are highly restrained, termed an ultra-compact web.
- C For noncompact web and slender web sections, the influence of the web slenderness on the effective plastic moment is captured through the maximum flexural resistance term M_n in Eqs. (B6.14) and (B6.15), and in Eqs. (B6.16) and (B6.17).

6.18.5.2. All Other Interior-Pier Sections

For interior-pier sections satisfying the requirements of Article 6.18.2, but not satisfying the requirements of Article 6.18.5.1, the effective plastic moment shall be taken as:

- For the Service Limit State:

$$M_{pe} = \left(\begin{array}{l} 2.90 - 2.3 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{ye}}{E}} \\ -0.35 \frac{D}{b_{fc}} + 0.39 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{E}} \frac{D}{b_{fc}} \end{array} \right) M_n \leq M_n \quad (\text{B6.16})$$

- For the Strength Limit State:

$$M_{pe} = \left(\begin{array}{l} 2.63 - 2.3 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{ye}}{E}} \\ -0.35 \frac{D}{b_{fc}} + 0.39 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{E}} \frac{D}{b_{fc}} \end{array} \right) M_n \leq M_n \quad (\text{B6.17})$$

- C Eqs. (B6.16) and (B6.17) are based on a lower-bound estimate of the moment-rotation characteristics of interior-pier sections that satisfy the limits of Article 6.18.2 (Barth et al., 2004). Cases with unbraced lengths smaller than the limit given by Eq. (B6.6), significant torsional restraint from a composite deck, and/or compression-flange slenderness values significantly smaller than the compact flange limit often exhibit significantly enhanced moment-rotation characteristics and corresponding larger effective plastic moments than the values obtained from these equations.
- C The web slenderness, $2D_c/t_w$ or $2D_{cpl}/t_w$, does not appear directly in Eqs. (B6.16) and (B6.17). For noncompact and slender web sections, the influence of the web slenderness on the effective plastic moment is captured through the maximum flexural resistance term M_n .

6.18.6. REFINED METHOD

6.18.6.1. General

Continuous span I-section flexural members satisfying the requirements of Article 6.18.2 also may be proportioned based on a direct analysis. In this approach, the

redistribution moments shall be determined by satisfying rotational continuity and specified inelastic moment-rotation relationships at selected interior-pier sections. Direct analysis may be employed at the service and/or strength limit states. The elastic moment envelope due to the factored loads shall be used in this analysis.

For the direct analysis, the redistribution moments shall be determined using the elastic stiffness properties of the short-term composite section assuming the concrete deck to be effective over the entire span length. For composite sections in positive flexure. The redistribution moments shall be applied to the long-term composite section when computing elastic flexural stresses in the steel section. For computing elastic longitudinal flexural stresses in the concrete deck due to the redistribution moments. The provisions of Article 6.10.1.1.1.d shall apply.

Sections adjacent to interior piers from which moments are redistributed shall satisfy the requirements of Article 6.18.3.2.1 at the service limit state and Article 6.18.4.1.1 at the strength limit state. All other sections shall satisfy all applicable provisions of Articles 6.10.4.2, 6.10.7, 6.10.8.1, or 6.18.1 after a solution is found.

In applying direct analysis at the strength limit state, the ordinates of the nominal moment-rotation curves shall be multiplied by the resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2. In applying direct analysis at the Service II limit state, the nominal moment-rotation curves shall be used.

- C The Engineer is also provided the option to use a refined method in which a direct shakedown analysis is conducted at the service and/or strength limit states.
- C This analysis is noniterative, but requires the simultaneous satisfaction of continuity and moment-rotation relationships at all interior-pier sections from which moments are redistributed. If software that handles this type of calculation along with the determination of the elastic moment envelopes does not exist, significant manual work is required in conducting the analysis calculations. The Engineer can gain some additional benefit when using direct analysis in that the restriction that all interior-pier sections within the member satisfy the requirements of Article 6.18.2.1 is relaxed. Also, the directly calculated inelastic rotations at the interior pier sections will tend to be smaller than the upper-bound values that the equations in Articles 6.18.3 through 6.18.5 are based upon.
- C The redistribution moments are to be computed using the stiffness properties of the short-term composite section because the redistribution moments are formed by short-term loads.
- C Although direct analysis methods can be formulated that account for the redistribution of moments from regions of positive flexure, there is typically no significant economic benefit associated with redistribution of positive bending moments. This is because, in most practical cases, the interior-pier sections have the highest elastic stresses.
- C Also, the development of some inelastic rotations at the pier sections simply allows a continuous-span member to respond in a fashion involving only slightly less rotational restraint from the adjacent spans than if these sections remain elastic.
- C With the exception of the additional requirements of Article 6.10.7.1.2 for composite sections subjected to positive flexure within continuous spans in which the adjacent interior-pier sections do not satisfy Article 6.18.2, these Specifications generally neglect the influence of partial yielding prior to and associated with the development of member maximum flexural resistances.
- C Therefore, the influence of partial yielding within regions of positive flexure on the redistribution of moments to the interior piers and on the calculated inelastic pier rotations is also to be neglected within the direct analysis approach.
- C The unconservative attributes associated with neglecting positive-moment yielding prior to reaching the maximum flexural resistance within regions of positive flexure are offset by:
 - the use of $\phi = 1.0$ rather than a shakedown resistance factor of $\phi_{sd} = 1.1$ as originally formulated by Barker et al. (1997) and discussed in Article 6.18.4.2.1,

and:

- the lower-bound nature of the moment-rotation relationships utilized for the interior-pier sections.

C Moment-rotation relationships have been proposed that account for yielding in positive flexure, such as in [Barker et al. \(1997\)](#). However, these relationships account in only a very simplistic fashion for the distributed yielding effects that tend to occur over a significant length due to the small moment gradients that typically exist within regions of positive flexure. Significantly greater accuracy can be achieved in the analysis for these effects by the use of distributed plasticity analysis models rather than plastic-hinge type models. However, these types of analysis models are not readily accessible to the Engineer at the present time.

6.18.6.2. Nominal Moment-Rotation Curves

At interior-pier sections that satisfy the requirements of Section [6.18](#). The nominal moment-rotation curve given in [Figure 6.6](#) may be used.

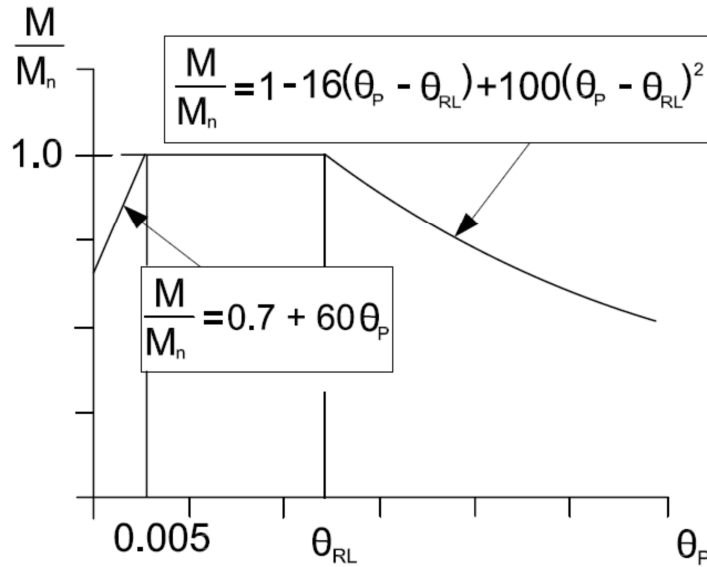


Figure 6.6: Nominal Moment-Rotation Curve for Interior-Pier Sections Satisfying Article [6.18.2](#).

in which:

ϕ_{RL} = plastic rotation at which the interior-pier section moment nominally begins to decrease with increasing θ_p (radians)

$$= 0.137 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{E}} - 0.0216 \frac{D}{b_{fc}} + 0.0241 \frac{D}{b_{fc}} \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{E}} \quad (B6.18)$$

For sections that satisfy the additional requirements specified in Article [6.18.5.1](#), and:

$$= 0.128 \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{E}} - 0.0216 \frac{D}{b_{fc}} + 0.0241 \frac{D}{b_{fc}} \frac{b_{fc}}{t_{fc}} \sqrt{\frac{F_{yc}}{E}} \quad (B6.19)$$

for all other sections.

where:

- ϕ_p = plastic rotation at the interior pier section (rad.)
- M = bending moment about the major axis of the cross-section due to the factored loads (N-mm)
- M_n = nominal flexural resistance of the interior-pier section taken as the smaller of $F_{nc}S_{xc}$ and $F_{nt}S_{xt}$ with F_{nc} and F_{nt} determined as specified in Article 6.10.8 (N-mm). For sections with compact or noncompact webs, M_n may be taken as the smaller of M_{nc} and M_{nt} determined as specified in Article 6.17. For load combinations that induce significant flange lateral bending stresses, the influence of flange lateral bending shall be considered by deducting the larger of $1/3 f_\ell S_{xc}$ or $1/3 f_\ell S_{xt}$ from the above values.
- f_ℓ = lateral bending stress in the flange under consideration at the interior-pier section (MPa).

For continuously braced tension or compression flanges, it shall be taken as zero.

- C The moment-rotation relationships in this Article are developed in White et al. (1997) and Barth et al. (2004). The moment-rotation relationships for interior-pier sections with enhanced moment-rotation characteristics that satisfy the additional limits of Article 6.18.5.1 are given by Eq. (B6.18), which is obtained by replacing the coefficient 0.128 in Eq. (B6.19) by 0.137 (Barth et al., 2004). It is expected that exceeding the limits of Article 6.18.2 may result in substantial degradation of the interior-pier moment rotation characteristics. Therefore, the restrictions of Article 6.18.2 may not be relaxed by use of alternative moment-rotation relationships.

Other nominal moment-rotation relationships may be employed for interior-pier sections that satisfy the requirements of Article 6.18.2 provided that the relationships are developed considering all potential factors that influence the moment-rotation characteristics within the restrictions of those requirements.

Interior-pier sections not satisfying the requirements of Article 6.18.2 shall be assumed to remain elastic in the analysis, and shall satisfy the provisions of Articles 6.10.4.2, 6.10.8.1, or Article 6.17.1, as applicable, after a solution is found.

6.19. APPENDIX C6: BASIC STEPS FOR STEEL BRIDGE SUPERSTRUCTURES

6.19.1. PLASTIC MOMENT

The plastic moment, M_p , shall be calculated as the moment of the plastic forces about the plastic neutral axis.

Plastic forces in steel portions of a cross-section shall be calculated using the yield strengths of the flanges, the web, and reinforcing steel, as appropriate. Plastic forces in concrete portions of the cross-section that are in compression may be based on a rectangular stress block with the magnitude of the compressive stress equal to $0.85f'_c$. Concrete in tension shall be neglected.

The position of the plastic neutral axis shall be determined by the equilibrium condition that there is no net axial force.

The plastic moment of a composite section in positive flexure can be determined by:

- Calculating the element forces and using them to determine whether the plastic neutral axis is in the web, top flange or concrete deck;
- Calculating the location of the plastic neutral axis within the element determined in the first step; and
- Calculating M_p . Equations for the various potential locations of the plastic neutral axis (PNA) are given in [Table 6.21](#).

The forces in the longitudinal reinforcement may be conservatively neglected. To do this, set P_{rb} and P_{rt} equal to zero in the equations in [Table 6.21](#).

The plastic moment of a composite section in negative flexure can be calculated by an analogous procedure. Equations for the two cases most likely to occur in practice are given in [Table 6.22](#).

The plastic moment of a noncomposite section may be calculated by eliminating the terms pertaining to the concrete deck and longitudinal reinforcement from the equations in [Table 6.21](#) and [Table 6.22](#) for composite sections.

In the equations for M_p given in [Table 6.21](#) and [Table 6.22](#), d is the distance from an element force to the plastic neutral axis. Element forces act at (a) mid-thickness for the flanges and the concrete deck, (b) mid-depth of the web, and (c) center of reinforcement. All element forces, dimensions, and distances should be taken as positive. The condition should be checked in the order listed in [Table 6.21](#) and [Table 6.22](#).

Table 6.21: Calculation of $\bar{Y}$ and M_p for Sections in Positive Flexure.

CASE	PNA	CONDITION	$\bar{Y}$ AND M_p
I	In web	$P_t + P_w \geq P_c + P_s + P_{rb} + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = \left(\frac{D}{2}\right) \left[\frac{P_t - P_c - P_s - P_{rt} - P_{rb}}{P_w} + 1 \right]$ $M_p = \frac{P_w}{2D} \left[\bar{Y}^2 + (D - \bar{Y})^2 \right] + [P_s d_s + P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_c d_c + P_t d_t]$
II	In top flange	$P_t + P_w + P_c \geq P_s + P_{rb} + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = \left(\frac{t_c}{2}\right) \left[\frac{P_w + P_t - P_s - P_{rt} - P_{rb}}{P_c} + 1 \right]$ $M_p = \frac{P_c}{2t_c} \left[\bar{Y}^2 + (t_c - \bar{Y})^2 \right] + [P_s d_s + P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_w d_w + P_t d_t]$
III	Concrete deck, below P_{rb}	$P_t + P_w + P_c \geq \left(\frac{c_{rb}}{t_s}\right) P_s + P_{rb} + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = (t_s) \left[\frac{P_c + P_w + P_t - P_{rt} - P_{rb}}{P_s} \right]$ $M_p = \left(\frac{\bar{Y}^2 P_s}{2t_s}\right) + [P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_c d_c + P_w d_w + P_t d_t]$
IV	Concrete deck, at P_{rb}	$P_t + P_w + P_c + P_{rb} \geq \left(\frac{c_{rb}}{t_s}\right) P_s + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = c_{rb}$ $M_p = \left(\frac{\bar{Y}^2 P_s}{2t_s}\right) + [P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_c d_c + P_w d_w + P_t d_t]$
V	Concrete deck, above P_{rb} below P_{rt}	$P_t + P_w + P_c + P_{rb} \geq \left(\frac{c_{rt}}{t_s}\right) P_s + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = (t_s) \left[\frac{P_{rb} + P_c + P_w + P_t - P_{rt}}{P_s} \right]$ $M_p = \left(\frac{\bar{Y}^2 P_s}{2t_s}\right) + [P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_c d_c + P_w d_w + P_t d_t]$
VI	Concrete deck, at P_{rt}	$P_t + P_w + P_c + P_{rb} + P_{rt} \geq \left(\frac{c_{rt}}{t_s}\right) P_s$	$\bar{Y} = c_{rt}$ $M_p = \left(\frac{\bar{Y}^2 P_s}{2t_s}\right) + [P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_c d_c + P_w d_w + P_t d_t]$
VII	Concrete deck, above P_{rt}	$P_t + P_w + P_c + P_{rb} + P_{rt} < \left(\frac{c_{rt}}{t_s}\right) P_s + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = (t_s) \left[\frac{P_{rb} + P_c + P_w + P_t + P_{rt}}{P_s} \right]$ $M_p = \left(\frac{\bar{Y}^2 P_s}{2t_s}\right) + [P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_c d_c + P_w d_w + P_t d_t]$

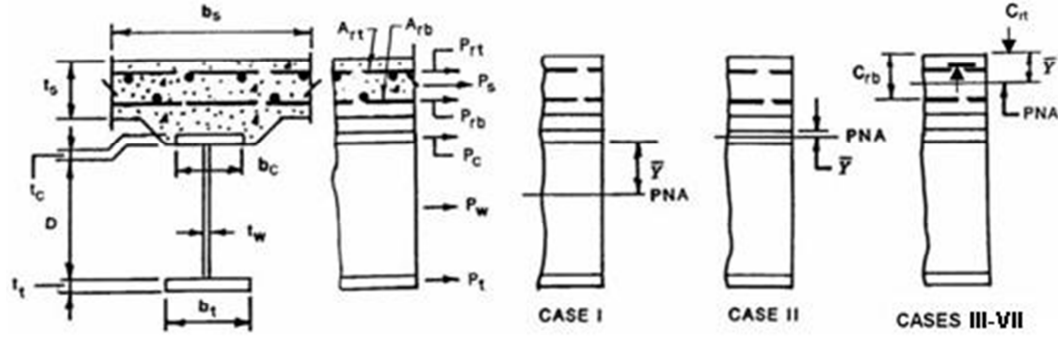
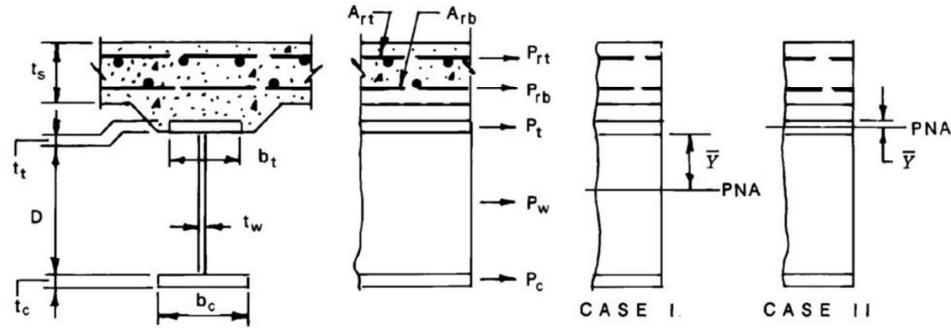


Table 6.22 Calculation of $\bar{Y}$ and M_p for Sections in Negative Flexure.

CASE	PNA	CONDITION	$\bar{Y}$ AND M_p
I	In web	$P_c + P_w \geq P_t + P_{rb} + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = \left(\frac{D}{2} \right) \left[\frac{P_c - P_t - P_{rt} - P_{rb}}{P_w} + 1 \right]$ $M_p = \frac{P_w}{2D} \left[\bar{Y}^2 + (D - \bar{Y})^2 \right] + [P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_c d_c + P_t d_t]$
II	In top flange	$P_t + P_w + P_c \geq P_{rb} + P_{rt}$	$\bar{Y} = \left(\frac{t_t}{2} \right) \left[\frac{P_w + P_{ts} - P_{rt} - P_{rb}}{P_t} + 1 \right]$ $M_p = \frac{P_c}{2t_c} \left[\bar{Y}^2 + (t_t - \bar{Y})^2 \right] + [P_{rt} d_{rt} + P_{rb} d_{rb} + P_w d_w + P_c d_c]$



in which:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{rt} &= F_{yrt} A_{rt} \\
 P_s &= 0.85 f'_c b_s t_s \\
 P_{rb} &= F_{yrb} A_{rb} \\
 P_c &= F_{yc} b_c t_c \\
 P_w &= F_{yw} D t_w \\
 P_t &= F_{yt} b_t t_t
 \end{aligned}$$

6.19.2. YIELD MOMENT**6.19.2.1. Noncomposite Sections**

The yield moment, M_y , of a noncomposite section shall be taken as the smaller of the moment required to cause nominal first yielding in the compression flange, M_{yc} , and the moment required to cause nominal first yielding in the tension flange, M_{yt} at the strength limit state. Flange lateral bending in all types of sections and web yielding in hybrid sections shall be disregarded in this calculation.

6.19.2.2. Composite Sections in Positive Flexure

The yield moment of a composite section in positive flexure shall be taken as the sum of the moments applied separately to the steel and the short-term and long-term composite sections to cause nominal first yielding in either steel flange at the strength limit state. Flange lateral bending in all types of sections and web yielding in hybrid sections shall be disregarded in this calculation.

The yield moment of a composite section in positive flexure may be determined as follows:

- Calculate the moment M_{D1} caused by the factored permanent load applied before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite. Apply this moment to the steel section.
- Calculate the moment M_{D2} caused by the remainder of the factored permanent load. Apply this moment to the long-term composite section.
- Calculate the additional moment M_{AD} that must be applied to the short-term composite section to cause nominal yielding in either steel flange.
- The yield moment is the sum of the total permanent load moment and the additional moment.

Symbolically, the procedure is:

1. Solve for M_{AD} from the equation:

$$F_{yf} = \frac{M_{D1}}{S_{NC}} + \frac{M_{D2}}{S_{LT}} + \frac{M_{AD}}{S_{ST}} \quad (C6.1)$$

2. Then calculate:

$$M_y = M_{D1} + M_{D2} + M_{AD} \quad (C6.2)$$

where:

- S_{NC} = noncomposite section modulus (mm^3)
- S_{ST} = short-term composite section modulus (mm^3)
- S_{LT} = long-term composite section modulus (mm^3)
- M_y = yield moment of a composite section in positive flexure (N-mm)
- M_{D1} = moment caused by the factored permanent load applied before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite (N-mm)
- M_{D2} = moment caused by the remainder of the factored permanent load (N-mm)
- M_{AD} = moment that must be applied to the short-term composite section to cause nominal yielding in either steel flange (N-mm)

M_y shall be taken as the lesser value calculated for the compression flange, M_{yc} or the tension flange, M_{yt} .

6.19.2.3. Composite Sections in Negative Flexure

For composite sections in negative flexure, the procedure specified in Article 6.19.2.2 is followed, except that the composite section for both short-term and long-term moments shall consist of the steel section and the longitudinal reinforcement within the effective width of the concrete deck. Thus, S_{sr} and S_{LT} are the same value.

Also, M_{yt} shall be taken with respect to either the tension flange or the longitudinal reinforcement, whichever yields first.

6.19.2.4. Sections with Cover Plates

For sections containing flange cover plates, M_{yc} or M_{yt} shall be taken as the smallest value of moment associated with nominal first yielding based on the stress in either the flange under consideration or in any of the cover plates attached to that flange, whichever yields first. Flange lateral bending in all types of sections and web yielding in hybrid sections shall be disregarded in this calculation.

6.19.3. DEPTH OF THE WEB IN COMPRESSION

6.19.3.1. In the Elastic Range (D_c)

For composite sections in positive flexure, the depth of the web in compression in the elastic range, D_c , shall be the depth over which the algebraic sum of the stresses in the steel, long-term composite and short-term composite sections from the dead and live loads, plus impact, is compressive.

In lieu of computing D_c at sections in positive flexure from stress diagrams, the following equation may be used:

$$D_c = \left[\frac{-f_c}{|f_c| + f_t} \right] d - t_{fc} \geq 0 \quad (C6.3)$$

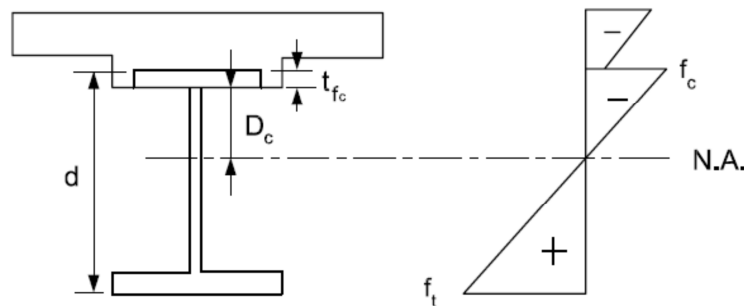


Figure 6.7: Computation of D_c at Sections in Positive Flexure.

where:

d = depth of the steel section (mm)

f_c = to sum of the compression-flange stresses caused by the different loads, i.e., $DC1$, the permanent load acting on the noncomposite section; $DC2$, the permanent load acting on the long-term composite section; DW , the wearing surface load; and $LL+IM$; acting on their respective sections (MPa). f_c shall be taken as negative when the stress is in compression. Flange lateral bending shall be disregarded in this calculation.

f_t = The sum of the various tension-flange stresses caused by the different loads (MPa). Flange lateral bending shall be disregarded in this calculation.

- C At sections in positive flexure, D_c of the composite section will increase with increasing span length because of the increasing dead-to-live load ratio. Therefore, in general it is important to recognize the effect of the dead load stress on the location of the neutral axis of the composite section in regions of positive flexure.
- C According to these Specifications, for composite sections in positive flexure, Eq. (C6.3) only need be employed for checking web bend-buckling at the service limit state and for computing the R_b factor at the strength limit state for sections in which web longitudinal stiffeners are required based on Article 6.10.2.1.1. Eq. (C6.3) is never needed for composite sections in positive flexure when the web satisfies the requirement of Article 6.10.2.1.1 such that longitudinal stiffeners are not required. Articles 6.10.1.9.2, 6.10.1.10.2 and 6.10.4.2.2 discuss the rationale for these calculations, which introduce a dependency of the flexural resistance on the applied load whenever $R_b < 1$, and therefore, potentially complicate subsequent rating calculations for these section types. Article 6.10.1.9.1 explains why the calculation of D_c is not required for composite sections in positive flexure when the web satisfies Article 6.10.2.1.1.

For composite sections in negative flexure, D_c shall be computed for the section consisting of the steel girder plus the longitudinal reinforcement with the exception of the following. For composite sections in negative flexure at the service limit state where the concrete deck is considered effective in tension for computing flexural stresses on the composite section due to Load Combination Service II, D_c shall be computed from Eq. (C6.3).

- C For composite sections in negative flexure, the concrete deck is typically not considered to be effective in tension. Therefore, the distance between the neutral-axis locations for the steel and composite sections is small in this case and the location of the neutral axis for the composite section is largely unaffected by the dead-load stress. Therefore, for the majority of situations, these Specifications specify the use of D_c computed simply for the section consisting of the steel girder plus the longitudinal reinforcement, without considering the algebraic sum of the stresses acting on the noncomposite and composite sections. This eliminates potential difficulties in subsequent load rating since the resulting D_c is independent of the applied loading, and therefore the flexural resistance in negative bending, which depends on D_c does not depend on the applied load. The single exception is that if the concrete deck is assumed effective in tension in regions of negative flexure at the service limit state, as permitted for composite sections satisfying the requirements specified in Article 6.10.4.2.1, Eq. (C6.3) must be used to compute D_c . For this case, in Figure 6.7, the stresses f_c to and f_t should be switched, the signs shown in the stress diagram should be reversed, t_{fc} should be the thickness of the bottom flange, and D_c should instead extend from the neutral axis down to the top of the bottom flange.

6.19.3.2. At Plastic Moment (D_{cp})

For composite sections in positive flexure, the depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment, D_{cp} , shall be taken as follows for cases from Table 6.21 where the plastic neutral axis is in the web:

$$D_{cp} = \frac{D}{2} \left[\frac{F_{yt} A_t - F_{yc} A_c - 0.85 f'_c A_s - F_{yrs} A_{rs}}{F_{yw} A_w} + 1 \right] \quad (C6.4)$$

where:

- A_c = area of the compression flange (mm²)
 A_{rs} = total area of the longitudinal reinforcement within the effective concrete deck width (mm²)
 A_s = area of the concrete deck (mm²)
 A_t = area of the tension flange (mm²)
 A_w = area of the web (mm²)
 D_{cp} = depth of the web in compression at the plastic moment (mm)
 F_{yrs} = specified minimum yield strength of the longitudinal reinforcement (MPa)

For all other composite sections in positive flexure, D_{cp} shall be taken equal to zero.

For composite sections in negative flexure, D_{cp} shall be taken as follows for cases from [Table 6.22](#) where the plastic neutral axis is in the web:

$$D_{cp} = \frac{D}{2A_w F_{yw}} \left[F_{yt} A_t + F_{yw} A_w + F_{yrs} A_{rs} - F_{yc} A_c \right] \quad (C6.5)$$

For all other composite sections in negative flexure, D_{cp} shall be taken equal to D .

For noncomposite sections where:

$$F_{yw} A_w \geq |F_{yc} A_c - F_{yt} A_t| \quad (C6.6)$$

D_{cp} shall be taken as:

$$D_{cp} = \frac{D}{2A_w F_{yw}} \left[F_{yt} A_t + F_{yw} A_w - F_{yc} A_c \right] \quad (C6.7)$$

For all other noncomposite sections, D_{cp} shall be taken equal to D .

6.19.4. LATERAL TORSIONAL BUCKLING EQUATIONS FOR $C_B > 1.0$, WITH EMPHASIS ON UN BRACED LENGTH REQUIREMENTS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF THE MAXIMUM FLEXURAL RESISTANCE

6.19.4.1. By the Provisions of Article 6.10.8.2.3

For unbraced lengths in which the member is prismatic, the lateral torsional buckling resistance of the compression flange shall be taken as:

- If $L_b \leq L_p$, then:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (C6.8)$$

- If $L_p < L_b \leq L_r$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} \circ \text{ if } L_b \leq L_p + \frac{\left(1 - \frac{1}{C_b}\right)}{\left(1 - \frac{F_{yr}}{R_h F_{yc}}\right)} (L_r - L_p), \text{ then:} \\ F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \end{aligned} \quad (C6.9)$$

- Otherwise:

$$F_{nc} = C_b \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{F_{yr}}{R_h F_{yc}} \right) \left(\frac{L_b - L_p}{L_r - L_p} \right) \right] R_b R_h F_{yc} \leq R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (C6.10)$$

- If $L_b \leq \pi r_t \sqrt{\frac{C_b E}{R_h F_{yc}}}$, then:

$$F_{nc} = R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (C6.11)$$

- Otherwise:

$$F_{nc} = F_{cr} \leq R_b R_h F_{yc} \quad (C6.12)$$

All terms in the above equations shall be taken as defined in Article 6.10.8.2.3.

- C For values of the moment gradient modifier C_b greater than 1.0, the maximum LTB resistance F_{max} shown in Figure 6.12 may be reached at larger unbraced lengths. The provisions in this Article are equivalent to those in Articles 6.10.8.2.3, but allow the Engineer to focus on the conditions for which the LTB resistance is equal to $F_{max} = R_b R_h F_{yc}$ when the effects of moment gradient are included in determining the limits on L_b .
- C The largest unbraced length for which the LTB resistance of Article 6.10.8.2.3 is equal to the flange local buckling or FLB resistance of Article 6.10.8.2.2 may be determined by substituting $F_{nc(FLB)}/R_b$ for $R_h F_{yc}$ in checking the L_b requirement for the use of Eq. (C6.9) or (C6.11) as applicable, where $F_{nc(FLB)}$ is the FLB resistance obtained from Article 6.10.8.2.2.
- C If $D_{ctw}/b_{fc} t_{fc}$, in Eq. (6.107) is taken as a representative value of 2.0, F_{yc} is taken as 345 MPa, and $F_{yw} > 0.7 F_{yc}$ the LTB resistance of Article 6.10.8.2.3 is equal to F_{max} for $L_b < 22 b_{fc}$ when $C_b > 1.75$ and $L_b < 17 b_{fc}$ for $C_b > 1.3$. The Engineer should note that, even with relatively small values of C_b , the unbraced length requirements to achieve a flexural resistance of F_{max} are significantly larger than those associated with uniform major-axis bending and $C_b = 1$. Article 6.10.8.2.3 discusses the appropriate calculation of $C_b > 1$ for bridge design.

6.19.4.2. By the Provisions of Article A6.3.3

For unbraced lengths in which the member is prismatic, the flexural resistance based on lateral torsional buckling shall be taken as:

- If $L_b \leq L_p$, then:

$$M_{nc} = R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (C6.13)$$

- If $L_p < L_b \leq L_r$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} \circ \text{ If } L_b \leq L_p + \frac{\left(1 - \frac{1}{C_b}\right)}{\left(1 - \frac{F_{yr} S_{xc}}{R_{pc} M_{yc}}\right)} (L_r - L_p), \text{ then:} \\ M_{nc} = R_{pc} M_{yc} \end{aligned} \quad (C6.14)$$

- Otherwise:

$$M_{nc} = C_b \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{F_{yr} S_{xc}}{R_{pc} M_{yc}} \right) \left(\frac{L_b - L_p}{L_r - L_p} \right) \right] R_{pc} M_{yc} \leq R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (C6.15)$$

- If $L_b > L_r$, then:

$$\circ \text{ If } L_b \leq 1.95 r_t \frac{C_b S_{xc} E}{R_{pc} M_{yc}} \sqrt{\frac{J}{S_{xc} h}} \sqrt{1 + \left(1 + 6.76 \left(\frac{R_{pc} M_{yc} S_{xc} h}{C_b S_{xc} E J} \right)^2 \right)^{0.5}}$$

Then:

$$M_{nc} = R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (C6.16)$$

- Otherwise:

$$M_{nc} = F_{cr} S_{xc} \leq R_{pc} M_{yc} \quad (C6.17)$$

All terms in the above equations shall be taken as defined in Article 6.17.3.3.

- C For values of the moment gradient modifier C_b greater than 1.0, the maximum LTB resistance M_{max} shown in Figure 6.1 may be reached at larger unbraced lengths. The provisions in this Article are equivalent to those in Article 6.17.3.3, but allow the Engineer to focus on the conditions for which the LTB resistance is equal to $M_{max} = R_{pc} M_{yc}$ when the effects of moment gradient are included in determining the limits on L_b .
- C The largest unbraced length for which the LTB resistance of Article 6.17.3.3 is equal to the flange local buckling or FLB resistance of Article 6.17.3.2 may be determined by substituting $M_{nc(FLB)}$ for $R_{pc} M_{yc}$, in checking the L_b requirement for the use of Eq.(C6.14) or (C6.17) as applicable, where $M_{nc(FLB)}$ is the FLB resistance obtained from Article 6.17.3.2.
- C Article 6.17.3.3 typically requires similar to somewhat smaller values than Article 6.10.8.2.3 for the limits on L_b required to reach the member resistance of $M_{max} > R_h M_{yc}$. depending on the magnitude of R_{pc} . If $D_{ctw}/b_{fc} t_{fc}$ in Eq.(A6.32) is taken as a representative value of 2.0, F_{yc} is taken as 345 MPa, and $F_{yw} > 0.7 F_{yc}$, then for $R_{pc} = 1.12$, the LTB resistance of this Article is typically equal to M_{max} when $L_b < 22b_{fc}$ for $C_b > 1.75$ and when $L_b < 15b_{fc}$ for $C_b > 1.30$. For $R_{pc} = 1.30$ and using the above assumptions, M_{max} is achieved by the LTB equations when $L_b < 20b_{fc}$ for $C_b > 1.75$ and when $L_b < 13b_{fc}$ for $C_b > 1.30$. The Engineer should note that, even with relatively small values of C_b , the unbraced length requirements to achieve a flexural resistance of M_{max} are significantly larger than those associated with uniform major-axis bending and $C_b = 1$. Article 6.10.8.2.3 discusses the appropriate calculation of $C_b > 1$ for bridge design.

6.19.5. CONCENTRATED LOADS APPLIED TO WEBS WITHOUT BEARING STIFFENERS

6.19.5.1. General

At bearing locations and at other locations subjected to concentrated loads, where the loads are not transmitted through a deck or deck system. Webs without bearing stiffeners shall be investigated for the limit states of web local yielding and web crippling according to the provisions of Articles [6.18.5.2](#) and [6.19.5.3](#).

- C The equations of this Article are essentially identical to the equations given in [AISC \(2005\)](#). The limit state of sidesway web buckling given in [AISC \(2005\)](#) is not included because it governs only for members subjected to concentrated loads directly applied to the steel section, and for members for which the compression flange is braced at the load point, the tension flange is unbraced at this point, and the ratio of D/t_w to L_b/b_f is less than or equal to 1.7. These conditions typically do not occur in bridge construction.
- C Built-up sections and rolled shapes without bearing stiffeners at the indicated locations should either be modified to comply with these requirements, or else bearing stiffeners designed according to the provisions of Article [6.10.11.2](#) should be placed on the web at the location under consideration.
- C For unusual situations in which diametrically opposed concentrated loads are directly applied to the web of the steel section at the level of each of the flanges, such as if a concentrated force were applied directly over a reaction point at an unstiffened location along the length of a girder, the [AISC \(2005\)](#) provisions pertaining to additional stiffener requirements for concentrated forces should be considered.

6.19.5.2. Web Local Yielding

Webs subject to compressive or tensile concentrated loads shall satisfy:

$$R_u \leq \phi_b R_n \quad (\text{C6.18})$$

in which:

R_n = nominal resistance to the concentrated loading (N)

- For interior-pier reactions and for concentrated loads applied at a distance from the end of the member that is greater than d :

$$R_n = (5k+N) F_{yw} t_w \quad (\text{C6.19})$$

- Otherwise:

$$R_n = (2.5k+N) F_{yw} t_w \quad (\text{C6.20})$$

where:

ϕ_b = resistance factor for bearing specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#)

d = depth of the steel section (mm)

k = distance from the outer face of the flange resisting the concentrated load or bearing reaction to the web toe of the fillet (mm)

N = length of bearing (mm). N shall be greater than or equal to k at end bearing locations.

R_u = factored concentrated load or bearing reaction (N)

This limit state is intended to prevent localized yielding of the web resulting from either high compressive or tensile stress due to a concentrated load or bearing reaction.

- C Concentrated load acting on a rolled shape or a built-up section is assumed critical at the toe of the fillet located a distance k from the outer face of the flange resisting the concentrated load or bearing reaction, as applicable. For a rolled shape, k is published in the available tables giving dimensions for

the shapes. For a built-up section, k may be taken as the distance from the outer face of the flange to the web toe of the web-to-flange fillet weld.

- C In Eq. (C6.19) for interior loads or interior-pier reactions, the load is assumed to distribute along the web at a slope of 2.5 to 1 and over a distance of $(5k + N)$. An interior concentrated load is defined as a load applied at a distance from the end of the member that is greater than the depth of the steel section d . In Eq. (C6.20) for end loads or end reactions, the load is assumed to distribute along the web at the same slope over a distance of $(2.5k + N)$. These criteria are largely based on the work of Johnston and Kubo (1941) and Graham et al. (1959).

6.19.5.3. Web Crippling

Webs subject to compressive concentrated loads shall satisfy:

$$R_u \leq \phi_w R_n \quad (\text{C6.21})$$

in which:

R_n = nominal resistance to the concentrated loading (N)

- For interior-pier reactions and for concentrated loads applied at a distance from the end of the member that is greater than or equal to $d/2$:

$$R_n = 0.8 t_w^2 \left[1 + 3 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \left(\frac{t_w}{t_f} \right)^{1.5} \right] \sqrt{\frac{E F_{yw} t_f}{t_w}} \quad (\text{C6.22})$$

- Otherwise:

- o If $N/d \leq 0.2$, then:

$$R_n = 0.4 t_w^2 \left[1 + 3 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \left(\frac{t_w}{t_f} \right)^{1.5} \right] \sqrt{\frac{E F_{yw} t_f}{t_w}} \quad (\text{C6.23})$$

- o If $N/d > 0.2$, then:

$$R_n = 0.4 t_w^2 \left[1 + 3 \left(\frac{4N}{d} - 0.2 \right) \left(\frac{t_w}{t_f} \right)^{1.5} \right] \sqrt{\frac{E F_{yw} t_f}{t_w}} \quad (\text{C6.24})$$

where:

ϕ_w = resistance factor for web crippling specified in Article 6.5.4.2.

t_f = thickness of the flange resisting the concentrated load or bearing reaction (mm)

- C This limit state is intended to prevent local instability or crippling of the web resulting from a high compressive stress due to a concentrated load or bearing reaction.
- C Eq. (C6.22) and (C6.23) are based on research by Roberts (1981).
- C E (C6.24) for $N/d > 0.2$ was developed after additional testing by Elgaaly and Salkar (1991) to better represent the effect of longer bearing lengths at the ends of members.

6.20. APPENDIX D6: COMMENTARIES ON ARTICLES

6.20.1. Commentary on Article 6.7.4.2 "I-Section Members"

For the purpose of this Article, as it applies to horizontally curved girders, the term "normal" shall be taken to mean normal to a local tangent.

Intermediate diaphragms or cross-frames should be provided at nearly uniform spacing in most cases, for efficiency of the structural design, for constructability, and/or to allow the use of simplified methods of analysis for calculation of flange lateral bending stresses, such as those discussed in commentary of Articles 4.6.1.2.4.b, 4.6.2.7.1 and 6.10.3.4. Closer spacings may be necessary adjacent to interior piers, in the vicinity of skewed supports, and in some cases, near midspan.

Allowance of skewed intermediate diaphragms or cross-frames where supports are not skewed more than 20° is consistent with past practice. Where supports are skewed more than 20° , it may be advantageous to stagger the cross-frame spacing in such a manner that the transverse stiffness of the bridge is reduced, particularly in the vicinity of the supports. Staggered cross-frames have the effect of decreasing the cross-frame forces and increasing flange lateral bending. The actual flange lateral moments with staggered cross-frames may differ from those estimated using Eq. (B4.1) or equivalent, so a special investigation of flange lateral moments and cross-frame forces is advisable. Removal of highly stressed diaphragms or cross-frames, particularly near obtuse corners, releases the girders torsionally and is often beneficial as long as girder rotation is not excessive.

At severely skewed interior supports, the placement of diaphragms or cross-frames along the skewed support line is not recommended. Detailing the intersections with diaphragms or cross-frames oriented normal to the girders is complex, and the normal diaphragms or cross-frames should be sufficient to resist any lateral components of force that develop at the bearings. For skews not exceeding 20° , diaphragms or cross-frames along the skewed support line alone may be sufficient. In this case, diaphragms or cross-frames normal to the girders may be too close together introducing significant lateral bending into the girder flanges. For skewed diaphragms or cross-frames, connection plates should be oriented in the plane of the transverse bracing. The connection plate must be able to transfer force between the girder and the bracing without undue distortion. Welding of skewed connection plates to the girder may be problematic where the plate forms an acute angle with the girder.

The spacing of intermediate diaphragms and cross-frames in horizontally curved I-girder bridges in the erected condition is limited to $R/10$, which is consistent with past practice. The spacing is also limited to L , from Eq. (6.103), where L , is a limiting unbraced length to achieve the onset of nominal yielding in either flange under uniform bending with consideration of compression-flange residual stress effects prior to lateral torsional buckling of the compression flange. Limiting the unbraced length to L_r theoretically precludes elastic lateral torsional buckling of the compression flange. At unbraced lengths beyond L_r , significant flange lateral bending is likely to occur and the amplification factor for flange lateral bending specified in Article 6.10.1.6 will tend to become large even when an effective length factor for lateral torsional buckling and/or a moment gradient factor, C_b , is considered.

Eq. (D6.1) may be used as a guide for preliminary framing in horizontally curved I-girder bridges:

$$L_b = \sqrt{\frac{5}{3} r_\sigma R b_f} \quad (\text{D6.1})$$

where:

- b_f = flange width (mm)
- L_b = diaphragm or cross-frame spacing (mm)
- r_σ = desired bending stress ratio equal to $|f_t/f_{bu}|$
- R = girder radius (mm)

A maximum value of 0.3 may be used for the bending stress ratio, r_σ . Eq.(D6.1) was derived from the V-load concept (Richardson, Gordon and Associates, 1976) and has been shown to yield a good correlation with three-dimensional finite-element analysis results if the cross-frame spacing is relatively uniform (Davidson et al., 1996)

6.20.2. Commentary on Article 6.7.4.3 "Box Section Members"

Refined analysis of internal diaphragms at supports is usually desirable because these primary members are necessary for the integrity of the bridge. External support diaphragms with aspect ratios, or ratios of length to depth, less than 4.0. And internal diaphragms act as deep beams and should be evaluated by considering principal stresses rather than by simple beam theory. Fatigue-sensitive details on these diaphragms and at the connection of the diaphragms to the flanges should be investigated considering the principal tensile stresses.

Boxes may undergo excessive rotation in some cases when the concrete deck is placed if intermediate diaphragms or cross-frames are not provided between boxes. If analysis shows that such rotations are anticipated, temporary cross-frames may be employed. Removal of such temporary members may lead to failure of remaining bolts. Creating a safety concern. The effect of the release of bracing forces on the bridge can be investigated by considering the effect of reversal of member loads. Removal of temporary cross-frames having large forces may cause increased deck stresses.

External bracing at locations other than support points is usually not necessary. If analysis shows that the boxes will rotate excessively when the concrete deck is placed, temporary unpainted external bracing may be desirable.

However, the effect of removal of any temporary bracing needs to be considered. The removal of bracing tends to cause increased stresses in the concrete deck.

Until the deck on a tub section hardens, internal cross-frames or diaphragms and lateral top flange bracing are required to stabilize the top flanges of tub sections in compression when the concrete deck is placed. However, to restrain the cross-section to remain plane and provide the necessary stability, additional longitudinal restraint must be provided to the girder from the bearings or top lateral bracing. Internal bracing also helps to retain the shape of the box or tub. For straight boxes without skew satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3 and with fully effective box flanges, transverse bending stresses and longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion have often been shown to be small (Johnston and Mattock, 1967) and may be neglected. Torsion may be significant, however. If the deck weight acting on the box is unsymmetrical. A reduction in the number of permanent internal cross-frames or diaphragms and/or top lateral bracing members in such boxes is permitted when checked by proper analysis. Internal cross-frames or diaphragm should be placed at or

near points of maximum moment and near both sides of field splices. The Engineer should also consider the need for additional temporary or permanent internal cross-frames or diaphragms. Which may be required for transportation, construction and at the lifting points of each shipping piece?

Cross-sectional distortion stresses are best controlled by the introduction of internal cross-frames or diaphragms. With the spacing of these members not to exceed 12 m for the cases specified herein. For the specific cases listed in Article 6.11.1.1, transverse bending stresses due to cross-section distortion are explicitly limited to 135 MPa at the strength limit state, as required in Article 6.11.1.1. In addition, internal bracing members should be spaced to limit the longitudinal warping stresses due to the factored loads to approximately ten percent of the stresses due to major-axis bending at the strength limit state, with the spacing of these members not to exceed 9 m. For cases where the St. Venant torques are deemed significant, consideration should be given to providing transverse bracing members across the bottom of the box or tub as part of the interior bracing to ensure that the cross-section shape is retained. In such cases, the bottom transverse bracing members are to be attached to the box flange or to the longitudinal flange stiffeners to better control transverse distortion of the box flange. For closed-box sections, the top transverse bracing members should be similarly attached.

In cases with widely spaced internal cross-frames or diaphragms, additional struts between the top flanges of tub sections may be necessary in order to satisfy the constructability provisions of Article 6.11.3.2. As indicated in Article 6.11.3.2, struts that are part of top lateral bracing systems attached to the flanges at points where internal cross-frames or diaphragms do not exist may be considered to act as brace points at the discretion of the Engineer.

Where distortion of the section is adequately controlled by the internal cross-frames or diaphragms, acting in conjunction with a top lateral bracing system in the case of tub sections, the St. Venant torsional inertia, J , for a box section may be determined as:

$$J = 4 \frac{A_o^2}{\sum_t \frac{b}{t}} \quad (D6.2)$$

where:

- A_o = area enclosed by the box section (mm²)
- b = width of rectangular plate element (mm)
- t = thickness of plate (mm)

In tub sections with inclined webs with a slope exceeding 1 to 4 and/or where the unbraced length of the top flanges exceeds 9 m., additional intermediate internal cross-frames, diaphragms or struts may be required to increase the resistance of discretely braced top flanges of tub sections to lateral bending resulting from a uniformly distributed transverse load acting on the flanges.

This lateral load results from the change in the horizontal component of the web dead load shear plus the change in the St. Venant torsional dead load shear per unit length along the member, and is discussed further in Article 6.11.3.2.

Because of the critical nature of internal and external diaphragms, particularly at supports, any reliance on post-buckling resistance is not advisable. Satisfaction of Eq.(6.57) ensures that theoretical bend buckling of internal and external diaphragm webs will not occur for elastic stress levels at or below the yield stress.

Limiting the nominal shear resistance of diaphragm webs to the shear buckling or shear yield resistance according to Eq. (6.122) prevents any reliance on post-buckling shear resistance. Bearing stiffeners on internal diaphragms act as transverse stiffeners in computing the nominal shear resistance.

A portion of the box flange width equal to six times its thickness may be considered effective with an internal diaphragm.

The attachment of internal cross-frame connection plates to box flanges is discussed further in Article 6.6.1.3.1.

6.20.3. Commentary on Article 6.7.5.3 "Tub Section Members"

Investigation will generally show that a lateral bracing system is not required between multiple tub sections.

The shear center of an open tub section is located below the bottom flange (Heins, 1975). The addition of top lateral bracing raises the shear center closer to the center of the resulting pseudo-box section, significantly improving the torsional stiffness.

In addition to resisting the shear flow before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite, top lateral bracing members are also subject to significant forces due to flexure of the noncomposite tub. In the absence of a more refined analysis, Fan and Helwig (1999)

provide an approach for estimating these forces.

Top lateral bracing members are also subject to forces due to wind loads acting on the noncomposite pseudo-box section during construction.

For straight tub sections with spans less than about 45750 mm, as a minimum, at least one panel of horizontal lateral bracing should be provided within the tub on each side of a lifting point. The need for additional lateral bracing to resist the shear flow resulting from any net torque on the steel section due to unequal factored deck weight loads acting on each side of the top flanges, or any other known eccentric loads acting on the steel section during construction, should be considered. Cross-section distortion and top-flange lateral bending stresses may need to be considered when a tub with a partial-length bracing system is subjected to a net torque. A full-length lateral bracing system should be considered for cases where the torques acting on the steel section are deemed particularly significant, e.g. tub-section members resting on skewed supports and/or tub-section members on which the deck is unsymmetrically placed. If a full-length system is not provided in a straight tub-section member, the Engineer must ensure the local and global stability of the top flanges and the tub-section member, respectively, during the various assumed stages of construction. For straight tub sections with spans greater than about 45750 mm, a full-length lateral bracing system should be provided within the tub.

For both straight and horizontally curved tub sections, a full-length lateral bracing system forms a pseudo-box to help limit distortions brought about by temperature changes occurring prior to concrete deck placement, and to resist the torsion and twist caused by any eccentric loads acting on the steel section during construction. AASHTO (1993) specified that diagonal members of the top lateral bracing for tub sections satisfy the following criterion:

$$A_d \geq 0.76w \quad (\text{D6.3})$$

where:

- A_d = minimum required cross-sectional area of one diagonal (mm^2)
 w = Center-to-center distance between the top flanges (mm)

Satisfaction of this criterion was intended to ensure that the top lateral bracing would be sized so that the tub would act as a pseudo-box section with minimal warping torsional displacement and normal stresses due to warping torsion less than or equal to ten percent of the major-axis bending stresses. This criterion was developed assuming tub sections with vertical webs and ratios of section width-to-depth between 0.5 and 2.0, and an X-type top lateral bracing system with the diagonals placed at an angle of 45° relative to the longitudinal centerline of the tub-girder flanges (Heins, 1978). Although this criterion may not necessarily be directly applicable to other bracing configurations and cross-section geometries, it is recommended that Eq.(D6.3) still be used. as a guideline to ensure that a reasonable minimum area is provided for the diagonal bracing members.

Single-diagonal top lateral bracing systems are preferred over X-type systems because there are fewer pieces to fabricate and erect and fewer connections. However, forces in alternating Warren-type single-diagonal top lateral bracing members, as shown in Figure 6.8, due to flexure of the tub section can sometimes result in the development of significant lateral bending stresses in the top flanges. In lieu of a refined analysis, Fan and Helwig (1999) provide an approach for estimating the top-flange lateral bending stresses due to these forces. If necessary, the flange lateral bending stresses and forces in the bracing members in this case can often be effectively mitigated by the judicious placement of parallel single-diagonal members, or a Pratt-type configuration, in each bay in lieu of a Warren-type configuration as shown in Figure 6.9. In this configuration, the members should be oriented based on the sign of the torque so that the forces induced in these members due to torsion offset the compressive or tensile forces induced in the same members due to flexure of the tub section. The forces in the lateral bracing system are very sensitive to the casting sequence. If the member sizes have been optimized based upon an assumed casting sequence, it is imperative that the assumed casting sequence be shown in the contract documents. Field tests have shown that forces in the top lateral system after the deck has been cast are negligible.

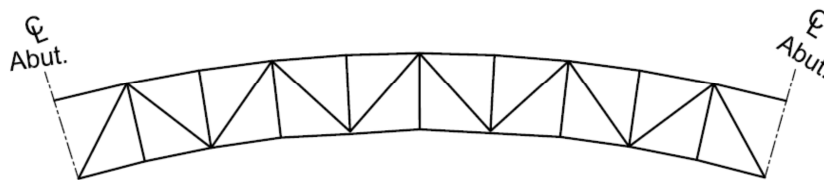


Figure 6.8: Warren-Type Single-Diagonal Top Lateral Bracing System for Tub Section Member: Plan View.

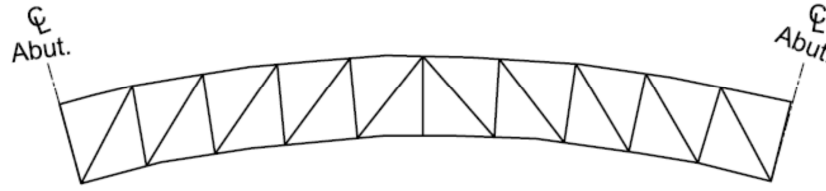


Figure 6.9: Pratt-Type Single-Diagonal Top Lateral Bracing System for Tub Section Member: Plan View.

Where the forces in the bracing members are not available from a refined analysis, the shear flow across the top of the pseudo-box section can be computed from Eq. (D6.12) assuming the top lateral bracing acts as an equivalent plate. The resulting shear can then be computed by multiplying the resulting shear flow by the width w , and the shear can then be resolved into the diagonal bracing member(s). Should it become necessary for any reason to compute the St. Venant torsional stiffness of the pseudo-box section according to Eq. (D6.2), formulas are available (Kollbrunner and Basler, 1966; Dabrowski, 1968) to calculate the thickness of the equivalent plate for different possible configurations of top lateral bracing. Top lateral bracing should be continuous across field splice locations.

6.20.4. Commentary on Article 6.10.1 "I-Section Flexural Members, General"

This Article addresses general topics that apply to all types of steel I-sections in either straight bridges, horizontally curved bridges, or bridges containing both straight and curved segments. For the application of the provisions of Article 6.10, bridges containing both straight and curved segments are to be treated as horizontally curved bridges since the effects of curvature on the support reactions and girder deflections, as well as the effects of flange lateral bending, usually extend beyond the curved segments. Note that kinked (chorded) girders exhibit the same actions as curved girders, except that the effect of the noncollinearity of the flanges is concentrated at the kinks. Continuous kinked (chorded) girders should be treated as horizontally curved girders with respect to these Specifications.

The five bullet items in this Article indicate the overarching organization of the subsequent provisions for the design of straight I-section flexural members. Each of the sub-articles throughout Article 6.10 are written such that they are largely self-contained, thus minimizing the need for reference to multiple articles to address anyone of the essential design considerations. For the strength limit state, Article 6.10.6 directs the Engineer to the subsequent Articles 6.10.7 through 6.10.12, and optionally for sections in straight I-girder bridges only, to Appendices A and B, for the appropriate design requirements based on the type of I-section. The specific provisions of these Articles and Appendices are discussed in the corresponding Articles of the Commentary.

The provisions of Article 6.10 and the optional Articles 6.17 and 6.18 provide a unified approach for consideration of combined major-axis bending and flange lateral bending from any source. For the majority of straight non-skewed bridges, flange lateral bending effects tend to be most significant during construction and tend to be insignificant in the final constructed condition.

Significant flange lateral bending may be caused by wind, by torsion from eccentric concrete deck overhang loads acting on cantilever forming brackets placed along exterior girders, and by the use of discontinuous cross-frames, i.e., not forming a

continuous line between multiple girders, in conjunction with skews exceeding 20°. In these cases, the flange lateral bending may be considered at the discretion of the Engineer. Although the use of refined analysis methods is not required in order to fulfill the requirements of these provisions, these methods, when utilized, do allow for consideration of these effects. Some of these effects have not been addressed explicitly in previous Specifications. The intent of the Article 6.10 provisions is to permit the Engineer to consider flange lateral bending effects in the design in a direct and rational manner should they be judged to be significant. A suggested estimate for the total unfactored f_ℓ in a flange due to the use of discontinuous cross-frame or diaphragm lines in conjunction with a skew angle exceeding 20° is 69MPa. It is suggested that this value be proportioned to dead and live load in the same proportion as the unfactored major axis dead and live load stresses. When the above effects are judged to be insignificant or incidental, the flange lateral bending term, f_ℓ , is simply set equal to zero in the appropriate equations. The format of the equations then reduces simply to the more conventional and familiar format for checking the nominal flexural resistance of I-sections in the absence of flange lateral bending.

For horizontally curved bridges, in addition to the potential sources of flange lateral bending discussed in the preceding paragraph, flange lateral bending effects due to curvature must always be considered at all limit states and also during construction.

The fact that new design equations and provisions are provided herein does not imply that existing bridges are unsafe or structurally deficient. It also does not mandate the need to rehabilitate or perform a new load rating of existing structures to satisfy these provisions.

Fundamental calculations for flexural members previously found in Article 6.10.3 of AASHTO (2004) have been placed in Appendix D.

6.20.5. Commentary on Article 6.10.1.4 "Variable Web Depth Members"

If the normal stress in an inclined bottom flange, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending, is determined by simply dividing the bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section by the elastic section modulus, this stress is generally underestimated.

The normal stress within an inclined bottom flange may be determined by first calculating the horizontal component of the flange force required to develop this bending moment as:

$$P_h = MA_f / S_x \quad (D6.4)$$

where:

A_f = area of the inclined bottom flange (mm²)

M = bending moment about the major-axis of the cross-section at the section under consideration (N-mm)

S_x = elastic section modulus to the inclined bottom flange (mm³)

For composite sections, the provisions of Article 6.10.1.1.a are to be applied in computing P_h . The normal stress in the inclined flange, f_n , may then be determined as (Blodgett, 1982):

$$f_n = P_h / A_f \cos \theta \quad (D6.5)$$

where θ = angle of inclination of the bottom flange (°)

The corresponding vertical component of the flange force, P_v may be determined as:

$$P_v = P_h \tan \theta \quad (\text{D6.6})$$

This component of the flange force affects the vertical web shear. In regions of positive flexure with tapered or parabolic haunches sloping downward toward the supports, the vertical web shear is increased by P_v . For fish belly haunches, $P_v = 0$ near the supports. For all other cases, the vertical web shear is reduced by P_v . The Specifications permit the Engineer to reduce the web dead-load shear accordingly in these cases. Calculation of the reduced live-load shear is problematic because numerous sets of concurrent moments and shears must be evaluated in order to determine the critical or smallest shear reduction, and thus is not likely worth the effort. Also, variable depth webs are used most often on longer-span girders where dead load is more predominant.

In parabolic haunches, where the downward slope of the bottom flange is larger at positions closer to the interior support, the change in the bottom-flange inclination in combination with compressive stress in the bottom flange induces a compressive distributed transverse force on the web (Blodgett, 1982). If the girder web is unstiffened or transversely-stiffened with a stiffener spacing d_o greater than approximately $1.5D$ within this type of haunch, the Engineer should check the stability of the web under this force.

At points where an inclined flange becomes horizontal, the vertical component of the inclined flange force is transferred back into the web as a concentrated load. This concentrated load causes additional stress in the web and web-to-bottom flange welds, and will often require additional local stiffening. At these locations, the web is sufficient without additional stiffening if the requirement of Article 6.19.5.2 is satisfied using a length of bearing N equal to zero. At locations where the concentrated load is compressive and N is equal to zero, the provisions of Article 6.19.5.2 generally govern relative to those of Article 6.19.5.3; therefore, satisfaction of the requirement of Article 6.19.5.2 using a length of bearing N equal to zero ensures that the web is adequate without additional stiffening for locations subjected to compressive or tensile concentrated transverse loads.

6.20.6. Commentary on Article 6.10.1.6 "Flange Stresses and Member Bending Moments"

For checking of lateral torsional buckling resistance, the correct value of the stress f_{bu} or moment M_u is generally the largest value causing compression in the flange under consideration throughout the unbraced length.

For a discretely braced compression flange also subject to lateral bending, the largest lateral bending stress throughout the unbraced length of the flange under consideration must be used in combination with f_{bu} or M_u when the resistance is based on lateral torsional buckling.

Combined vertical and flange lateral bending is addressed in these Specifications by effectively handling the flanges as equivalent beam-columns. The use of the maximum f_t and f_{bu} or M_u values within the unbraced length, when the resistance is governed by member stability, i.e., lateral torsional buckling, is consistent with established practice in the proper application of beam-column interaction equations.

Yielding, flange local buckling and web bend-buckling are considered as cross-section limit states.

Hence, the Engineer is allowed to use coincident cross-section values of f_ℓ and f_{bu} or M_u when checking these limit states. Generally, this approach necessitates checking of the limit states at various cross-sections along the unbraced length. When the maximum values of f_ℓ and f_{bu} or M_u occur at different locations within the unbraced length, it is conservative to use the maximum values in a single application of the yielding and flange local buckling equations. Flange lateral bending does not enter into the web bend-buckling resistance equations.

In lieu of a more refined analysis, Article 6.10.3.4 gives approximate equations for calculation of the maximum flange lateral bending moments due to eccentric concrete deck overhang loads acting on cantilever forming brackets placed along exterior members. Determination of flange wind moments is addressed in Article 4.6.2.7. The determination of flange lateral bending moments due to the effect of staggered cross-frames and/or support skew is best handled by a direct structural analysis of the bridge superstructure. The determination of flange lateral bending moments due to curvature is addressed in Article 4.6.1.2.4.b.

In all resistance equations, f_{bu} , M_u and f_ℓ are to be taken as positive in sign. However, for service and strength limit state checks at locations where the dead and live load contributions to f_{bu} , M_u or f_ℓ are of opposite sign, the signs of each contribution must be initially taken into account. In such cases, for both dead and live load, the appropriate net sum of the major-axis and lateral bending actions due to the factored loads must be computed, taking the signs into consideration that will result in the most critical response for the limit state under consideration.

The top flange may be considered continuously braced where it is encased in concrete or anchored to the deck by shear connectors satisfying the provisions of Article 6.10.10. For a continuously braced flange in tension or compression, flange lateral bending effects need not be considered. Additional lateral bending stresses are small once the concrete deck has been placed. Lateral bending stresses induced in a continuously braced flange prior to this stage need not be considered after the deck has been placed. The resistance of the composite concrete deck is generally adequate to compensate for the neglect of these initial lateral bending stresses. The Engineer should consider the non-composite lateral bending stresses in the top flange if the flange is not continuously supported by the deck.

The provisions of Article 6.10 for handling of combined vertical and flange lateral bending are limited to I-sections that are loaded predominantly in major-axis bending. For cases in which the elastically computed flange lateral bending stress is larger than approximately $0.6F_{yf}$, the reduction in the major-axis bending resistance due to flange lateral bending tends to be greater than that determined based on these provisions. The service and strength limit state provisions of these Specifications are sufficient to ensure acceptable performance of I-girders with elastically computed f_ℓ values somewhat larger than this limit.

Eq. (6.44), or equivalently Eq. (6.46) as applicable, simply gives a maximum value of L_b for which $f_\ell = f_{\ell 1}$ in Eq. (6.47) or Eq. (6.48). Eq. (6.47), or equivalently Eq. (6.48) as applicable, is an approximate formula that accounts for the amplification of the first-order compression-flange lateral bending stresses due to second-order effects. This equation, which is an established form for estimating the maximum second-order elastic moments in braced beam-column members whose ends are restrained by other

framing, tends to be significantly conservative for larger unsupported lengths associated with f_{bu} approaching f_{cr} (White et al. 2001).

This conservatism exists even when an effective length factor for lateral torsional buckling and/or a moment gradient factor C_b is considered in the calculation of F_{cr} and even when one end of the unbraced segment under consideration is not restrained by an adjacent segment.

Although Eq.(6.47) and Eq.(6.48) are directed at estimating the maximum second-order lateral bending stress within the unbraced length, by use of the maximum first-order lateral bending stress for f_{l1} , they may be applied for estimating the second-order lateral bending stresses at any crosssection within the unbraced length under consideration by use of the corresponding value of f_{l1} at that location.

The purpose of Eq.(6.47) and Eq.(6.48) is to guard conservatively against large unbraced lengths in which the flange secondorder lateral bending effects are significant. In construction situations where the amplification within these equations is large, the Engineer may wish to consider a direct geometric nonlinear analysis to more accurately determine the second-order effects within the superstructure, or using a lower value of the effective length factor for lateral torsional buckling to appropriately increase F_{cr} according to the procedure suggested in Article 6.10.8.2.3.

Note that the calculated value of F_{cr} for use in Eq.(6.47) is not limited to $R_b R_h F_{yc}$ as specified in Article 6.10.8.2.3, and that the calculated value of $F_{cr} S_{xc}$ for use in Eq.(6.48) is not limited to $R_{pc} M_{yc}$ as specified in Article 6.17.3.3. The elastic buckling stress is the appropriate stress for use in Eq.(6.47) and Eq.(6.48) to estimate the elastic second-order amplification of the flange lateral bending stresses.

The definitions of a compact web and of a noncompact web are discussed in Article 6.10.6.2.3.

6.20.7. Commentary on Article 6.10.1.7 "Minimum Negative Flexure Concrete Deck Reinforcement"

The use of one percent reinforcement with a size not exceeding 20 mm Dia.bars, a yield strength greater than or equal to 400 MPa, and spacing at intervals not exceeding 300 mm is intended to control concrete deck cracking.

Pertinent criteria for concrete crack control are discussed in more detail in AASHTO (1991) and in Haaijer et al. (1987).

Previously, the requirement for one percent longitudinal reinforcement was limited to negative flexure regions of continuous spans, which are often implicitly taken as the regions between points of dead load contraflexure. Under moving live loads, the deck can experience significant tensile stresses outside the points of dead load contraflexure. Placement of the concrete deck in stages can also produce negative flexure during construction in regions where the deck already has been placed, although these regions may be subjected primarily to positive flexure in the final condition. Thermal and shrinkage strains can also cause tensile stresses in the deck in regions where such stresses otherwise might not be anticipated. To address these issues, the one percent longitudinal reinforcement is to be placed wherever the tensile stress in the deck due to either the factored construction loads, including loads during the various phases of the deck placement sequence, or due to Load Combination Service II in Table 3.1, exceeds ϕ_f . By satisfying the provisions of this Article to control the crack size in regions where adequate shear connection is also provided, the concrete deck may be considered to be effective in tension for computing fatigue stress ranges, as permitted in Article

[6.6.1.2.1](#), and in determining flexural stresses on the composite section due to Load Combination Service II, as permitted in Article [6.10.4.2.1](#).

In addition to providing one percent longitudinal deck reinforcement, nominal yielding of this reinforcement should be prevented at Load Combination Service II (Carskaddan, 1980; AASHTO, 1991; Grubb, 1993) to control concrete deck cracking. The use of longitudinal deck reinforcement with a specified minimum yield strength not less than 400MPa may be taken to preclude nominal yielding of the longitudinal reinforcement under this load combination in the following cases:

- Unshored construction where the steel section utilizes steel with a specified minimum yield strength less than or equal to 485 MPa in either flange, or
- Shored construction where the steel section utilizes steel with a specified minimum yield strength less than or equal to 345 MPa in either flange.

In these cases, the effects of any nominal yielding within the longitudinal reinforcing steel are judged to be insignificant. Otherwise, the Engineer should check to ensure that nominal yielding of the longitudinal reinforcement does not occur under the applicable Service II loads. The above rules are based on Carskaddan (1980) and apply for members that are designed by the provisions of Article [6.10](#) or Article [6.17](#), as well as for members that are designed for redistribution of the pier section moments at the Service II Load Combination using the provisions of Article [6.18](#).

Where feasible, approximately two-thirds of the required reinforcement should be placed in the top layer. When precast deck panels are used as deck forms, it may not be possible to place the longitudinal reinforcement in two layers. In such cases, the placement requirements may be waived at the discretion of the Engineer.

6.20.8. Commentary on Article [6.10.1.9.1](#) "Webs without Longitudinal Stiffeners"

In subsequent Articles, the web theoretical bend buckling resistance is checked generally against the maximum compression-flange stress due to the factored loads, calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending. The precision associated with making a distinction between the stress in the compression flange and the maximum compressive stress in the web is not warranted.

The potential use of a value of F_{crw} greater than the specified minimum yield strength of the web, F_{yw} , in hybrid sections is justified since the flange tends to restrain the longitudinal strains associated with web bend-buckling for nominal compression-flange stresses up to $R_h F_{yc}$. A stable nominally elastic compression flange constrains the longitudinal and plate bending strains in the inelastic web at the web-flange juncture (ASCE, 1968). ASCE (1968) recommends that web bend-buckling does not need to be considered in hybrid sections with F_{yc} up to 690 MPa as long as the web slenderness does not exceed $5.87\sqrt{E/F_{yc}}$. Eq.([6.50](#)) predicts $F_{crw}=F_{yc}$ at $2D_c/t_w=5.7\sqrt{E/F_{yc}}$. For hybrid sections with $F_{yw}/F_{yc} < 0.7$, these provisions adopt a more conservative approach than recommended by ASCE (1968) by limiting F_{crw} to the smaller of $R_h F_{yc}$ and $F_{yw}/0.7$. The flexural resistance equations of these Specifications give somewhat conservative predictions for the strengths of hybrid members without longitudinal stiffeners tested by Lew and Toprac (1968) that had D/t_w and $2D/t_w$ values as high as 305 and $F_{yw}/F_{yc} = 0.32$. Therefore, no additional requirements are necessary at the strength limit state for all potential values of F_{yw}/F_{yc} associated with the steels specified in Article [6.4.1](#).

In many experimental tests, noticeable web plate bending deformations and associated transverse displacements occur from the onset of load application due to initial web out-of-flatness. Because of the stable post-buckling behavior of the web, there is no significant change in the rate of increase of the web transverse displacements as a function of the applied loads as the theoretical web bend-buckling stress is exceeded (Basler et al., 1960). Due to unavoidable geometric imperfections, the web bend-buckling behavior is a load-deflection rather than a bifurcation problem. The theoretical web-buckling load is used in these Specifications as a simple index for controlling the web plate bending strains and transverse displacements.

For a doubly-symmetric I-section without longitudinal web stiffeners, Eq.(6.51) gives $k = 36.0$, which is approximately equal to $k_{ss} + 0.8(k_{sf} - k_{ss})$, where $k_{ss} = 23.9$ and $k_{sf} = 39.6$ are the bend-buckling coefficients for simply-supported and fully restrained longitudinal edge conditions, respectively (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961). For I-sections in which $D_c \neq 0.5D$, Eq.(6.51) provides a reasonable approximation of theoretical bend-buckling resistance (Galambos, 1998) consistent with the above.

For composite sections subjected to positive flexure, these Specifications do not require the use of Eq.(6.50) after the section is in its final composite condition for webs that do not require longitudinal stiffeners based on Article 6.10.2.1.1. The section must be checked for web bend-buckling during construction while in the noncomposite condition. For loads applied at the fatigue and service limit states after the deck has hardened or is made composite, the increased compressive stresses in the web tend to be compensated for by the increase in F_{crw} resulting from the corresponding decrease in D_c . At the strength limit state, these compensating effects continue. Based on the section proportioning limits specified in Article 6.10.2 and the ductility requirement specified in Article 6.10.7.3, F_{crw} for these sections is generally close to or larger than F_{yc} at the strength limit state.

For composite sections in positive flexure in which longitudinal web stiffeners are required based on Article 6.10.2.1.1, the web slenderness requirement of Article 6.10.2.1.2 is not sufficient in general to ensure that theoretical bend-buckling of the web will not occur.

Therefore, The Specifications require the calculation of R_b for these types of sections, as discussed further in Article 6.10.1.10.2.

For composite sections in negative flexure, D_c is to be computed using the section consisting of the steel girder plus the longitudinal deck reinforcement, with the one possible exception noted at the service limit state in Article 6.19.2.1. This approach limits the potential complications in subsequent load rating resulting from the flexural resistance being a function of D_c and D_c being taken as a function of the applied load. This approach leads to a more conservative calculation of the flexural resistance, but the influence on the resistance is typically inconsequential.

Near points of permanent-load contraflexure, both edges of the web may be in compression when stresses in the steel and composite sections due to moments of opposite sign are accumulated. In this case, the neutral axis lies outside the web. Thus, the specification states that k be taken equal to 7.2 when both edges of the web are in compression, which is approximately equal to the theoretical bend-buckling coefficient for a web plate under uniform compression assuming fully restrained longitudinal edge conditions (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961). Such a case is relatively rare and the accumulated web compressive stresses are typically small when it occurs; however, this case may need to be considered in computer software.

6.20.9. Commentary on Article 6.10.1.9.2 "Webs with Longitudinal Stiffeners"

Eqs. (6.52) and (6.53) give an accurate approximation of the bend-buckling coefficient k for webs with a single longitudinal stiffener in any vertical location (Frank and Helwig, 1995). The resulting k depends on the location of the closest longitudinal web stiffener to the compression flange with respect to its optimum location at $d_s/D_c = 0.4$ (Vincent, 1969) and is used to determine the bend-buckling resistance from Eq. (6.50).

Changes in flange size cause D_c to vary along the length of a girder. In a composite girder, D_c is also a function of the applied load. If the longitudinal stiffener is located a fixed distance from the compression flange, which is normally the case, the stiffener cannot be at its optimum location throughout the girder length. In composite girders with longitudinally-stiffened webs subjected to positive flexure, D_c tends to be large for noncomposite loadings during construction and therefore web bend-buckling must be checked. Furthermore, D_c can be sufficiently large for the composite girder at the service limit state such that web bend-buckling may still be a concern. Therefore, the value of D_c for checking web bend-buckling of these sections in regions of positive flexure at the service limit state is to be determined based on the accumulated flexural stresses due to the factored loads, as specified in Article 6.19.4.1.

For composite sections in negative flexure, D_c is to be computed in the same manner as discussed in Article 6.10.1.9.1.

Eqs. (6.52) and (6.53) and the associated optimum stiffener location assume simply-supported boundary conditions at the flanges. These equations for k allow the Engineer to compute the web bend-buckling resistance for any position of the longitudinal stiffener with respect to D_c . When the distance from the closest longitudinal stiffener to the compression flange, d_s is less than $0.4D_c$ the stiffener is above its optimum location and web bend-buckling occurs in the panel between the stiffener and the tension flange. When d_s is greater than $0.4D_c$ web bend-buckling occurs in the panel between the stiffener and the compression flange. When d_s is equal to $0.4D_c$ the stiffener is at its optimum location and bend-buckling occurs in both panels.

For this case, both equations yield a k value equal to 129.3 for a symmetrical girder (Dubas, 1948). Further information on locating longitudinal stiffeners on the web may be found in Article 6.10.11.3.1.

Since bend-buckling of a longitudinally-stiffened web must be investigated for both noncomposite and composite stress conditions and at various locations along the girder, it is possible that the stiffener might be located at an inefficient position for a particular condition, resulting in a small bend-buckling coefficient. Because simply-supported boundary conditions were assumed in the development of Eqs. (6.52) and (6.53), the computed web bend-buckling resistance for the longitudinally-stiffened web may be less than that computed for a web of the same dimensions without longitudinal stiffeners where some rotational restraint from the flanges has been assumed. To prevent this anomaly, the Specifications state that the k value for a longitudinally-stiffened web from Eq. (6.52) must equal or exceed a value of $9.0/(D_c/D)^2$, which is the k value for a web without longitudinal stiffeners from Eq. (6.51) computed assuming partial rotational restraint from the flanges. Note this limit only need be checked when Eq. (6.52) controls.

As discussed further in Article 6.10.1.9.1, when both edges of the web are in compression, the bendbuckling coefficient is taken equal to 7.2.

Eqs. (6.52) and (6.53) neglect the benefit of placing more than one longitudinal stiffener on the web. Therefore, they may be used conservatively for webs with multiple longitudinal stiffeners. Alternatively, the Engineer is permitted to determine F_{crw} of Eq. (6.50) or the corresponding k value for use within this equation by a direct buckling analysis of the web panel. The boundary conditions at the flanges and at the stiffener locations should be assumed as simply-supported in this analysis.

6.20.10. Commentary on Article 6.10.1.10.2 "Web Load-Shedding Factor, R_b "

The term R_b is a postbuckling strength reduction factor that accounts for the nonlinear variation of stresses subsequent to local bend-buckling of slender webs. This factor accounts for the reduction in the section flexural resistance caused by the shedding of compressive stresses from a slender web and the corresponding increase in the flexural stress within the compression flange. The R_b factor, given by Eq. (6.58), is based on extensive experimental and theoretical studies (Galambos, 1998) and is the more refined of two equations developed by Basler and Thurlimann (1961). The R_b factor is not applied in determining the nominal flexural resistance of the tension flange since the tension flange stress is not increased significantly by the shedding of the web compressive stresses (Basler and Thurlimann, 1961).

When computing the nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange for checking constructability according to the provisions of Article 6.10.3.2, R_b is always to be taken equal to 1.0. This condition is ensured in these Specifications for all slender-web sections by limiting the compression-flange flexural stresses under the factored loads during construction to the elastic bendbuckling resistance of the web, F_{crw} .

For composite sections in positive flexure at the strength limit state, R_b is generally equal to or close to 1.0 for sections that satisfy the requirements of Articles 6.10.2.2 and 6.10.7.3, as long as the requirement of Article 6.10.2.1.1 is also met such that longitudinal stiffeners are not required. This is particularly true when a transformed area of the concrete deck is taken as part of the compression flange area as implemented in Eq. (6.61).

Therefore, the reduction in the flexural resistance due to web bend-buckling is zero or negligible and R_b is simply taken equal to 1.0 for these sections.

For sections in positive or negative flexure with one or more longitudinal web stiffeners that satisfy Eq. (6.56), R_b is taken equal to 1.0. For these sections, the web slenderness, D/t_w is at or below the value at which the theoretical bendbuckling stress at the strength limit state is equal to F_{yc} . For a doubly-symmetric girder, i.e., $D_c = 0.5D$, with a single longitudinal stiffener located at the optimum position on the web, this limit is as follows for different grades of steel:

Figure 6.10 Limiting Slenderness Ratio for $R_b = 1.0$ in a Longitudinally-Stiffened Girder with the Stiffener at the Optimum Location and $D_c/D = 0.5$.

F_{yc} (MPa)	$0.95\sqrt{Ek/F_{yc}}$
250	300
345	260
485	220
620	194
690	184

For monosymmetric girders with $D_c/D > 0.5$ and/or where a single longitudinal stiffener is not located at its optimum position, the limiting D/t_w from Eq.(6.56) generally will be less than the value shown in Table 6.9.

For composite sections in regions of positive flexure, the concrete deck typically contributes a large fraction of the flexural resistance as a compression-flange element.

For longitudinally-stiffened sections of this type, Eq.(6.61) accounts for this contribution conservatively in the calculation of R_b by including a fraction of the transformed deck area based on the $3n$ section with the steel compression-flange area in computing the a_{we} term. D_c in Eq.(6.61) is to be computed as specified for composite sections in positive flexure in Article 6.19.4.1 and is a function of the applied loads. The relationship of the position of the longitudinal stiffener to D_c and the resulting effect on the web bend-buckling coefficient, k , is discussed further in Articles 6.10.1.9.2 and 6.10.11.3.1.

For the preliminary design of longitudinally-stiffened sections of this type in which R_b is anticipated to be less than 1.0, a value of R_b typically between 0.85 and 0.95 can be assumed. Members with larger dead-to-live load ratios will tend to fall on the lower end of this range. This preliminary value of R_b can then be refined later in the design using Eq.(6.58). In cases where R_b is equal to 1.0 for these sections, potential difficulties during load rating associated with the dependency of the flexural resistance on D_c and the dependency of D_c on the applied loading are avoided.

Eq.(6.56) ignores the beneficial effect of placing more than one longitudinal stiffener on the web. For webs with more than one longitudinal stiffener, the girder may be proportioned for $R_b = 1.0$ if F_{crw} determined by an alternative rational analysis conducted as specified in Article 6.10.1.9.2, is greater than or equal to F_{yc} .

The requirements for proportioning of longitudinal stiffeners in Article 6.10.11.3 ensure the development of the web bend-buckling resistance specified in Article 6.10.1.9. Bend buckling of longitudinally-stiffened webs is prevented up through the service limit state in these Specifications, but is permitted at the strength limit state. The stiffener proportioning requirements do not ensure that a horizontal line of near zero lateral deflection will be maintained for the subsequent post-bend-buckling response of the web (Galambos, 1998). Therefore, the presence of the longitudinal stiffeners is ignored when computing the R_b factor for longitudinally-stiffened webs in regions of positive or negative flexure at the strength limit state.

For composite sections in negative flexure and noncomposite sections that satisfy Eq.(6.57), R_b is also taken equal to 1.0 since the web slenderness, $2D_c/t_{ws}$, is at or below the value at which the theoretical elastic bendbuckling stress is equal to F_{yc} at the strength limit state.

Eq.(6.57) also defines the slenderness limit for a noncompact web. Webs with slenderness ratios exceeding Eq.(6.57) are termed slender. For different grades of steel, this slenderness limit is as follows:

Figure 6.11: Limiting Slenderness Ratio for a Noncompact Web and $R_b = 1.0$ in Girders without Web Longitudinal Stiffeners.

F_{yc} (MPa)	λ_{rw}
250	162
345	137
485	116
620	102
690	97

The previous Specifications defined sections as compact or noncompact and did not explicitly distinguish between a noncompact and a slender web. The classification of webs as compact, noncompact, or slender in these Specifications apply to composite sections in negative flexure and noncomposite sections. These classifications are consistent with those in [AISC \(2005\)](#).

For composite sections in positive flexure, these Specifications still classify the entire cross-section as compact or noncompact based on the criteria in Article [6.10.6.2.2](#). The Article [6.10.6.2.2](#) classification includes consideration of the web slenderness as well as other cross-section characteristics.

For the preliminary design of slender-web sections without longitudinal stiffeners, a value of R_b typically between 0.9 and 1.0 can be assumed, depending on an estimated $2D/t_w$ relative to the appropriate limiting value given in [Table 6.10](#). A value typically between 0.85 and 0.95 should be assumed for longitudinally-stiffened slender-web sections anticipated to have D/t_w values that will not satisfy Eq. [\(6.56\)](#). This preliminary value of R_b can be refined later in the design using Eq. [\(6.58\)](#).

For composite sections in negative flexure, D_c is to be computed for the section consisting of the steel girder plus the longitudinal deck reinforcement when determining R_b for reasons discussed in Article [6.10.1.9.1](#).

The factor 5.7 in Eq. [\(6.59\)](#) is based on a bend-buckling coefficient $k = 36.0$, which is approximately equal to $k_{ss} + 0.8(k_{sf} - k_{ss})$, where $k_{ss} = 23.9$ and $k_{sf} = 39.6$ are the bend-buckling coefficients for simply-supported and fully restrained longitudinal edge conditions, respectively, in webs without longitudinal stiffeners ([Timoshenko and Gere, 1961](#)).

For compression flanges with cover plates, the cover plate area may be added to the flange area $b_{fc}t_{fc}$ in the denominator of Eq. [\(6.60\)](#).

While it is possible to substitute the actual compression-flange stress due to the factored loads, f_{bu} calculated without consideration of flange lateral bending, for F_{yc} in Eqs. [\(6.56\)](#), [\(6.59\)](#), and 6.61, such a refinement is not likely to lead to a significant increase in the value of R_b . Use of the actual flange stress to compute the flexural resistance can also lead to subsequent difficulties in load rating since the flexural resistance then becomes a function of the applied load. Should a larger value of R_b be desired for a section in which the nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange is significantly less than F_{yc} , a preferred alternative is to substitute the smaller of the following values for F_{yc} in Eqs. [\(6.56\)](#), [\(6.59\)](#) and [\(6.61\)](#), as applicable: (1) the nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange, F_{nc} , computed assuming R_b and R_h are equal to 1.0, or (2) the nominal elastic stress in the compression flange when the tension flange reaches a nominal elastic stress of $R_h F_{yt}$. This is similar to the approach taken in [AISC \(1999\)](#).

6.20.11. Commentary on Article 6.10.3.2.1 "Discretely Braced Flanges in Compression"

A distinction is made between discretely and continuously braced compression and tension flanges because for a continuously braced flange, flange lateral bending need not be considered.

This Article gives constructibility requirements for discretely braced compression flanges, expressed by Eqs. (6.68), (6.69) and (6.70) in terms of the combined factored vertical and flange lateral bending stresses during construction. In making these checks, the stresses f_{bu} and f_ℓ must be determined according to the procedures specified in Article 6.10.1.6.

Eq. (6.68) ensures that the maximum combined stress in the compression flange will not exceed the specified minimum yield strength of the flange times the hybrid factor; that is, it is a yielding limit state check.

Eq. (6.69) ensures that the member has sufficient strength with respect to lateral torsional and flange local buckling based limit states, including the consideration of flange lateral bending where these effects are judged to be significant. For horizontally curved bridges, flange lateral bending effects due to curvature must always be considered in discretely braced flanges during construction.

Eq. (6.70) ensures that theoretical web bend-buckling will not occur during construction.

Eq. (6.69) addresses the resistance of the compression flange by considering this element as an equivalent beam-column. This equation is effectively a beam-column interaction equation, expressed in terms of the flange stresses computed from elastic analysis (White and Grubb, 2005). The f_{bu} term is analogous to the axial load and the f_ℓ term is analogous to the bending moment within the equivalent beam-column member. The factor of 1/3 in front of the f_ℓ term in Eq. (6.69) gives an accurate linear approximation of the equivalent beam-column resistance within the limits on f_ℓ specified in Article 6.10.1.6 (White and Grubb, 2005).

Eq. (6.68) often controls relative to Eq. (6.69), particularly for girders with large f_ℓ and for members with compact or noncompact webs. However, for members with noncompact flanges or large unsupported lengths during construction combined with small or zero values for f_ℓ , Eq. (6.69) will typically control. During construction before the hardening of the deck, most flanges are discretely braced. The compact, noncompact and slender web definitions are discussed in Article 6.10.6.2.3. For making these checks with the section in its noncomposite condition, the categorization of the web is to be based on the properties of the noncomposite section. The meanings assigned to the compact and noncompact flange categorizations are discussed in Article 6.10.8.2.2. When $f_\ell = 0$, Eq. (6.68) will not control and need not be checked for sections with slender webs. For sections with compact or noncompact webs, Eq. (6.68) should still be checked. However, web bend-buckling is not a consideration for these types of members, and therefore, Eq. (6.70) need not be checked for these sections.

In checking Eq. (6.69) for sections in straight I-girder bridges with compact or noncompact webs, the lateral torsional buckling resistance of the flange may be determined from the provisions of Article 6.18.3.3, which include the beneficial contribution of the St. Venant torsional constant J . This may be useful for sections in such bridges with compact or noncompact webs having larger unbraced lengths, if additional lateral torsional buckling resistance is required beyond that calculated based on the provisions of Article 6.10.8.2. The resulting lateral torsional buckling resistance,

M_{nc} , is then divided by S_{xc} to express the resistance in terms of stress for direct application in Eq.(6.69). In some cases, the calculated resistance will exceed F_{yc} since Article 6.17 accounts in general for flexural resistances greater than the yield moment resistance, M_{yc} or M_{yt} . However, Eq.(6.68), will control in these cases, thus ensuring that the combined factored stress in the flange will not exceed F_{yc} times the hybrid factor during construction.

The rationale for calculation of S_{xc} as defined in this Article for use in determining F_{nc} for sections with noncompact or compact webs is discussed in Article 6.17.1.1.

For sections that are composite in the final condition, but are noncomposite during construction, different values of the hybrid factor, R_h , must be calculated for checks in which the member is noncomposite and for checks in which the member is composite.

Because the flange stress is limited to the web bendbuckling stress according to Eq.(6.70), the R_b factor is always to be taken equal to 1.0 in computing the nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange for constructibility.

Should the web bend-buckling resistance be exceeded for the construction condition, the Engineer has several options to consider. These options include providing a larger compression flange or a smaller tension flange to decrease the depth of the web in compression, adjusting the deck-placement sequence to reduce the compressive stress in the web, or providing a thicker web. Should these options not prove to be practical or cost-effective; a longitudinal web stiffener can be provided. As specified in Article 6.10.11.3.1, the longitudinal stiffener must be located vertically on the web to satisfy Eq.(6.70) for the construction condition, Eq.(6.77) at the service limit state and all the appropriate design requirements at the strength limit state. Further discussions of procedures for locating a longitudinal stiffener are provided in Article 6.10.11.3.1.

6.20.12. Commentary on Article 6.10.3.4 "Deck Placement"

The entire concrete deck may not be placed in one stage; thus, parts of the girders may become composite in sequential stages. If certain deck placement sequences are followed, the temporary moments induced in the girders during the deck placement can be considerably higher than the final noncomposite dead load moments after the sequential placement is complete.

Economical composite girders normally have smaller top flanges than bottom flanges. Thus, more than half the web depth is typically in compression in regions of positive flexure during deck placement. If the maximum moments generated during the deck placement sequence are not considered in the design, these conditions, coupled with narrow top compression flanges, can lead to problems during construction, such as out-of-plane distortions of the girder compression flanges and web. By satisfying the following guideline:

$$b_{fc} \geq \frac{L}{85} \quad (D6.7)$$

where L = length of the girder shipping piece (mm)

Potential problems can be minimized in these cases. Therefore, Eq.(D6.7) should be used, in conjunction with the flange proportion limits specified in Article 6.10.2.2, to establish a minimum required top-flange width in positive, flexure regions of composite girders. It should be emphasized that Eq.(D6.7) is provided merely as a guideline and is not an absolute requirement.

Ensuring that the flanges of all anticipated lifting pieces generally satisfy the preceding guideline over the majority of the length of each piece can also help provide more stable pieces that are easier to handle during erection without the need for special stiffening trusses or falsework.

Sequentially staged concrete placement can also result in significant tensile strains in the previously placed deck in adjacent spans. When cracking is predicted, longitudinal deck reinforcement as specified in Article 6.10.3.2.4 is required to control the cracking. Temporary dead load deflections during sequential deck placement can also be different from final noncomposite dead load deflections. If the differences are deemed significant, this should be considered when establishing camber and screed requirements. These constructibility concerns apply to deck replacement as well as initial construction.

During construction of steel girder bridges, concrete deck overhang loads are typically supported by cantilever forming brackets typically placed at 900 to 1200 mm spacing along the exterior members. The eccentricity of the deck weight and other loads acting on the overhang brackets creates applied torsional moments on the exterior members. As a result, the following issues must be considered in the design of the exterior members:

- The applied torsional moments bend the exterior girder top flanges outward. The resulting flange lateral bending stresses tend to be largest at the brace points at one or both ends of the unbraced length. The lateral bending stress in the top flange is tensile at the brace points on the side of the flange opposite from the brackets. These lateral bending stresses should be considered in the design of the flanges.
- The horizontal components of the reactions on the cantilever-forming brackets are often transmitted directly onto the exterior girder web. The girder web may exhibit significant plate bending deformations due to these loads. The effect of these deformations on the vertical deflections at the outside edge of the deck should be considered. The effect of the reactions from the brackets on the cross-frame forces should also be considered.
- Excessive deformation of the web or top flange may lead to excessive deflection of the bracket supports causing the deck finish to be problematic.

Where practical, forming brackets should be carried to the intersection of the bottom flange and the web. Alternatively, the brackets may bear on the girder webs if means are provided to ensure that the web is not damaged and that the associated deformations permit proper placement of the concrete deck. The provisions of Article 6.10.3.2 allow for the consideration of the flange lateral bending stresses in the design of the flanges. In the absence of a more refined analysis, either of the following equations may be used to estimate the maximum flange lateral bending moments due to the eccentric loadings depending on how the lateral load is assumed applied to the top flange:

$$M_{\ell} = \frac{F_{\ell} L_b^2}{12} \quad (D6.8)$$

where:

M_{ℓ} = lateral bending moment in the flanges due to the eccentric loadings from the forming brackets (N-mm)

- F_ℓ = statically equivalent uniformly distributed lateral force from the brackets due to the factored loads (N/mm)
- L_b = unbraced length (mm)

$$M_\ell = \frac{P_\ell L_b}{8} \quad (\text{D6.9})$$

where:

- P_ℓ = statically equivalent concentrated lateral bracket force placed at the middle of the unbraced length (N)

Eq.(D6.8) and (D6.9) are both based on the assumption of interior unbraced lengths in which the flange is continuous with adjacent unbraced lengths, as well as equal adjacent unbraced lengths such that due to approximate symmetry boundary conditions, the ends of the unbraced length are effectively torsionally fixed. The Engineer should consider other more appropriate idealizations when these assumptions do not approximate the actual conditions.

The magnitude and application of the overhang loads assumed in the design should be shown in the contract documents.

6.20.13. Commentary on Article 6.10.4.2.2 "Flexure"

Eq.(6.74) through (6.76) are intended to prevent objectionable permanent deflections due to expected severe traffic loadings that would impair rideability. For homogeneous sections with zero flange laterals bending, they correspond to the overload check in the 2002 AASHTO Standard Specifications and are based on successful past practice.

Their development is described in Vincent (1969). A resistance factor is not applied in these equations because the specified limits are serviceability criteria for which the resistance factor is 1.0.

Eq.(6.74) through (6.76) address the increase in flange stresses caused by early web yielding in hybrid sections by including the hybrid factor R_h . It is recommended that the value of R_h applied in the strength limit state checks at the section under consideration be conservatively applied in these equations.

Under the load combinations specified in Table 3.1, Eq.(6.74) through (6.76), as applicable, do not control and need not be checked for the following sections:

Composite sections in negative flexure for which the nominal flexural resistance under the Strength load combinations is determined according to the provisions of Article 6.10.8;

- Noncomposite sections with $f_\ell = 0$ and for which the nominal flexural resistance under the Strength load combinations is determined according to the provisions of Article 6.10.8;
- Noncompact composite sections in positive flexure.

However, Eq. (6.76) must still be checked for these sections where applicable.

The 112 factor in Eqs.(6.75) and (6.76) comes from Schilling (1996) and Yoo and Davidson (1997). Eqs.(6.75) and (6.76) with a limit of F_{yf} on the right-hand side are a

close approximation to rigorous yield interaction equations for the load level corresponding to the onset of yielding at the web-flange juncture, including the effect of flange tip yielding that occurs prior to this stage, but not considering flange residual stress effects. If the flanges are nominally elastic at the web-flange juncture and the elastically computed flange lateral bending stresses are limited as required by Eq. (6.44), the permanent deflections will be small. The $0.95R_h$ and $0.80R_h$ factors are included on the right hand side of Eqs. (6.75) and (6.76) to make them compatible with the corresponding equations in the prior Specifications when $f_\ell = 0$, and to provide some additional conservatism for control of permanent deformations when the flange lateral bending is significant. The sign of f_ℓ and f_ℓ should always be taken as positive in Eqs. (6.75) and (6.76).

f_ℓ is not included in Eq. (6.74) because the top flange is continuously braced by the concrete deck. For continuously braced top flanges of noncomposite sections, the f_ℓ term in Eq. (6.76) may be taken equal to zero. Lateral bending in the bottom flange is only a consideration at the service limit state for all horizontally curved I-girder bridges and for straight I-girder bridges with discontinuous cross-frame or diaphragm lines in conjunction with skews exceeding 20° . Wind load and deck overhang effects are not considered at the service limit state.

Localized yielding in negative-flexural sections at interior piers results in redistribution of the elastic moments. For continuous-span flexural members in straight I-girder bridges that satisfy the provisions of Article 6.18.2, the procedures of either Article 6.18.3 or 6.18.6 may be used to calculate the redistribution moments at the service limit state. These procedures represent an improvement on the former ten-percent redistribution rule. When the redistribution moments are calculated according to these procedures, Eqs. (6.74) through (6.76), as applicable, need not be checked within the regions extending from the pier section under consideration to the nearest flange transition or point of permanent-load contra-flexure, whichever is closest, in each adjacent span. Eq. (6.77) must still be considered within these regions using the elastic moments prior to redistribution. At all locations outside of these regions, Eqs. (6.74) through (6.77), as applicable, must be satisfied after redistribution.

Research has not yet been conducted to extend the provisions of Article 6.18 to kinked (chorded) continuous or horizontally curved steel I-girder bridges.

For compact composite sections utilized in shored construction, the longitudinal stresses in the concrete deck are limited to $0.6f'_c$ to ensure linear behavior of the concrete. In unshored construction, the concrete stress near first yielding of either steel flange is generally significantly less than f'_c thereby eliminating the need to check the concrete stress in this case.

With the exception of composite sections in positive flexure in which the web satisfies the requirement of Article 6.10.2.1.1 such that longitudinal stiffeners are not required and web bend-buckling effects are negligible, web bend-buckling of all sections must be checked under the Service II Load Combination according to Eq. (6.77). Article 6.10.1.9.1 explains why web bend-buckling does not need to be checked for the above exception. Options to consider should the web bend-buckling resistance be exceeded are similar to those discussed for the construction condition at the end of Article 6.10.3.2.1, except of course for adjusting the deck-placement sequence.

If the concrete deck is assumed effective in tension in regions of negative flexure, as permitted at the service limit state for composite sections satisfying the requirements specified in Article 6.10.4.2.1, more than half of the web may be in compression thus

increasing the susceptibility to web bend-buckling. As specified in Article 6.19.4.1, for composite sections in negative flexure, the appropriate value of D_c to be used at the service limit state depends on whether or not the concrete deck is assumed effective in tension. For noncomposite sections, D_c of the steel section alone should always be used.

6.20.14. Commentary on Article 6.10.6.1 "Strength Limit State, General"

At the strength limit state, Article 6.10.6 directs the Engineer to the appropriate Articles for the design of composite or noncomposite I-sections in regions of positive or negative flexure.

For sections in which the flexural resistance is expressed in terms of stress. The elastically computed flange stress is strictly not an estimate of the actual flange stress because of limited partial yielding within the cross-section due to the combination of applied load effects with initial residual stresses and various other incidental stress contributions not included within the design analysis calculations. The effects of partial yielding within the cross-section on the distribution of internal forces within the system prior to reaching the maximum resistances as defined in these Specifications are minor and may be neglected in the calculation of the applied stresses and /or moments.

The use of stresses is considered to be Inure appropriate in members within which the maximum resistance is always less than or equal to the yield moment M_y in major-axis bending. This is due to the nature of the different types of loadings that contribute to the member flexural stresses: nonconiposite, long-term composite and short-term composite. The combined effects of the loadings on these different states of the member cross-section are better handled by working with flange stresses rather than moments. .Also, if the Engineer uses analysis software in which the webs of I-section members and or the composite deck are represented as plate elements. The flange stresses are obtained directly from the software. Whereas the total bending moment supported by a given member requires further processing. Finally, bridge engineers typically are more accustomed to working with stresses rather than moments. Therefore, although the provisions can be written equivalently in terms of bending moment. The provisions of Article 6.10 are written in term of stress whenever the maximum potential resistance in terms of f_{bu} is less than or equal to F_y

Conversely for members in which the resistance is potentially greater than M_y , significant yielding within the cross-section makes the handling of the capacities in terms of stress awkward. Although the provisions that are written in terms of moment can be written equivalently in terms of elastic stress quantities. The corresponding elastic stress limits will be generally greater than the yield stress since the moments are greater than the yield moment, Also, the calculation of the resistance where it is generally greater than M_y ,is fundamentally based on stress resultants. For example, M_p for a compact composite section in positive flexure is based on a plastic analysis of the composite cross-section. Therefore, it is more natural to write the resistance equations in terms of bending moments for these types of sections. This is also the practice in ASHTO (2004).

For sections in which the flexural resistance is expressed in terms of moment, The moments acting on the noncomposite long-term composite and short-term composite sections may be directly. summed for comparison to the nominal flexural resistance. That is, the effect of the sequence of application of the different types of loads on the stress states and of partial yielding within the cross-section on the maximum resistance need not be considered.

In subsequent Articles, a continuously braced flange in compression is assumed not be subject to local or lateral torsional buckling. The rationale for excluding these limit state checks is discussed in Article [6.10.3.2.3](#).

These provisions assume low or zero levels of axial force in the member. At sections that are also subject to a concentrically-applied axial force, P_u , due to the factored loads in excess of ten percent of the factored axial resistance of the member, P_r , at the strength limits state. The section should instead be checked according to provisions of Article [6.8.2.3](#) or [6.9.2.2](#), as applicable. According to the equations given in these Articles, when P_u is ten percent of P_r , the flexural resistance of the member is reduced by five percent. Below this level, it is reasonable to ignore the effect of the axial force in the design of the member.

6.20.15. Commentary on Article [6.10.6.2.2](#) "Composite Sections in Positive Flexure"

The nominal flexural resistance of composite sections in positive flexure in straight bridges satisfying specific steel grade, web slenderness and ductility requirements is permitted to exceed the moment at first yield according to the provisions of Article [6.10.7](#). The nominal flexural resistance of these sections, termed compact sections, is therefore more appropriately expressed in terms of moment. For composite sections in positive flexure in straight bridges not satisfying one or more of these requirements, or for composite sections in positive flexure in horizontally curved bridges, termed noncompact sections, the nominal flexural resistance is not permitted to exceed the moment at first yield. The nominal flexural resistance in these cases is therefore more appropriately expressed in terms of the elastically computed flange stress.

Composite sections in positive flexure in straight bridges with flange yield strengths greater than 485MPa or with webs that do not satisfy Article [6.10.2.1.1](#) are to be designed at the strength limit state as noncompact sections as specified in Article [6.10.7.2](#). For concrete compressive strengths typically employed for deck construction, the use of larger steel yield strengths may result in significant nonlinearity and potential crushing of the deck concrete prior to reaching the flexural resistance specified for compact sections in Article [6.10.7.1](#). Longitudinal stiffeners generally must be provided in sections with webs that do not satisfy Article [6.10.2.1.1](#). Since composite longitudinally-stiffened sections tend to be deeper and used in longer spans with corresponding larger noncomposite dead load stresses, they tend to have D_c/t_w values that would preclude the development of substantial inelastic flexural strains within the web prior to bendbuckling at moment levels close to $R_h M_y$. Therefore, although the depth of the web in compression typically reduces as plastic strains associated with moments larger than $R_h M_y$ are incurred, and D_{cp} may indeed satisfy Eq. [\(6.79\)](#) at the plastic moment resistance, sufficient test data do not exist to support the design of these types of sections for M_p . Furthermore, because of the relative size of the steel section to the concrete deck typical for these types of sections, M_p often is not substantially larger than $R_h M_y$.

Due to these factors, composite sections in positive flexure in which the web does not satisfy Article [6.10.2.1.1](#) are categorized as noncompact sections. Composite sections in positive flexure in kinked (chorded) continuous or horizontally curved steel bridges are also to be designed at the strength limit state as noncompact sections as specified in Article [6.10.7.2](#). Research has not yet been conducted to support the design of these sections for a nominal flexural resistance exceeding the moment at first yield.

The web slenderness requirement of this Article is adopted from [AISC \(2005\)](#) and gives approximately the same allowable web slenderness as specified for compact sections in [AASHTO \(2002\)](#). Most composite sections in positive flexure without longitudinal web stiffeners will qualify as compact according to this criterion since the concrete deck causes an upward shift in the neutral axis, which reduces the depth of the web in compression. Also, D/t_w for these sections is limited to a maximum value of 150 based on the requirement of Article [6.10.2.1.1](#). The location of the neutral axis of the composite section at the plastic moment may be determined using the equations listed in [Table 6.21](#).

Compact composite sections in positive flexure must also satisfy the provisions of Article [6.10.7.3](#) to ensure a ductile mode of failure. Noncompact sections must also satisfy the ductility requirement specified in Article [6.10.7.3](#) to ensure a ductile failure. Satisfaction of this requirement ensures an adequate margin of safety against premature crushing of the concrete deck for sections utilizing 690-MPa steels and/or for sections utilized in shored construction. This requirement is also a key limit in allowing web bend-backling to be disregarded in the design of composite sections in positive flexure when the web also satisfies Article [6.10.2.1.1](#), as discussed in Article [6.10.1.9.1](#).

6.20.16. Commentary on Article [6.10.6.2.3](#) "Composite Sections in Negative Flexure and Noncomposite Sections"

For composite sections in negative flexure and noncomposite sections, the provisions of Article [6.10.8](#) limit the nominal flexural resistance to be less than or equal to the moment at first yield. As a result, the nominal flexural resistance for these sections is conveniently expressed in terms of the elastically computed flange stress.

For composite sections in negative flexure or noncomposite sections in straight bridges that satisfy the specified steel grade requirements and with webs that satisfy Eq. [\(6.80\)](#) and flanges that satisfy Eq. [\(6.81\)](#), the optional provisions of Article [6.17](#) may be applied to determine the nominal flexural resistance, which may exceed the moment at first yield. Therefore, the nominal flexural resistance determined from the provisions of Article [6.17](#) is expressed in terms of moment. Because these types of sections are less commonly used, the provisions for their design have been placed in an appendix in order to simplify and streamline the main design provisions. The provisions of Article [6.10.8](#) may be used for these types of sections to obtain an accurate to somewhat conservative determination of the nominal flexural resistance than would be obtained using Article [6.17](#).

For composite sections in negative flexure or noncomposite sections in straight bridges not satisfying one or more of these requirements, or for these sections in horizontally curved bridges, the provisions of Article [6.10.8](#) must be used. Research has not yet been conducted to extend the provisions of Article [6.17](#) to sections in kinked (chorded) continuous or horizontally curved steel bridges.

Eq. [\(6.80\)](#) defines the slenderness limit for a noncompact web. A web with a slenderness ratio exceeding this limit is termed slender. The previous Specifications defined sections as compact or noncompact and did not explicitly distinguish between a noncompact and a slender web. For noncompact webs, theoretical web bend-buckling does not occur for elastic stress values, computed according to beam theory, smaller than the limit of the flexural resistance. Sections with slender webs rely upon the significant web post bendbuckling resistance under Strength Load Combinations.

Specific values for the noncompact web slenderness limit for different grades of steel are listed in [Table 6.10](#).

A compact web is one that satisfies the slenderness limit given by Eq. [\(A6.6\)](#). Sections with compact webs and $I_{yc}/I_{yt} \geq 0.3$ are able to develop their full plastic moment capacity M_p provided that other steel grade, ductility, flange slenderness and/or lateral bracing requirements are satisfied.

The web-slenderness limit given by Eq. [\(A6.6\)](#) is significantly smaller than the limit shown in [Table 6.10](#). It is generally satisfied by rolled I-shapes, but typically not by the most efficient built-up section proportions.

The flange yield stress, F_{yc} is more relevant to the web buckling behavior and its influence on the flexural resistance than F_{yw} . For a section that has a web proportioned at the noncompact limit, a stable nominally elastic compression flange tends to constrain a lower-strength hybrid web at stress levels less than or equal to $R_h F_{yc}$. For a section that has a compact web, the inelastic strains associated with development of the plastic flexural resistance are more closely related to the flange rather than the web yield strength.

The majority of steel-bridge I-sections utilize either slender webs or noncompact webs that approach the slenderness limit of Eq. [\(6.80\)](#) represented by the values listed in [Table 6.10](#). For these sections, the simpler and more streamlined provisions of Article [6.10.8](#) are the most appropriate for determining the nominal flexural resistance of composite sections in negative flexure and noncomposite sections. These provisions may also be applied to sections with compact webs or to sections with noncompact webs that are nearly compact, but at the expense of some economy. Such sections are typically used in bridges with shorter spans. The potential loss in economy increases with decreasing web slenderness. The Engineer should give strong consideration to utilizing the provisions of Article [6.17](#) to compute the nominal flexural resistance of these sections in straight bridges, in particular, sections with compact webs.

Eq. [\(6.81\)](#) is specified to guard against extremely monosymmetric noncomposite I-sections, in which analytical studies indicate a significant loss in the influence of the St. Venant torsional rigidity GJ on the lateral-torsional buckling resistance due to cross-section distortion. The influence of web distortion on the lateral torsional buckling resistance is larger for such members. If the flanges are of equal thickness, this limit is equivalent to $b_{fc} \geq 0.67b_{fi}$.

Yielding in negative-flexural sections at interior piers at the strength limit state results in redistribution of the elastic moments. For continuous-span flexural members in straight bridges that satisfy the provisions of Article [6.18.2](#), the procedures of either Article [6.18.4](#) or [6.18.6](#) may be used to calculate redistribution moments at the strength limit state.

These provisions replace the former ten-percent redistribution allowance and provide a more rational approach for calculating the percentage redistribution from interior-pier sections. When the redistribution moments are calculated according to these procedures, the flexural resistances at the strength limit state within the unbraced lengths immediately adjacent to interior-pier sections satisfying the requirements of Article [6.18.2](#) need not be checked. At all other locations, the provisions of Articles [6.10.7](#), [6.10.8.1](#) or [6.17.1](#), as applicable, must be satisfied after redistribution. The provisions of Article [6.18.2](#) are often satisfied by compact-flange unstiffened or transversely-stiffened pier sections that are otherwise designed by Article [6.10.8](#) or Article [6.17](#) using $C_b = 1.0$.

Research has not yet been conducted to extend the provisions of Article 6.18 to kinked (chorded) continuous or horizontally curved steel bridges.

6.20.17. Commentary on Article 6.10.7.1.2 "Nominal Flexural Resistance"

Eq. (6.84) implements the philosophy introduced by Wittry (1993) that an additional margin of safety should be applied to the theoretical nominal flexural resistance of compact composite sections in positive flexure when the depth of the plastic neutral axis below the top of the deck, D_p , exceeds a certain value. This additional margin of safety, which increases approximately as a linear function of D_p/D_b , is intended to protect the concrete deck from premature crushing, thereby ensuring adequate ductility of the composite section. Sections with D_p/D_b less than or equal to 0.1 can reach as a minimum the plastic moment, M_p , of the composite section without any ductility concerns.

Eq. (6.84) gives approximately the same results as the comparable equation in previous Specifications, but is a simpler form that depends only on the plastic moment resistance M_p and on the ratio D_p/D_t as also suggested in Yakel and Azizinarnini (2005). Both equations implement the above philosophy justified by Wittry (1993). Eq. (6.84) is somewhat more restrictive than the equation in previous Specifications for sections with small values of M_p/M_y , such as sections with hybrid webs, a relatively small deck area and a high-strength tension flange. It is somewhat less restrictive for sections with large values of M_p/M_y . Wittry (1993) considered various experimental test results and performed a large number of parametric cross-section analyses. The smallest experimental or theoretical resistance of all the cross-sections considered in this research and in other subsequent studies is $0.96M_p$. Eq. (6.84) is based on the target additional margin of safety of 1.28 specified by Wittry at the maximum allowed value of D_p combined with an assumed theoretical resistance of $0.96M_y$ at this limit. At the maximum allowed value of D_p specified by Eq. (6.90), the resulting nominal design flexural resistance is $0.78M_p$.

The limit of $D_p < 0.1D_t$ for the use of Eq. (6.83) is obtained by use of a single implicit β value of 0.75 in the comparable equations from AASHTO (2004). AASHTO (2004) specifies $\beta = 0.7$ for $F_y = 345$ and 485MPa and $\beta = 0.9$ for $F_y = 250\text{MPa}$. The value of $\beta = 0.75$ is justifiable for all cases based on the scatter in strain-hardening data. The derived p values are sensitive to the assumed strain-hardening characteristics.

The shape factor, M_p/M_y , for composite sections in positive flexure can be somewhat larger than 1.5 in certain cases. Therefore, a considerable amount of yielding and resulting inelastic curvature is required to reach M_p in these situations. This yielding reduces the effective stiffness of the positive flexural section. In continuous spans, the reduction in stiffness can shift moment from the positive to the negative flexural regions. If the interior-pier sections in these regions do not have additional capacity to sustain these larger moments and are not designed to have ductile moment rotation characteristics according to the provisions of Article 6.18, the shedding of moment to these sections could result in incremental collapse under repeated live load applications. Therefore, for cases where the span or either of the adjacent interior-pier sections do not satisfy the provisions of Article 6.18.2, or where the appropriate value of 8RL from Article 6.18.6.2 at either adjacent pier section is less than or equal to 0.009 radians, the positive flexural sections must satisfy Eq. (6.85).

It is possible to satisfy the above concerns by ensuring that the pier section flexural resistances are not exceeded if the positive flexural section moments above R_hM_y are redistributed and combined with the concurrent negative moments at the pier sections

determined from an elastic analysis. This approach is termed the Refined Method in **AASHTO (2004)**. However, concurrent moments are not typically tracked in the analysis and so this method is not included in these Specifications.

Eq.(6.85) is provided to limit the amount of additional moment allowed above $R_h M_y$ at composite sections in positive flexure to 30 percent of $R_h M_y$ in continuous spans where the span or either of the adjacent pier sections do not satisfy the requirements of Article 6.18.2. The $1.3R_h M_y$ limit is the same as the limit specified for the **Approximate Method in AASHTO (2004)**. The nominal flexural resistance determined from Eq.(6.85) is not to exceed the resistance determined from either Eq.(6.83) or (6.84), as applicable, to ensure adequate strength and ductility of the composite section. In cases where D_p/D_t is relatively large and M_p/M_y is relatively small, Eq.(6.84) may govern relative to Eq.(6.85). However, for most practical cases, Eq.(6.85) will control.

Interior-pier sections satisfying the requirements of Article 6.18.2 and for which the appropriate value of θ_{RL} from Article 6.18.6.2 exceeds 0.009 radians have sufficient ductility and robustness such that the redistribution of moments caused by partial yielding within the positive flexural regions is inconsequential. The value of 0.009 radians is taken as an upper bound for the potential increase in the inelastic rotations at the interior-pier sections due to positive-moment yielding. Thus, the nominal flexural resistance of positive flexural sections in continuous spans that meet these requirements is not limited due to the effect of potential moment shifting.

These restrictions are often satisfied by compact-flange unstiffened or transversely-stiffened pier sections designed by Article 6.10.8 or Article 6.17 using $C_b=1.0$. All current **ASTM A6** rolled I-shapes satisfying Eqs.(B6.3), (B6.4) and (B6.6) meet these restrictions. All built-up sections satisfying Article 6.18.2 that also either have $D/b_{fc} < 3.14$ or satisfy the additional requirements of Article 6.18.5.1 meet these restrictions.

The Engineer is not required to redistribute moments from the pier sections in order to utilize the additional resistance in positive flexure, but only to satisfy the stated restrictions from Article 6.18 that ensure significant ductility and robustness of the adjacent pier sections.

Redistribution of the pier moments is permitted in these cases, if desired, according to the provisions of Article 6.18.

Assuming the fatigue and fracture limit state does not control, under the load combinations specified in Table 3.1 and in the absence of flange lateral bending, the permanent deflection service limit state criterion given by Eq.(6.75) will often govern the design of the bottom flange of compact composite sections in positive flexure wherever the nominal flexural resistance at the strength limit state is based on either Eq.(6.83), (6.84), or (6.85). Thus, it is prudent and expedient to initially design these types of sections to satisfy this permanent deflection service limit state criterion and then to subsequently check the nominal flexural resistance at the strength limit state according to the applicable Eq.(6.83), (6.84), or (6.85).

6.20.18. Commentary on Article 6.10.8.2.1 "Compression-Flange Flexural Resistance, General"

All of the I-section compression-flange flexural resistance equations of these Specifications are based consistently on the logic of identifying the two anchor points shown in Figure 6.12 for the case of uniform major axis bending. Anchor point 1 is located at the length $L_b = L_p$ for lateral-torsional buckling (LTB) or flange slenderness

$b_{fc}/2t_{fc} = \lambda_{pf}$ for flange local buckling (FLB) corresponding to development of the maximum potential flexural resistance, labeled as F_{max} or M_{max} in the figure, as applicable. Anchor point 2 is located at the length L_r or flange slenderness λ_{rf} for which the inelastic and elastic LTB or FLB resistances are the same. In Article 6.10.8, this resistance is taken as $R_b F_{yr}$ where F_{yr} is taken as the smaller of $0.7 F_{yc}$ and F_{yw} , but not less than $0.5 F_{yc}$. With the exception of hybrid sections with F_{yw} significantly smaller than F_{yc} , $F_{yr} = 0.7 F_{yc}$. This limit corresponds to a nominal compression flange residual stress effect of $0.3 F_{yc}$. The $0.5 F_{yc}$ limit on F_{yr} avoids anomalous situations for some types of cross-sections in which the inelastic buckling equation gives a larger resistance than the corresponding elastic buckling curve. Also, the $0.5 F_{yc}$ limit is equivalent to the implicit value of F_{yr} used in AASHTO (2004). For $L_b > L_r$ or $b_{fc}/2t_{fc} > \lambda_{rf}$, the LTB and FLB resistances are governed by elastic buckling. However, the elastic FLB resistance equations are not specified explicitly in these provisions since the limits of Article 6.10.2.2 preclude elastic FLB for specified minimum yield strengths up to and including $F_{yc} = 620\text{MPa}$. Use of the inelastic FLB Eq. (6.95) is permitted for rare cases in which $b_{fc}/2t_{fc}$ can potentially exceed λ_{rf} for $F_{yc} > 620\text{MPa}$.

For unbraced lengths subjected to moment gradient, the LTB resistances for the case of uniform major-axis bending are simply scaled by the moment gradient modifier C_b , with the exception that the LTB resistance is capped at F_{max} or M_{max} as illustrated by the dashed line in Figure 6.12. The maximum unbraced length at which the LTB resistance is equal to F_{max} or M_{max} under a moment gradient may be determined from Article 6.19.5.1 or 6.19.5.2, as applicable. The FLB resistance for moment gradient cases is the same as that for the case of uniform major-axis bending, neglecting the relatively minor influence of moment gradient effects.

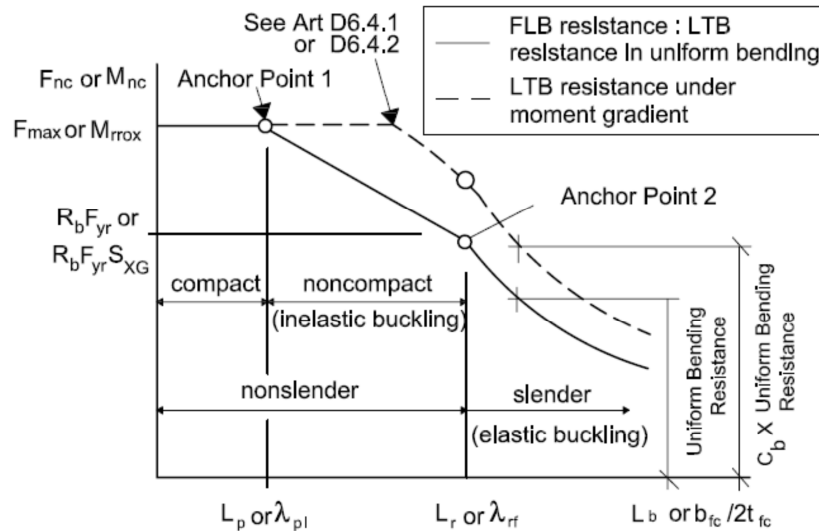


Figure 6.12: Basic Form of All I-section Compression-Flange Flexural Resistance Equations.

6.20.19. Commentary on Article 6.10.8.2.3 "Lateral Torsional Buckling Resistance"

Eq. (6.102) defines the compact unbraced length limit for a member subjected to uniform major-axis bending, whereas Eq. (6.103) gives the corresponding noncompact

unbraced length limit. The nominal flexural resistance of a member braced at or below the compact limit is independent of the unbraced length, whereas the flexural resistance of a member braced at or below the noncompact limit is expressed as a linear function of the unbraced length as illustrated in [Figure 6.12](#). The compact bracing limit of Eq.(6.102) is similar to the bracing requirement for use of the general compact-section flexural resistance equations and/or the Q formula equations in [AASHTO \(2004\)](#) for $F_{yc} = 345\text{MPa}$. For larger F_{yc} values, it is somewhat less restrictive than the previous requirement.

The limit given by Eq.(6.102) is generally somewhat more restrictive than the limit given by the corresponding L_p equation in [AASHTO \(2004\)](#) and [AISC \(2005\)](#). The limit given by Eq.(6.102) is based on linear regression analysis within the region corresponding to the inelastic lateral torsional buckling equation, shown qualitatively in [Figure 6.12](#), for a wide range of data from experimental flexural tests involving uniform major-axis bending and in which the physical effective length for lateral torsional buckling is effectively 1.0.

Note that the most economical solution is not necessarily achieved by limiting the unbraced length to L_p in order to reach the maximum flexural resistance, F_{max} , particularly if the moment gradient modifier, C_b , is taken equal to 1.0.

Eq.(6.106) is a conservative simplification of Eq.(A6.30), which gives the exact beam-theory based solution for the elastic lateral torsional buckling resistance of a doubly-symmetric I-section ([Timoshenko and Gere, 1961](#)) for the case of uniform major-axis bending when C_b is equal to 1.0 and when r_t is defined as:

$$r_t = \frac{b_{fc}}{\sqrt{12 \left(\frac{h}{d} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{D_c t_w}{b_{fc} t_{fc}} \frac{D^2}{hd} \right)}} \quad (\text{D6.10})$$

Eq.(6.106) provides an accurate to conservative estimate of the compression flange elastic lateral torsional buckling resistance, including the effect of the distortional flexibility of the web ([White, 2004](#)). Eq.(6.107) is a simplification of the above r_t equation obtained by assuming $D = h = d$. For sections with thick flanges, Eq.(6.107) gives an r_t value that can be as much as three to four percent conservative relative to the exact equation. Use of Eq.(D6.10) is permitted for software calculations or if the Engineer requires a more precise calculation of the elastic LTB resistance. The other key simplification in Eq.(6.106) is that the St. Venant torsional constant J is assumed equal to zero. This simplification is prudent for cases such as longitudinally-stiffened girders with web slenderness values approaching the maximum limit of Eq.(6.63). For these types of sections, the contribution of J to the elastic lateral torsional buckling resistance is generally small and is likely to be reduced due to distortion of the web into an S shape and the corresponding raking of the compression flange relative to the tension flange. However, for sections that have web slenderness values approaching the noncompact limit given by Eq.(6.80) and listed for different yield strengths in [Table 6.10](#), the assumption of $j = 0$ is convenient but tends to be conservative. For typical flexural I-sections with $D/b_{fc} > 2$ and $I_{yc}/I_{yt} \geq 0.3$, the effect of this assumption on the magnitude of the noncompact bracing limit L_r is usually smaller than ten percent ([White, 2004](#)). Eqs.(6.106) and (A6.30) provide one single consistent representation of the elastic LTB resistance for all types of I-section members. These equations give a conservative representation of the elastic LTB resistance of composite I-section

members in negative flexure since they neglect the restraint provided to the bottom compression flange by the lateral and torsional stiffness of the deck. The effects of this restraint are reduced in general by web distortion. The benefits of this restraint are judged to not be worth the additional complexity associated with a general distortional buckling solution, particularly if it is suspected that less than effectively fixed torsional restraint is provided to a relatively large bridge I-girder by the deck.

The Engineer should note the importance of the web term $D_c t_w$ within Eq.(6.107). Prior Specifications have often used the radius of gyration of only the compression flange, $r_{yc} = b_{fc} / \sqrt{12}$, within the design equations for LTB. This approximation can lead to significant unconservative predictions relative to experimental and refined finite element results. The web term in Eq.(6.107) accounts for the destabilizing effects of the flexural compression within the web.

If $D_c t_w / b_{fc} t_{fc}$ in Eq.(6.107) is taken as a representative value of 2.0, this equation reduces to $0.22b_{fc}$. Based on this assumption and $F_{yc} = 345$ MPa, the compact bracing limit is $L_p = 5.4b_{fc}$ and the noncompact bracing limit given by Eq.(6.103) simplifies to $L_r = 20b_{fc}$. Based on these same assumptions, the equations of Articles 6.18.2.4 and 6.19.4 give corresponding limits on L_b that are generally larger than $5.4b_{fc}$. The limit given in Article 6.18.2.4 is sufficient to permit moment redistribution at interior-pier sections of continuous-span members. The limit given in Article 6.19.5 is sufficient to develop F_{max} or M_{max} shown in Figure 6.12 in cases involving a moment gradient along the unbraced length for which $C_b > 1.0$.

The effect of the variation in the moment along the length between brace points is accounted for by the moment gradient modifier, C_b . C_b has a base value of 1.0 when the moment and the corresponding flange compressive major axis bending stress are constant over the unbraced length. C_b may be conservatively taken equal to 1.0 for all cases, with the exception of some unusual circumstances involving no cross-bracing within the span or cantilever beams with significant top-flange loading as discussed below.

The procedure for calculation of C_b retains Eq.(6.105) from the previous Specifications; however, the definition of when C_b is to be taken equal to 1.0 and the specific calculation of the terms f_1 and f_2 in Eq.(6.105) have been modified to remove ambiguities and to address a number of potentially important cases where the prior C_b calculations are significantly unconservative relative to more refined solutions. One specific example is a simply-supported member supporting its own weight as well as a uniform transverse load, but braced only at its ends and its mid-span. This ideal case is representative of potential erection conditions in which the number of cross-frames within the superstructure is minimal and the superstructure is being considered in its noncomposite condition prior to hardening of a cast-in-place concrete slab. For this case, the prior Specifications give a C_b value of 1.75 whereas the more accurate equations from AISC (2005) give a C_b value of 1.30. The smaller C_b value of 1.30 is due to the parabolic shape of the moment diagram, and the fact that the flange compression is significantly larger within the unbraced lengths than the linear variation implicitly assumed in the prior application of Eq.(6.105).

The procedure for calculation of C_b in these provisions addresses the above issues by utilizing the stress due to the factored loads at the middle of the unbraced length of the flange under consideration, f_{mid} . If f_{mid} is greater than or equal to the largest compressive stress in the flange due to the factored loads at either end of the unbraced length, f_2 , C_b is taken equal to 1.0. Also, in rare situations where the flange stress is zero or tensile at both ends of its unbraced length, for which f_2 is defined as zero, C_b is

taken equal to 1.0. This type of situation occurs only for members with very large unbraced lengths such as simply-supported or continuous spans with no cross-bracing within the span. For unbraced cantilevers, C_b is also taken equal to 1.0, consistent with [AASHTO \(2004\)](#) and [AISC \(2005\)](#).

For all other cases, significant beneficial and calculable moment gradient effects exist. In these cases, Eq. [\(6.105\)](#) requires the approximation of the stress variation along the unbraced length as the most critical of: (1) a line that passes through f_2 and f_{mid} , or (2) a line that passes between f_2 and the calculated stress in the flange under consideration at the opposite end of the unbraced length, f_o , whichever produces the smaller value of C_b . The intercept of this most critical assumed linear stress variation at the opposite end from f_2 is denoted as f_1 . For the specific example cited above, this procedure gives a C_b value of 1.30, which is identical to the C_b value predicted by the more refined [AISC \(2005\)](#) equation. In all cases where f_{mid} is smaller in magnitude than the average of f_o and f_2 , or when the moment diagram or envelope along the entire length between brace points is concave in shape, f_1 and f_2 in Eq. [\(6.105\)](#) are always equal to the stresses at the ends of the unbraced length in the flange under consideration; that is, $f_1 = f_o$.

For unbraced lengths where the member consists of monosymmetric noncomposite I-sections and is subject to reverse curvature bending, the lateral torsional buckling resistance must be checked in general for both flanges, unless the top flange is considered to be continuously braced. Since the flanges are of different sizes in these types of sections, the lateral torsional buckling resistance may be governed by compression in the smaller flange, even though this compressive stress may be smaller than the maximum compression in the larger flange. The specified approach generally produces accurate to conservative values of C_b for these cases. For highly monosymmetric sections and reverse curvature bending, the values of C_b between 1.75 and 2.3 obtained using these provisions are often significantly conservative relative to refined calculations of the lateral torsional buckling resistance, such as those provided by [Kitipornchai and Trahair \(1986\)](#). However, these provisions are less conservative than the resistances estimated by a refinement of the [AISC \(2005\)](#) C_b equation given by [Helwig et al. \(1997\)](#) when the transverse loading effects are small and the variation of the moment along the unbraced length is approximately linear. For other cases involving significant transverse loading effects, the refined [AISC](#) equation recommended by [Helwig et al. \(1997\)](#) gives more accurate and less conservative results for unbraced lengths where the member is subjected to reverse curvature bending. The top flange of composite I-sections in unbraced lengths where the member is subject to reverse curvature bending need not be checked for lateral torsional buckling since the flange is continuously braced.

Strict application of the C_b provisions would require the consideration of the concurrent moments along the unbraced length. This would necessitate the calculation of:

- The maximum possible value of f_2 at the brace point with the higher compressive stress using the critical moment envelope value, along with calculation of f_{mid} and f_o using the concurrent moments, and
- The maximum possible compressive value of f_{mid} using the critical moment envelope value, along with the calculation of f_o and f_2 using the concurrent moments.

However, since concurrent moments are normally not tracked in the analysis, it is convenient and always conservative to use the worst-case moment values to compute the above stresses. The worst-case moment for calculation of f_2 is the critical envelope value, or the moment causing the largest value of f_2 in the flange under consideration. The worst-case moments used to compute f_o and f_{mid} are the values obtained from the moment envelopes that produce the largest compressive stress, or the smallest tensile stress if the point is never in compression, within the flange under consideration at each of these locations.

The use of the worst-case moments to compute f_2 , f_{mid} and f_o is always conservative since it can be shown that a more critical stress distribution along the unbraced length can never exist for all possible concurrent loadings. This includes any potential condition in which the stress is smaller at the f_2 or f_{mid} locations, but in which the moment gradient is also smaller thus producing a smaller value of C_b . Furthermore, the use of the concurrent moments to compute f_o and f_{mid} for the loading that gives the largest value of f_2 always would result in a larger value of C_b for this specific loading. Similarly, the use of the concurrent moments to compute f_2 and f_o for the loading that produces the largest compressive value of f_{mid} always would result in a larger value of C_b for this specific loading.

The preceding guidelines are also applicable when calculating C_b for compact and noncompact web sections designed by Article 6.17.3.3. The use of the compression flange major-axis bending stresses for calculating C_b is strongly recommended for sections designed by Article 6.10.8 since this practice better reflects the fact that the dead and live load bending moments due to the factored loads are applied to different sections in composite girders. However, for convenience, the ratio of the major-axis bending moments at the brace points may be used in lieu of the ratio of the compression flange stresses if it is felt in the judgment of the Engineer that the use of these alternative ratios does not have a significant effect on the final calculated value of C_b . For compact and noncompact web sections designed by Article 6.17.3.3, it is specified that the major-axis bending moments be used when computing C_b . Moments are used in Eq. (A6.29) because the overall effect of applying the moments to the different sections is less critical for these types of sections.

Where C_b is greater than 1.0, indicating the presence of a significant beneficial moment gradient effect, the lateral torsional buckling resistances may alternatively be calculated by the equivalent procedures specified in Article 6.19.5.1. Both the equations in this Article and in Article 6.19.5.1 permit F_{max} in Figure 6.12 to be reached at larger unbraced lengths when C_b is greater than 1.0. The procedures in Article 6.19.5.1 allow the Engineer to focus directly on the maximum unbraced length at which the flexural resistance is equal to F_{max} . The use of these equivalent procedures is strongly recommended when C_b values greater than 1.0 are utilized in the design.

Although the calculation of C_b greater than 1.0 in general can result in a dependency of the flexural resistance on the applied loading, and hence subsequent difficulties in load rating, a C_b value only slightly greater than 1.0 is sufficient in most cases to develop the maximum flexural resistance F_{max} . As long as the combination of the brace spacing and $C_b > 1.0$ is sufficient to develop F_{max} , the flexural resistance is independent of the applied loading. Therefore, when $C_b > 1.0$ is used, it is recommended that the unbraced lengths, L_b , at critical locations be selected such that this condition is satisfied in the final constructed condition. The provisions in this Article tend to give values of C_b that are accurate to significantly conservative. Therefore, if the above guidelines are followed in design, it is unlikely that the flexural

resistance would differ from F_{max} in any rating situation, particularly if the Engineer was to use a more refined calculation of C_b for the rating calculations. Other more refined formulations for C_b may be found in [Galambos \(1998\)](#).

The C_b equations in these provisions and in [AISC \(2005\)](#) both neglect the effect of the location of the applied load relative to the mid-height of the section. For unusual situations with no intermediate cross-bracing and for unbraced cantilevers with significant loading applied at the level of the top flange, the Engineer should consider including load-height effects within the calculation of C_b .

In these cases, the associated C_b values can be less than 1.0. [Galambos \(1998\)](#) gives equations for consideration of load-height effects in simple or continuous spans, and [Dowswell \(2002\)](#) gives solutions considering these effects in unbraced cantilevers. When $C_b < 1.0$, F_n can be smaller than F_{max} in [Figure 6.12](#) even when L_b is less than or equal to L_p . Therefore, for $C_b < 1.0$, the resistance should be calculated from Eq. [\(6.100\)](#) for L_b less than or equal to L_r .

For rehabilitation design or in extraordinary circumstances, the Engineer may consider modifying L_b by an elastic effective length factor for lateral torsional buckling. [Galambos \(1998\)](#) and [Nethercot and Trahair \(1976\)](#) present a simple hand method that may be used for this calculation.

[Galambos \(1998\)](#) provides general guidelines for stability design of bracing systems. In past practice, points of contraflexure sometimes have been considered as brace points when the influence of moment gradient was not included in the lateral-torsional buckling resistance equations. In certain cases, this practice can lead to a substantially unconservative estimate of the flexural resistance. These Specifications do not intend for points of contraflexure to be considered as brace points. The influence of moment gradient may be accounted for correctly through the use of C_b and the effect of restraint from adjacent unbraced segments may be accounted for by using an effective length factor less than 1.0.

For the case of uniform bending, the reduction in the elastic lateral-torsional buckling resistance due to a transition to a smaller section is approximately five percent when the transition is placed at 20 percent of the unbraced length from one of the brace points and the lateral moment of inertia of the flange in the smaller section is set at one half of the corresponding value in the larger section ([Carskaddan and Schilling, 1974](#)). For moment gradient cases in which the larger bending moment occurs within the larger section, and/or where the section transition is placed closer to the brace point, and/or where the lateral moment of inertia of the flange of the smaller section is larger than one-half of the corresponding value in the larger section, the reduction in the lateral-torsional buckling resistance is less than five percent. Since section transitions are typically placed within regions having a significant moment gradient, the effect of the section transition on the lateral-torsional buckling resistance may be neglected whenever the stated conditions are satisfied.

For a case with more than one transition, any transition located within 20 percent of the unbraced length from the brace point with the smaller moment may be ignored and the lateral torsional buckling resistance of the remaining nonprismatic unbraced length may then be computed as the smallest resistance based on the remaining sections.

For unbraced lengths containing a transition to a smaller section at a distance greater than 20 percent of the unbraced length from the brace point with the smaller moment, the lateral torsional buckling resistance should be taken as the smallest resistance, F_{nc} , within the unbraced length under consideration. This approximation is based on replacing the nonprismatic member with an equivalent prismatic member. The

cross-section of the equivalent member that gives the correct lateral torsional buckling resistance is generally some weighted average of all the cross-sections along the unbraced length. If the cross-section within the unbraced length that gives the smallest uniform bending resistance is used, and the calculated resistance is not exceeded at any section along the unbraced length, a conservative solution is obtained. A suggested procedure to provide a more refined estimate of the lateral torsional buckling resistance for this case is presented in [Grubb and Schmidt \(2004\)](#).

To avoid a significant reduction in the lateral torsional buckling resistance, flange transitions can be located within 20 percent of the unbraced length from the brace point with the smaller moment, given that the lateral moment of inertia of the flange or flanges of the smaller section is equal to or larger than one-half of the corresponding value in the larger section.

6.20.20. Commentary on Article [6.10.9.1](#) "Shear Resistance, General"

This Article applies to:

- Sections without stiffeners,
- Sections with transverse stiffeners only, and
- Sections with both transverse and longitudinal stiffeners.

A flowchart for determining the shear resistance of I-sections is shown below.

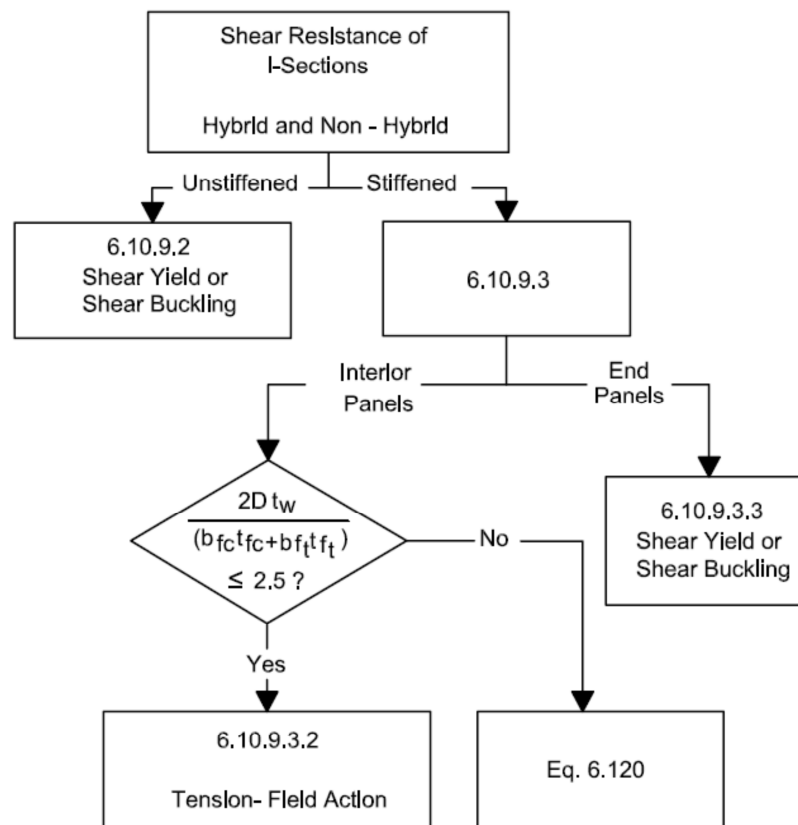


Figure 6.13: Flowchart for Shear Design of I-Sections.

Unstiffened and stiffened interior web panels are defined according to the maximum transverse stiffener spacing requirements specified in this Article.

The nominal shear resistance of unstiffened web panels in both nonhybrid and hybrid members is defined by either shear yielding or shear buckling, depending on the web slenderness ratio, as specified in Article [6.10.9.2](#).

The nominal shear resistance of stiffened interior web panels of both nonhybrid and hybrid members, where the section along the entire panel is proportioned to satisfy Eq. [\(6.114\)](#), is defined by the sum of the shearyielding or shear-buckling resistance and the postbuckling resistance from tension-field action, as specified in Article [6.10.9.3.2](#). Otherwise, the shear resistance is taken as the shear resistance given by Eq. [\(6.122\)](#). Previous Specifications did not recognize the potential for web panels of hybrid members to develop postbuckling resistance due to tension-field action. The applicability of these provisions to the shear strength of curved nonhybrid and hybrid webs is addressed by [Zureick et al. \(2002\)](#) and [White et al. \(2004\)](#), [White and Barker \(2004\)](#), [White et al.\(2004\)](#), and [Jung and White \(2006\)](#).

For nonhybrid and hybrid members, the nominal shear resistance of end panels in stiffened webs is defined by either shear yielding or shear buckling, as specified in Article [6.10.9.3.3](#).

6.20.21. Commentary on Article [6.10.9.3.2](#) "Interior Panels"

Stiffened interior web panels of nonhybrid and hybrid members satisfying Eq. [\(6.114\)](#) are capable of developing postbuckling shear resistance due to tension-field action ([Basler, 1961](#); [White et al., 2004](#)). This action is analogous to that of the tension diagonals of a Pratt truss. The nominal shear resistance of these panels can be computed by summing the contributions of beam action and post-buckling tensionfield action. The resulting expression is given in Eq. [\(6.115\)](#), where the first term in the bracket relates to either the shear yield or shear-buckling force and the second term relates to the postbuckling tension-field force. If Eq. [\(6.114\)](#) is not satisfied, the total area of the flanges within the panel is small relative to the area of the web and the full postbuckling resistance generally cannot be developed ([White et al., 2004](#)). However, it is conservative in these cases to use the postbuckling resistance given by Eq. [\(6.122\)](#). Eq. [\(6.122\)](#) gives the solution neglecting the increase in stress within the wedges of the web panel outside of the tension band implicitly included within the Basler model ([Gaylord, 1963](#); [Salmon and Johnson, 1996](#)).

Within the restrictions specified by Eqs. [\(6.114\)](#) and [\(6.65\)](#) in general, and Article [6.10.9.3.1](#) for longitudinally-stiffened I-girders in particular, and provided that the maximum moment within the panel is utilized in checking the flexural resistance, [White et al. \(2004\)](#) shows that the equations of these Specifications sufficiently capture the resistance of a reasonably comprehensive body of experimental test results without the need to consider moment-shear interaction. In addition, the additional shear resistance and anchorage of tension field action provided by a composite deck are neglected within the shear resistance provisions of these Specifications. Also, the maximum moment and shear envelope values are typically used for design, whereas the maximum concurrent moment and shear values tend to be less critical. These factors provide some additional margin of conservatism beyond the sufficient level of safety obtained if these factors do not exist.

Therefore, previous provisions related to the effects of moment-shear interaction are not required in these Specifications.

The coefficient, C , is equal to the ratio of the elastic buckling stress of the panel, computed assuming simply supported boundary conditions, to the shear yield strength assumed to equal $F_{yw}/\sqrt{3}$. Eq.(6.120) is applicable only for C values not exceeding 0.8 (Basler, 1961). Above 0.8, C values are given by Eq.(6.119) until a limiting slenderness ratio is reached where the shear-buckling stress is equal to the shear yield strength and $C = 1.0$. Eq.(6.121) for the shearbuckling coefficient is a simplification of two exact equations for k that depend on the panel aspect ratio. The coefficients within Eqs.(6.118) through (6.120) have been modified slightly from the values given in previous Specifications to correct minor round-off errors.

Because the slenderness of webs without longitudinal stiffeners is limited to 150 according to the provisions of Article 6.10.2.1.1, the separate handling requirement given in previous Specifications for web panels without longitudinal stiffeners is not required and is omitted in these Specifications.

6.20.22. Commentary on Article 6.10.10.1.2 "Pitch"

At the fatigue limit state, shear connectors are designed for the range of live load shear between the deck and top flange of the girder. In straight girders, the shear range normally is due to only major-axis bending if torsion is ignored. Curvature, skew and other conditions may cause torsion, which introduces a radial component of the horizontal shear. These provisions provide for consideration of both of the components of the shear to be added vectorially according to Eq.(6.125). The parameters I and Q should be determined using the deck within the effective flange width. However, in negative flexure regions of straight girders only, the parameters I and Q may be determined using the longitudinal reinforcement within the effective flange width for negative moment, unless the concrete deck is considered to be effective in tension for negative moment in computing the range of the longitudinal stress, as permitted in Article 6.6.1.2.1.

The maximum longitudinal fatigue shear range, V_{fat} , is produced by placing the fatigue live load immediately to the left and to the right of the point under consideration. For the load in these positions, positive moments are produced over significant portions of the girder length. Thus, the use of the full composite section, including the concrete deck, is reasonable for determining the stiffness used to determine the shear range along the entire span. Also, the horizontal shear force in the deck is most often considered to be effective along the entire span in the analysis. To satisfy this assumption, the shear force in the deck should be developed along the entire span. For straight girders, an option is permitted to ignore the concrete deck in computing the shear range in regions of negative flexure, unless the concrete is considered to be effective in tension in computing the range of the longitudinal stress, in which case the shear force in the deck must be developed. If the concrete is ignored in these regions, the maximum pitch specified at the end of this Article must not be exceeded.

The radial shear range, F_{fat} , typically is determined for the fatigue live load positioned to produce the largest positive and negative major-axis bending moments in the span.

Therefore, vectorial addition of the longitudinal and radial components of the shear range is conservative because the longitudinal and radial shears are not produced by concurrent loads.

Eq.(6.127) may be used to determine the radial fatigue shear range resulting from the effect of any curvature between brace points. The shear range is taken as the radial component of the maximum longitudinal range of force in the bottom flange between brace points, which is used as a measure of the major-axis bending moment. The radial shear range is distributed over an effective length of girder flange, w . At end supports, w is halved. Eq.(6.127) gives the same units as V_{fat} .

Eq.(6.128) will typically govern the radial fatigue shear range where torsion is caused by effects other than curvature, such as skew. Eq.(6.128) is most likely to control when discontinuous cross-frame or diaphragm lines are used in conjunction with skew angles exceeding 20° in either a straight or horizontally curved bridge. For all other cases, F_{rc} can be taken equal to zero. Eqs.(6.127) and (6.128) yield approximately the same value if the span or segment is curved and there are no other sources of torsion in the region under consideration. Note that F_{rc} represents the resultant range of horizontal force from all cross-frames or diaphragms at the point under consideration due to the factored fatigue load plus impact that is resisted by the shear connectors. In lieu of a refined analysis, F_{rc} may be taken as 111.2 KN. Where F_{rc} is taken as the above value, it should not be multiplied by the factor of 0.75 discussed in Article 6.6.1.2.1.

Eqs.(6.127) and (6.128) are provided to ensure that a load path is provided through the shear connectors to satisfy equilibrium at a transverse section through the girders, deck, and cross-frame or diaphragm.

6.20.23. Commentary on Article 6.10.10.4.2 "Nominal Shear Force"

Composite beams in which the longitudinal spacing of shear connectors has been varied according to the intensity of shear and duplicate beams where the number of connectors were essentially uniformly spaced have exhibited essentially the same ultimate strength and the same amount of deflection at service loads. Only a slight deformation in the concrete and the more heavily stressed connectors are needed to redistribute the horizontal shear to other less heavily stressed connectors. The important consideration is that the total number of connectors be sufficient to develop the nominal shear force, P_n , on either side of the point of maximum design live load plus impact moment.

The point of maximum design live load plus impact moment is specified because it applies to the composite section and is easier to locate than a maximum of the sum of the moments acting on the composite section.

For continuous spans that are composite for negative flexure in the final condition, sufficient shear connectors are required to transfer the ultimate tensile force in the reinforcement from the concrete deck to the steel section.

The number of shear connectors required between points of maximum positive design live load plus impact moment and the centerline of an adjacent interior support is computed from the sum of the critical forces at the maximum positive and negative moment locations. Since there is no point where moment always changes sign, many shear connectors resist reversing action in the concrete deck depending on the live load position.

However, the required number of shear connectors is conservatively determined from the sum of the critical forces at the maximum moment locations to provide adequate shear resistance for any live load position.

The tension force in the deck given by Eq.(6.141) is defined as 45 percent of the specified 28-day compressive strength of the concrete ($0.45 f'_c$). This is a conservative

approximation to account for the combined contribution of both the longitudinal reinforcement and also the concrete that remains effective in tension based on its modulus of rupture. A more precise value may be substituted.

The radial effect of curvature is included in Eqs. (6.137) and (6.142). For curved spans or segments, the radial force is required to bring into equilibrium the smallest of the longitudinal forces in either the deck or the girder. When computing the radial component, the longitudinal force is conservatively assumed to be constant over the entire length L_p or L_n , as applicable.

6.20.24. Commentary on Article 6.10.11.1.3 "Moment of Inertia"

For the web to adequately develop the shear-buckling resistance or the combined shear-buckling and postbuckling tension-field resistance, the transverse stiffener must have sufficient rigidity to maintain a vertical line of near zero lateral deflection along the line of the stiffener. For ratios of (d_o/D) less than 1.0, much larger values of I_t are required to develop the shear-buckling resistance, as discussed in Bleich (1952) and represented by Eq. (6.147). For single stiffeners, a significant portion of the web is implicitly assumed to contribute to the bending rigidity such that the neutral axis of the stiffener is located close to the edge in contact with the web. Therefore, for simplicity, the neutral axis is assumed to be located at this edge and the contribution of the web to the moment of inertia about this axis is neglected. The term b in Eq. (6.147) replaces d_o in prior Specifications. This term and Eq. (6.149) give a constant value for the I_t required to develop the shear-buckling resistance for web panels with $d_o > D$ (Kim et al., 2004).

Eq. (6.147) requires excessively large stiffener sizes as D/t_w is reduced below $1.12\sqrt{(Ek/F_{yw})}$, the web slenderness required for $C = 1$, since Eq. (6.147) is based on developing the web elastic shear-buckling resistance. Inelastic buckling solutions using procedures from Bleich (1952) show that larger stiffeners are not required as D/t_w is reduced below this limit. These results are corroborated by refined FEA solutions (Kim et al., 2004). k is the shear-buckling coefficient defined in Article 6.10.9.

To develop the web shear postbuckling resistance associated with tension-field action, the transverse stiffeners generally must have a larger I_t than defined by Eq. (6.147). The I_t defined by Eq. (6.148), which for $\rho_t = 1$ is approximately equal to the value required by Eq. (6.147) for a web with $D/t_w = 1.12\sqrt{(Ek/F_{yw})}$, provides an accurate to slightly conservative stiffener size relative to refined FEA solutions for straight and curved I-girders at all values of D/t_w permitted by these Specifications (Kim et al., 2004).

Eq. (6.148) is an approximate upper bound to the results for all values of d_o/D from an equation recommended by Kim et al. (2004), recognizing that the stiffener demands are insensitive to this parameter.

Multiple research studies have shown that transverse stiffeners in I-girders designed for tension-field action are loaded predominantly in bending due to the restraint they provide to lateral deflection of the web. Generally, there is evidence of some axial compression in the transverse stiffeners due to the tension field, but even in the most slender web plates permitted by these Specifications; the effect of the axial compression transmitted from the postbuckled web plate is typically minor compared to the lateral loading effect. Therefore, the transverse stiffener area requirement from prior Specifications is no longer specified.

For girders with single-sided stiffeners, Eq. (6.148) typically requires slightly larger stiffeners than in previous Specifications for small D/t_w slightly exceeding

$1.12\sqrt{(Ek/F_{yw})}$ where the I_t requirement comparable to Eq.(6.147) governs relative to the area requirement for single-sided stiffeners given in previous Specifications. For larger D/t_w values, Eq.(6.148) typically gives comparable or smaller single-sided stiffeners compared to the area requirement in previous Specifications at $V_u = \phi V_n$. For girders with stiffener pairs, the previous Specifications substantially underestimated the required stiffener size for increasing $D/t_w > 1.12\sqrt{(Ek/F_{yw})}$. Eq.(6.148) recognizes the fact that single- and double-sided transverse stiffeners with the same I_t exhibit essentially identical performance (Horne and Grayson, 1983; Rahal and Harding, 1990; Sianway et al., 1996; Lee et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2004).

The term ρ_t in Eq.(6.148) accounts conservatively for the effect of early yielding in transverse stiffeners with $F_{ys} < F_{yw}$ and for the effect of potential local buckling of stiffeners having a relatively large width-to-thickness ratio b_t/t_p . The definition of the stiffener local buckling stress F_{crs} is retained from AASHTO (2004).

Lateral loads along the length of a longitudinal stiffener are transferred to the adjacent transverse stiffeners as concentrated reactions (Cooper, 1967). Eq.(6.151) gives a relationship between the moments of inertia of the longitudinal and transverse stiffeners to ensure that the latter does not fail under the concentrated reactions. This equation applies whether the stiffeners are on the same or opposite side of the web.

6.20.25. Commentary on Article 6.10.11.3.1 "Longitudinal Stiffeners General"

For composite sections in regions of positive flexure, the depth of the web in compression D_c changes relative to the vertical position of a longitudinal web stiffener, which is usually a fixed distance from the compression flange, after the concrete deck has been placed. Thus, the computed web bend-buckling resistance is different before and after placement of the deck and is dependent on the loading. As a result, an investigation of several trial locations of the stiffener may be necessary to determine a location of the stiffener to satisfy Eq.(6.70) for constructibility, Eq.(6.77) at the service limit state and the appropriate design requirements at the strength limit state along the girder. The following equation maybe used to determine an initial trial stiffener location for composite sections in regions of positive flexure:

$$\frac{d_s}{D_c} = \frac{1}{1 + 1.15 \sqrt{\frac{f_{DC1} + f_{DC2} + f_{DW} + f_{LL+IM}}{f_{DC1}}}} \quad (D6.11)$$

where:

- D_s = distance from the centerline of a plate longitudinal stiffener, or the gage line of an angle longitudinal stiffener, to the inner surface or leg of the compression-flange element (mm)
- D_c = depth of the web of the noncomposite steel section in compression in the elastic range (mm)
- F_{xx} = compression-flange stresses at the strength limit state caused by the different factored loads at the section with the maximum compressive flexural stress; i.e., $DC1$, the permanent load acting on the noncomposite section; $DC2$, the permanent load acting on the long-term composite section; DW , the wearing surface load; and $LL+IM$; acting on their respective sections (MPa). Flange lateral bending is to be disregarded in this calculation.

The stiffener may need to be moved vertically up or down from this initial trial location in order to satisfy all the specified limit-state criteria.

For composite sections in regions of negative flexure and for noncomposite sections, it is suggested that an initial trial stiffener location of $2D_c/5$ from the inner surface of the compression flange be examined at the section with the maximum flexural compressive stress due to the factored loads at the strength limit state.

Furthermore, for composite sections, D_c should be computed for the section consisting of the steel girder plus the longitudinal deck reinforcement. The stiffener may need to be moved vertically up or down from the initial trial location in order to satisfy all the specified limit-state criteria, in particular for cases where the concrete deck is assumed effective in tension in regions of negative flexure at the service limit state, as permitted for composite sections satisfying the requirements specified in Article [6.10.4.2.1](#).

Theoretical and experimental studies on noncomposite girders have indicated that the optimum location of one longitudinal stiffener is $2D_c/5$ for bending and $D/2$ for shear. Tests have also shown that longitudinal stiffeners located at $2D_c/5$ on these sections can effectively control lateral web deflections under flexure (Cooper, 1967). The distance $2D_c/5$ is recommended because shear is always accompanied by moment and because a properly proportioned longitudinal stiffener also reduces the web lateral deflections caused by shear. Also, because D_c may vary along the length of the span, it is recommended that the stiffener be located based on D_c computed at the section with the largest compressive flexural stress. Thus, the stiffener may not be located at its optimum location at other sections with a lower stress and a different D_c . These sections should also be examined to ensure that they satisfy the specified limit states.

In regions where the web undergoes stress reversal, it may be necessary, or desirable, to use two longitudinal stiffeners on the web.

It is preferred that longitudinal stiffeners be placed on the opposite side of the web from transverse intermediate stiffeners. Otherwise, at bearing stiffeners and connection plates where the longitudinal stiffener and the transverse web element must intersect, the longitudinal stiffener must be made continuous wherever practical, unless permitted otherwise in the contract documents, since longitudinal stiffeners are designed as continuous members.

Discontinuous transverse web elements must be fitted and attached to both sides of the longitudinal stiffener with connections sufficient to develop the flexural and axial resistance of the transverse element. Should the longitudinal stiffener be interrupted, it should be similarly attached to all transverse web elements. All interruptions must be carefully designed with respect to fatigue, particularly if the longitudinal stiffener is not attached to the transverse web elements. Where the longitudinal stiffener is attached to the transverse web elements, Eq. [\(6.5\)](#) may apply. For various stiffener end details and their associated fatigue details, refer to Schilling (1986). Copes should always be provided to avoid intersecting welds. Where longitudinal stiffeners are discontinued at bolted field splices, consideration should be given to taking the stiffener to the free edge of the web where the normal stress is zero.

Longitudinal stiffeners are subject to the same flexural strain as the web at their vertical position on the web.

Therefore, they must have sufficient rigidity and strength to resist bend-buckling of the web, where required to do so, and to transmit the stresses in the stiffener and a portion of the web as an equivalent column (Cooper, 1967). Thus, full nominal yielding

of the stiffeners is not permitted at the strength limit state and when checking constructibility as an upper bound. Eq.(6.155) serves as a limit on the validity of Eq.(6.158), which is in turn based on the axial resistance of an equivalent column section composed of the stiffener and a portion of the web plate.

To account for the influence of web yielding on the longitudinal stiffener stress in hybrid members, the elastically computed stress in the stiffener is limited to $\phi f R_h F_{ys}$ in Eq.(6.155). For the strength limit state and constructibility checks, the corresponding value of R_h at the section under consideration should be applied in Eq.(6.155).

6.20.26. Commentary on Article 6.10.11.3.3 " Moment of Inertia and Radius Gyration"

Eq.(6.157) ensures that the stiffener will have adequate rigidity to maintain a horizontal line of near zero lateral deflection in the web panel when necessary to resist bendbuckling of the web (Galambos, 1998). Eq.(6.158) ensures that the longitudinal stiffener acting in combination with an adjacent strip of the web will withstand the axial compressive stress without lateral buckling. The moment of inertia, I_ℓ , and radius of gyration, r , are taken about the neutral axis of an equivalent column cross-section composed of the stiffener and an adjacent strip of the web, as suggested by Cooper (1967). Previous Specifications required that these quantities be calculated about the edge of the stiffener in contact with the web plate. The values for I_ℓ and for r calculated as suggested by Cooper (1967) are generally smaller than the corresponding values determined as suggested in the previous Specifications.

The specified procedure for calculation of I_ℓ and r is consistent with the horizontally-curved I-girder provisions of AASHTO (2003) in the limit that the girder is straight.

The effect of the web plate having lower yield strength than that of the longitudinal stiffener is accommodated by adjusting the web strip that contributes to the effective column section by F_{yw}/F_y , in the calculation of the moment of inertia of the longitudinal stiffener.

The rigidity required of longitudinal stiffeners on curved webs is greater than the rigidity required on straight webs because of the tendency of curved webs to bow. The factor β in Eq.(6.157) is a simplification of the requirement in the Hanshin (1988) provisions for longitudinal stiffeners used on curved girders. For longitudinal stiffeners on straight webs, Eq.(6.161) leads to $\beta = 1.0$.

Eq.(6.158) is based on the model described by Cooper (1967), except that the possibility of different specified minimum yield strengths for the stiffener and compression flange is accommodated. Also, the influence of a hybrid web is approximated by including the hybrid factor, R_h , within this equation. For a nonhybrid I-section, the required radius of gyration from Eq.(6.158) is slightly larger than that required in previous Specifications. For an I-section in which F_{yc}/F_{ys} is greater than one, the required radius of gyration from Eq.(6.158) is significantly larger than required in previous Specifications. This is necessary because in these cases, the longitudinal stiffener is subjected to larger stresses compared to its resistance as an equivalent column than in an equivalent homogeneous section.

Article 6.10.9.3.1 requires that the shear resistance of the web panel be determined based on the total web depth D . Therefore, no area requirement is given for the longitudinal stiffeners to anchor the tension field.

6.20.27. Commentary on Article 6.11.1 "BOX-SECTION FLEXURAL MEMBERS General"

Article 6.11.1 addresses general topics that apply to closed-box and tub sections used as flexural members in either straight bridges, horizontally curved bridges, or bridges containing both straight and curved segments. For the application of the provisions of Article 6.11, bridges containing both straight and curved segments are to be treated as horizontally curved bridges since the effects of curvature on the support reactions and girder deflections, as well as the effects of flange lateral bending and torsional shear, usually extend beyond the curved segments. The term moderate length as used herein refers to bridges of spans up to approximately 105 m. The provisions may be applied to larger spans based on a thorough evaluation of the application of the bridge under consideration consistent with basic structural fundamentals. Alternative information regarding the design of long-span steel box-girder bridges is contained in FHWA (1980). For general overview on boxgirder bridges, refer to Wolchuk (1997).

The five bullet items in this Article 6.11.1 indicate the overarching organization of the subsequent provisions for the design of box-section flexural members. To avoid repetition, some of the general topics in this Article refer back to the general provisions of Article 6.10.1 for I-sections, which apply equally well to box sections.

Where necessary, other Articles in Article 6.10 are referred to at appropriate points within Article 6.11.

Within these provisions, the term box flange refers to a flange plate connected to two webs.

These provisions do not apply to the use of box sections which are noncomposite in the final condition, as defined in Article 6.10.1.2, as flexural members. The concrete deck is to be assumed effective over the entire span length in the analysis for loads applied to the composite section according to the provisions of Article 6.10.1.5. Therefore, shear connectors must be present along the entire span to resist the torsional shear that exists along the entire span in all types of composite box sections in order to avoid possible debonding of the deck. Shear connectors must also be present in regions of negative flexure in order to be consistent with the prototype and model bridges that were studied in the original development of the live-load distribution provisions for box sections (Johnston and Mattock, 1967).

For considerations while a composite box section is under construction, applicable provisions of Article 6.10 and 6.11 may be utilized depending on whether the section is thought to be effectively open or quasi-box in behavior, respectively. The flexural resistance of noncomposite closed-box sections used as compression or tension members is specified in Article 6.12.2.2.

These provisions may be applied to the use of composite closed-box sections, or sections utilizing a steel plate for the top flange that is composite with the concrete deck, as flexural members. The use of such sections has been relatively rare in due to cost considerations related to the implementation of necessary safety requirements for working inside of closed boxes.

These Specifications do not apply to the use of composite concrete on bottom box flanges in order to stiffen the flanges in regions of negative flexure.

The use of single-box sections is permitted in these Specifications because torsional equilibrium can be established with two bearings at some supports. Placing the center of gravity of the dead load near the shear center of single-box sections ensures minimal

torsion. Items such as sound barriers on one side of the bridge may be critical on single-box sections.

These Specifications do not apply to multiple cell single box sections because there has been little published research regarding these members. Analysis of this bridge type involves consideration of shear flow in each cell.

In variable web depth box members with inclined webs, the inclination of the webs should preferably remain constant in order to simplify the analysis and the fabrication. For a constant distance between the webs at the top of the box, which is also preferred, this requires that the width of the bottom flange vary along the length and that the web heights at a given cross-section be kept equal. If the bridge is chosen to be incrementally launched, a constant depth box is recommended.

The provisions of Article [6.11](#) provide a unified approach for consideration of combined major-axis bending and flange lateral bending from any source in the design of top flanges of tub sections during construction. These provisions also provide a unified approach for consideration of the combined effects of normal stress and St. Venant torsional shear stress in closed-box and tub sections both during construction and in the final constructed condition. General design equations are provided for determining the nominal flexural resistance of box flanges under the combined effects of normal stress and torsional shear stress. The provisions also allow for the consideration of torsional shear in the design of the box-section webs and shear connectors. For straight boxes, the effects of torsional shear are typically relatively small unless the bridge is subjected to large torques. For example, boxes resting on skewed supports are usually subjected to large torques. For horizontally curved boxes, flange lateral bending effects due to curvature and the effects of torsional shear must always be considered at all limit states and also during construction.

For cases where the effects of the flange lateral bending and/or torsional shear are judged to be insignificant or incidental, or are not to be considered, the terms related to these effects are simply set equal to zero in the appropriate equations. The format of the equations then simply reduces to the format of the more familiar equations given in previous Specifications for checking the nominal flexural resistance of box sections in the absence of flange lateral bending and St. Venant torsion.

Fundamental calculations for flexural members previously found in [Article 6.10.3 of AASHTO \(2004\)](#) have been placed in Article [6.19](#).

6.20.28. Commentary on Article [6.11.1.1](#) "Stress Determinations"

Stress analyses of actual box girder bridge designs were carried out to evaluate the effective width of a box flange using a series of folded plate equations ([Goldberg and Leve, 1957](#)). Bridges for which the span to-flange width ratio varied from 5.65 to 35.3 were included in the study. The effective flange width as a ratio of the total flange width covered a range from 0.89 for the bridge with the smallest span-to-width ratio to 0.99 for the bridge with the largest span-to-width ratio.

On this basis, it is reasonable to permit a box flange to be considered fully effective and subject to a uniform longitudinal stress, provided that its width does not exceed one-fifth of the span of the bridge. For extremely wide box flanges, a special investigation for shear lag effects may be required.

Although the results quoted above were obtained for simply-supported bridges, this criterion would apply equally to continuous bridges using the appropriate effective span defined in this Article for the section under consideration.

The effective box-flange width should be used when calculating the flexural stresses in the section due to the factored loads. The full flange width should be used to calculate the nominal flexural resistance of the box flange.

Closed-box sections are capable of resisting torsion with limited distortion of the cross-section. Since distortion is generally limited, by providing sufficient internal bracing in accordance with Article [6.7.4.3](#) torsion is resisted mainly by St. Venant torsional shear flow. The warping constant for closed-box sections is approximately equal to zero. Thus, warping shear and normal stresses due to warping torsion are typically quite small and are usually neglected.

Transverse bending stresses in box flanges and webs due to distortion of the box cross-section occur due to changes in direction of the shear flow vector. The transverse bending stiffness of the webs and flanges alone is not sufficient to retain the box shape so internal cross bracing is required. Longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion are also best controlled by internal cross bracing, as discussed further in Article [6.7.4.3](#).

Top flanges of tub girders subject to torsional loads need to be braced so that the section acts as a pseudo-box for noncomposite loads applied before the concrete deck hardens or is made composite. Top-flange bracing working with internal cross bracing retains the box shape and resists lateral force induced by inclined webs and torsion. As discussed further in Article [6.11.2.3](#), for multiple box sections in straight bridges that conform to the restrictions specified in Article [6.11.2.3](#), the effects of St. Venant torsional shear and secondary distortional stresses may be neglected unless the box flange is very wide. The live-load distribution factor specified in Article [4.6.2.2.2.b](#) for straight multiple steel box sections may also be applied in the analysis of these bridges. Bridges not satisfying one or more of these restrictions must be investigated using one of the available methods of refined structural analysis, or other acceptable methods of approximate structural analysis as specified in Article [4.4](#) or [4.6.2.2.4](#), since the specified live-load distribution factor does not apply to such bridges. The effects of St. Venant torsional shear and secondary distortional stresses are also more significant and must therefore be considered for sections in these bridges. Included in this category are all types of bridges containing single-box sections and horizontally curved bridges containing multiple-box sections.

Transverse bending stresses are of particular concern in boxes that may be subjected to large torques; e.g. single box sections, sharply curved boxes, and boxes resting on skewed supports. For other cases, the distortional stresses may be ignored if it can be demonstrated that the torques are of comparable magnitude to the torques for cases in which research has shown that these stresses are small enough to be neglected ([Johnston and Mattock. 1967](#)), e.g., a straight bridge of similar proportion satisfying the requirements on Article [6.11.3.3](#) or if the torques are deemed small enough in the judgment of the Owner and the Engineer. In such cases, it is recommended that all web stiffeners be attached to both flanges to enhance fatigue performance.

In single-box sections in particular, significant torsional loads may occur during construction and under live loads. Live loads at the extreme of the deck can cause critical torsional loads without causing critical flexural moments. In the analysis, live load positioning should be done for flexure and torsion. The position of the bearings should be recognized in the analysis in sufficient completeness to permit direct computation of the reactions.

Where required, the St. Venant torsional shear and shear stress in web and flange elements can be calculated from the shear flow, which is determined as follows:

$$f = \frac{T}{2A_o} \quad (\text{D6.12})$$

where:

- A_o = enclosed area within the box section (mm^2)
- f = shear flow (N/mm)
- T = internal torque due to the factored loads (N-mm)

For torques applied to the noncomposite section, A_o is to be computed for the noncomposite box section. As specified in Article 6.7.5.3, if top lateral bracing in a tub section is attached to the webs, A_o is to be reduced to reflect the actual location of the bracing. Because shear connectors are required along the entire length of box sections according to these provisions, the concrete deck can be considered effective in resisting torsion at any point along the span. Therefore, for torques applied to the composite section in regions of positive or negative flexure, A_o is to be computed for the composite section using the depth from the bottom flange to the mid-thickness of the concrete deck. The depth may be computed using a lower bound estimate of the actual thickness of the concrete haunch, or may be determined conservatively by neglecting the thickness of the haunch.

The torsion acting on the composite section also introduces horizontal shear in the concrete deck that should be considered when designing the reinforcing steel.

Article 6.11.10 suggests a procedure for determining the torsional shear in the concrete deck for closed-box sections. For tub sections, the deck should be assumed to resist all the torsional shear acting on top of the composite box section.

Previous Specifications (AASHTO, 1993) limited the nominal St. Verrant torsional shear resistance of box flanges to the shear yield stress, $F_{yf}/\sqrt{3}$. However, at this level of shear stress, there is a significant reduction in the nominal flexural resistance of the flange. Therefore, the nominal shear resistance is limited to $0.75F_{yf}/\sqrt{3}$ in these provisions. Such a level of torsional shear stress is rarely, if ever, encountered in practical box-girder designs.

Where required, transverse or through-thickness bending stresses and stress ranges in the webs and flanges due to cross-section distortion can be determined using the beam-on-elastic-foundation or BEF analogy presented by Wright and Abdel-Samad (1968). In this method, the internal cross bracing is analogous to intermediate supports in the BEF, and the resistance to distortion provided by the box cross-section is analogous to a continuous elastic foundation. The deflection of the BEF is analogous to the transverse bending stress. Transverse stiffeners should be considered effective with the web or box flange, as applicable, in computing the flexural rigidities of these elements. Sample calculations based on the BEF analogy are presented in Heins and Hall (1981) and in AASHTO (2003). The use of finite-element analysis to determine through thickness bending stresses as part of the overall analysis of box sections is impractical due to the mesh refinement necessary for the accurate calculation of these stresses.

Longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion can also be determined using the BEF analogy.

The warping stress is analogous to the moment in the BEF.

The warping stresses are largest at the corners of the box where critical welded details are often located and should be considered for fatigue (Wright and Abdel-Samad, 1968). Tests have indicated that these warping stresses do not affect the ultimate strength of box girders of typical proportions.

Since top lateral bracing contributes to the flexural stiffness of tub sections, consideration should be given to including the longitudinal component of the top-flange bracing area when computing the section properties of the tub. Where used, longitudinal flange stiffeners should also be included in the section properties of the box or tub.

6.20.29. Commentary on Article 6.11.2.3 "Special Restrictions on Use of Live Load Distribution Factor for Multiple Box Sections"

Restrictions specified in this Article for straight bridges utilizing multiple box sections are necessary in order to employ the lateral live-load distribution factor given in Article 4.6.2.2.2.b for straight multiple steel box sections. The development of this distribution factor is based on an extensive study of bridges that conform to these limitations (Johnston and Mattock, 1967). The study assumed an uncracked stiffness for the composite section along the entire span.

Further, it was determined that when these restrictions are satisfied, shear due to St. Venant torsion and secondary distortional bending stress effects may be neglected if the width of the box flange does not exceed one-fifth of the effective span defined in Article 6.11.1.1. It was found from an analytical study of bridges of this type that when such bridges were loaded so as to produce maximum moment in a particular girder, and hence maximum compression in the flange plate near an intermediate support, the amount of twist in that girder was negligible.

It therefore appears reasonable that, for bridges conforming to the restrictions set forth in this Article and with fully effective box flanges, shear due to torsion need not be considered in the design of box flanges for maximum compression or tension loads.

In the case of bridges with support skew, additional torsional effects occur in the box sections and the lateral distribution of loads is also affected. Although the bridge may satisfy the cross-section restrictions of this Article, these effects are not comprehended by the lateral distribution factor specified in Article 4.6.2.2.2.b

Therefore, in these cases, a more rigorous analysis of stresses is necessary using one of the available methods of refined structural analysis. For straight portions of bridges that satisfy these restrictions, but that also contain horizontally curved segments, a refined analysis is also recommended. Although not required, refined structural analysis methods may also be used for bridges satisfying the restrictions of this Article, if desired.

Some limitations are placed on the variation of the distance a with respect to the distance w shown in Figure 6.3 when the distribution factor is used because the studies on which the live load distribution provisions are based were made on bridges in which a and w were equal. The limitations given for nonparallel box sections will allow some flexibility of layout in design while generally maintaining the validity of the provisions. For cases with nonparallel box sections where the live load distribution factor is employed, refer to the provisions of Article 4.6.2.2.2.b.

6.20.30. Commentary on Article 6.11.3.2 "Flexure"

Although the equations of Articles 6.10.3.2.1 through 6.10.3.2.3 apply to flanges of I-sections, they may also safely be applied to a single top flange of a tub section.

The provisions of Article 6.10.1.6 also apply when these equations are used.

Top lateral bracing attached to the flanges at points where only struts exist between the flanges may be considered as brace points at the discretion of the Engineer.

For straight girders, lateral bending in discretely braced top flanges of tub sections, before the concrete deck has hardened or is made composite, is caused by wind and by torsion from various origins. The equations of Articles 6.10.3.2.1 and 6.10.3.2.2 allow the Engineer to directly consider the effects of the flange lateral bending, if deemed significant. When the flange lateral bending effects are judged to be insignificant or incidental, the lateral bending term f_ℓ , is simply set equal to zero in these equations. The format of the equations then reduces simply to the more conventional format for checking the flanges for the limit states of yielding, lateral torsional buckling or local buckling, as applicable, in the absence of flange lateral bending. For horizontally curved girders, flange lateral bending effects due to curvature must always be considered during construction. For loads applied during construction once the top flanges are continuously braced, the provisions of Article 6.10.3.2.3 apply. A distinction is made between discretely and continuously braced flanges in Article 6.10.3.2 because for a continuously braced flange, lateral flange bending need not be considered.

Article 6.10.1.6 states the conditions for which top flanges may be considered continuously braced. St. Venant torsional shears are also typically neglected in continuously braced top flanges of tub sections. In checking the requirements of Articles 6.10.3.2.1 through 6.10.3.2.3 for a single top flange of a tub, it is recommended that the checks be made for half of the tub section.

In checking Eq. (6.69) for I-sections in straight bridges with compact or noncompact webs, Article 6.17.3.3 optionally permits the lateral torsional buckling resistance of the compression flange to be determined including the beneficial contribution of the St. Venant torsional constant J . The use of these provisions is conservatively prohibited in checking top flanges of tub sections with compact or noncompact webs. The compact, noncompact and slender web definitions are discussed in Article 6.10.6.2.3. For making these checks with the section in its noncomposite condition, the categorization of the web is to be based on the properties of the noncomposite section.

One potential source of flange lateral bending due to torsion is the effect of eccentric concrete deck overhang loads acting on cantilever forming brackets placed along exterior tub sections. In lieu of a more refined analysis, the maximum flange lateral bending moments in the outermost top flange of a tub due to these eccentric loadings may be estimated using either Eq. (D6.8) or (D6.9) depending on how the lateral load is assumed applied to the flange.

In box sections with inclined webs, the change in the horizontal component of the web dead load shear plus the change in the St. Venant torsional dead load shear per unit length along the member acts as a uniformly distributed transverse load on the girder flanges. Additional intermediate internal cross-frames, diaphragms or struts may be required to reduce the lateral bending in discretely braced top flanges of tub sections resulting from this transverse load. This may be particularly true for cases where the inclination of the web plates to a plane normal to the bottom flange is permitted to exceed 1 to 4, and/or where the unbraced length of the top flanges exceeds 9000 mm. Otherwise, this transverse load can typically be ignored. The maximum lateral flange

bending moments due to this transverse load can be estimated using Eq.(D6.8) in lieu of a more refined analysis, where F_ℓ is taken as the magnitude of the factored uniformly distributed transverse load. The entire transverse load should be assumed applied to the top flanges (Fan and Helwig, 1999). The cross-frame or strut can be assumed to carry the entire transverse load within the panel under consideration.

Another potential source of flange lateral bending is due to the forces that develop in Warren-type single-diagonal top lateral bracing systems due to flexure of the tub section. Refer to Article 6.7.5.3 for further discussion regarding this topic.

In cases where a full-length lateral bracing system is not employed within a tub section, as discussed further in Article 6.7.5.3, the minimum width of the top flanges within each field piece should satisfy the guideline given by Eq.(D6.7), in conjunction with the flange proportion limits specified in Article 6.11.2.2. In this case, L in Eq.(D6.7) is to be taken as the larger of the distances along the field piece between panels of lateral bracing or between a panel of lateral bracing and the end of the piece. For cases where a full-length lateral bracing system is employed, Eq.(D6.7) need not be considered for top flanges of tub sections.

For noncomposite box flanges in compression, local buckling of the flange during critical stages of construction is checked according to Eq.(6.169). Flange lateral bending and lateral torsional buckling are not a consideration for box flanges.

Eq.(6.170) ensures that theoretical web bend-buckling will not occur during construction at sections where noncomposite box flanges are subject to compression.

Eq.(6.171) serves a similar function at sections where top flanges of tub sections are subject to compression. For box sections with inclined webs, D_c should be taken as depth of the web in compression measured along the slope in determining the web bend-buckling resistance, F_{crw} , in either case. Because the flange stress is limited to the web bend-buckling stress, the R_b factor is always to be taken equal to 1.0 in computing the nominal flexural resistance of the compression flange for constructibility. Options to consider should the flange not satisfy Eq.(6.170) or Eq.(6.171), as applicable, for the construction condition are discussed in Article 6.10.3.2.1. For sections with compact or noncompact webs, web bend-buckling is not a consideration, and therefore, need not be checked for these sections.

For noncomposite box flanges in tension, or for continuously braced box flanges in tension or compression, the **von Mises yield criterion** (Boresi et al., 1978) is used in Eq.(6.171) to consider the effect of the torsional shear.

Longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion typically need not be considered in checking Eqs.(6.169) and (6.171), but are required to be considered when checking slip of the connections in bolted flange splices for the construction condition as specified in Article 6.13.6.1.4.c.

In closed-box sections, noncomposite box flanges on top of the box receive the weight of wet concrete and other loads during construction before the deck hardens or is made composite. Transverse and/or longitudinal stiffening of the box flange may be required to control box-flange deflection and stresses.

6.20.31. Commentary on Article 6.11.5 "Fatigue and Fracture Limit State"

When a box sections is subjected to a torsional loads, its cross-section distorts and is restored at diaphragms or cross-frames. This distortion gives rise to secondary bending stresses. A torsional-loading in the opposite direction produces a reversal of these distortional secondary bending stresses. In certain cases, as defined herein, these

distortional stresses are to be considered when checking fatigue. Situations for which these stresses are of particular concern and for which these stresses may potentially be ignored are discussed in Article [6.11.1.1](#).

Transverse bending and longitudinal warping stress ranges due to cross-section distortion can be determined using the BEF analogy, as discussed in Article [6.11.1.1](#). Longitudinal warping stresses are considered additive to the longitudinal major-axis bending stresses.

The largest distortional stress range is usually caused by positioning the live load on one side and then on the opposite side of a box. To cause one cycle of the stress range so computed rewire, two vehicles to traverse the bridges in separate transverse positions with one vehicle leading the other.

To account for the unlikely event of this occurring over millions of cycles, the provisions permit application of a factor of 0.75 to the computed range of distortionally-induced stresses, except when the maximum stress range is caused by loading of only one lane. This 0.75 factor is distinct from the 0.75 load factor specified for the fatigue load in [Table 3.1](#), i.e., when applicable, both factors may be applied simultaneously. There is no provision to account for the need for two trucks to cause a single cycle of stress in this w. For cases where the nominal fatigue resistance is calculated based on a finite life, the Engineer may wish to consider a reduction in the number of cycles since two cycles are required to cause a single cycle of stress.

The most critical case for transverse bending is likely to be the base metal at the termination of fillet welds connecting transverse elements to webs and box flanges. A stress concentration occurs at the termination of these welds as a result of the transverse bending. The fatigue resistance of this detail when subject to transverse bending is not currently quantified, but is anticipated to be perhaps as low as Category E. Should this situation be found critical in the web at transverse web stiffeners not serving as connection plates, the transverse bending stress range may be reduced by welding the stiffeners to the flanges. Attaching transverse stiffeners to the flanges reduces the sharp through-thickness bending stresses within the unstiffened portions of the web at the termination of the stiffener-to-web welds, which is usually the most critical region for this check. Cross-frame connection plates already are required to be attached to the flanges according to the provisions of Article [6.6.1.3.1](#), for this reason.

Should it become necessary to reduce the transverse bending stress range in the box flange adjacent to the cross-frame connection plate welds to the flange, the provision of transverse cross-frame members across the bottom of the box or tub as part of the internal cross-bracing significantly reduces the transverse bending stress range at the welds and ensures that the cross-section shape is retained. Closer spacing of cross-frames also leads to lower transverse bending stresses. Where bottom transverse cross-frame members are provided, they are to be attached to the box flange or to the longitudinal flange stiffeners, as applicable. For closed-box sections, the top transverse cross-frame members should be similarly attached. Where transverse bracing members are welded directly to the box flange. The stress range due to transverse bending should also be considered in checking the fatigue resistance of the base metal adjacent to the termination of these welds. Where transverse bracing members are connected to longitudinal flange stiffeners, the box flange may be considered stiffened when computing the transverse bending stresses. In such cases, the transverse connection plates must still be attached to both flanges as specified in Article [6.6.1.3.1](#).

Load-induced fatigue is usually not critical for top lateral bracing in tub sections since the concrete deck is much stiffer and resists more of the load than does the

bracing. Since the deck resists the majority of the torsional shear in these cases, it is advisable to check the reinforcement in the deck for the additional horizontal shear. Severely skewed supports may cause critical horizontal deck shear.

It is advisable to connect the lateral bracing to the top flanges to eliminate a load path through the web. Although removable deck forms are problematic in tub girders. They are sometimes required by the Owner. In such cases, it may be necessary to lower the lateral bracing by attaching it to the box webs. In these cases, connections to the webs must be made according to the requirements of Article 6.6.1.3.2 to prevent potential problems resulting from fatigue. An adequate load path, with fatigue considered, must be provided between the bracing-to-web connections and the top flanges. Connections of the lateral bracing to the web can be avoided by using metal stay-in-place deck forms.

Fatigue of the base metal at the net section of access holes should be considered. The fatigue resistance at the net section of large access holes is not currently specified; however, base metal at the net section of open bolt holes has been shown to satisfy Category D (Brown et al., 2007).

This assumes a stress concentration, or ratio of the elastic tensile stress adjacent to the hole to the average stress on the net area, of 3.0. A less severe fatigue category might be considered if the proper stress concentration at the edges of the access hole is evaluated.

Refer to Article 6.6.2 for further discussion regarding the use of refined analyses to demonstrate that part of a structure is not fracture-critical.

There may be exceptions where box flanges of single-box sections subject to tension need not be considered fracture critical. For example, continuously braced top flanges in regions of negative flexure where there is adequate deck reinforcing to act as a top flange. In such cases, adequate shear connection must also be provided.

6.20.32. Commentary on Article 6.11.6.2.2 "Sections in Positive Flexure"

The nominal flexural resistance of sections in positive flexure within straight bridges satisfying the requirements of Article 6.11.2.3 and that also satisfy specific steel grade, web slenderness, effective flange width and ductility requirements is permitted to exceed the moment at first yield according to the provisions of Article 6.10.7. The nominal flexural resistance of these sections, termed compact sections, is therefore more appropriately expressed in terms of moment. For sections in positive flexure in straight bridges not satisfying one or more of these requirements, or for composite sections in positive flexure in horizontally curved bridges, termed noncompact sections, the nominal flexural resistance is not permitted to exceed the moment at first yield. The nominal flexural resistance in these cases is therefore more appropriately expressed in terms of the elastically computed flange stress.

For reasons discussed in Article 6.10.6.2.2, composite sections in positive flexure in straight bridges with flange yield strengths greater than 485MPa or with webs that do not satisfy Article 6.11.2.1.2 or Eq.(6.174) are to be designed at the strength limit state as noncompact sections as specified in Article 6.11.7.2. Furthermore, if the section is not part of a straight bridge that satisfies the restrictions specified in Article 6.11.2.3, or is part of a horizontally curved bridge, or if the box flange is not fully effective as defined in Article 6.11.1.1, the section must be designed as a noncompact section. The ability of such sections to develop a nominal flexural resistance greater than the moment at first

yield in the presence of potentially significant st. Venant torsional shear and cross-sectional distortion stresses has not been demonstrated.

Compact sections in positive flexure must satisfy the provisions of Article 6.10.7.3 to ensure a ductile mode of failure. Noncompact sections must also satisfy the ductility requirement specified in Article 6.10.7.3 to ensure a ductile failure. Satisfaction of this requirement ensures an adequate margin of safety against premature crushing of the concrete deck for sections utilizing 690 MPa steels and/or for sections utilized in shored construction. This requirement is also a key limit in allowing web bend-buckling to be disregarded in the design of composite sections in positive flexure when the web also satisfies Article 6.11.2.1.2, as discussed in Article 6.10.1.9.1.

6.20.33. Commentary on Article 6.11.8.2.2 "Unstiffened Flanges"

The nominal flexural resistance of box flanges in compression is defined for three distinct regions based on the slenderness of the flange. For unstiffened flanges, the slenderness is based on the full flange width between webs, b_{fc} .

For the most slender plates, elastic buckling represented by the classic Euler hyperbola governs the behavior. For flanges under combined normal stress and torsional shear stress, a nonlinear interaction curve is used to derive the resistance of the flange in this region. The interaction curve relates the theoretical elastic Euler buckling equations for an infinitely long plate under a uniform normal stress and under shear stress (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961; Culver, 1972). The elastic buckling resistance of the flange based on this interaction curve is given by Eq. (6.191). A general discussion of the problem of reduction of critical local buckling stresses due to the presence of torsional shear may be found in Galambos (1998).

For stocky plates, full yielding of the plate, as defined by the von Mises yield criterion for combined normal and shear stress (Boresi et al., 1978), can be achieved. For such plates, the nominal flexural resistance of the flange is defined by Eq. (6.189).

In between these two regions is a transition region that reflects the fact that partial yielding due to residual stresses and initial imperfections does not permit the attainment of the elastic buckling stress. As in previous Specifications, the nominal flexural resistance of the flange in this region is arbitrarily defined in Eq. (6.190) by a sine curve. In the original derivation of Eq. (6.190), a residual stress level equal to $0.4F_{yc}$ was assumed (Culver, 1972).

The specified plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress, k , and shear-buckling coefficient, k_s , assume simply-supported boundary conditions at the edges of the flanges (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961).

The limiting flange slenderness defining whether to use Eq. (6.190) or (6.191) is based on the constant, R_1 , given by Eq. (6.196).

$R_1\sqrt{(kE/F_{yc})}$ is defined as 0.6 times the flange slenderness at which the elastic buckling stress given by Eq. (6.191) $R_b F_{yc} \Delta$. The limiting flange slenderness defining whether to use Eq. (6.190) or (6.191) is based on the constant, R_2 given by Eq. (6.197). $R_2\sqrt{(kE/F_{yc})}$ is defined as the flange slenderness at which the elastic buckling stress given by Eq. (6.191) equals $R_b F_{yr}$ where F_{yr} is given by Eq. (6.195).

The computation of the flange torsional shear stress from Eq. (6.194) due to torques applied separately to the noncomposite and composite sections is discussed in Article 6.11.1.1.

The term R_b is a postbuckling strength reduction factor that accounts for the reduction in the section flexural resistance caused by the shedding of compressive

stresses from a slender web and the corresponding increase in the flexural stress within the compression flange. The R_b factor accounts for the reduced contribution of the web to the nominal flexural resistance at first yield in any flange element, due to earlier yielding of the lower strength steel in the web of a hybrid section. The R_b and R_b factors are discussed in greater detail in Articles [6.10.1.10.2](#) and [6.10.1.10.1](#), respectively. In calculating R_b and R_b for a tub section, use one-half of the effective box flange width in conjunction with one top flange and a single web, where the effective box flange width is defined in Article [6.11.1.1](#). For a closed-box section, use one-half of the effective top and bottom box flange width in conjunction with a single web.

6.20.34. Commentary on Article [6.11.8.2.3](#) "Longitudinally-Stiffened Flanges"

When a noncomposite unstiffened box flange becomes so slender that nominal flexural resistance of the flange decreases to an impractical level, longitudinal stiffeners can be added to the flange.

The nominal flexural resistance of a longitudinally stiffened box flange is determined using the same basic equations specified for unstiffened box flanges in Article [6.11.8.2.2](#). The width, w , must be substituted for b_f in the equations. The shear-buckling coefficient, k_s , for a stiffened plate to be used in the equations is given by Eq. [\(6.200\)](#), which comes from Culver (1972). The plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress, k , to be used in the equations is related to the stiffness of the longitudinal flange stiffeners and is derived from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#). k can take any value ranging from 1.0 to 4.0. However, a value of k ranging from 2.0 to 4.0 generally should be assumed. Eq. [\(6.198\)](#) applies for one longitudinal flange stiffener; i.e., $n = 1$, and Eq. [\(6.199\)](#) applies for two longitudinal flange stiffeners; i.e., $n = 2$. As discussed further in Article [6.11.11.2](#), as the number of stiffeners is increased beyond one, the required moment of inertia from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) to achieve the desired k value begins to increase dramatically and eventually becomes nearly impractical. Therefore, for boxes of typical proportions, it is strongly recommended that the number of longitudinal flange stiffeners not exceed one for maximum economy.

Note that Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) is automatically satisfied by the longitudinal flange stiffener moment of inertia that is assumed in determining the k value from Eq. [\(6.198\)](#) or [\(6.199\)](#), as applicable, since Eq. [\(6.198\)](#) and [\(6.199\)](#) are derived directly from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#). Another option in lieu of using Eq. [\(6.198\)](#) or [\(6.199\)](#) is to assume a k value and then determine the minimum required moment of inertia for each longitudinal flange stiffener from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) that will provide the assumed value of k .

If the longitudinal flange stiffeners are very rigid, k will be at or near a value of 4.0 and plate buckling will be forced to occur between the stiffeners. Less rigid stiffeners will yield a lower value of k and a corresponding lower value of the flange nominal flexural resistance. Eq. [\(6.198\)](#) and [\(6.199\)](#), or alternatively Eq. [\(6.205\)](#), allow the Engineer to match the required stiffener size to the required flange resistance rather than always providing the largest stiffener(s) required to obtain a k value equal to 4.0.

Longitudinal flange stiffeners are best discontinued at field splice locations, particularly when the span balance is such that the box flange on the other side of the field splice need not be stiffened. To accomplish this successfully, the flange splice plates must be split to allow the stiffener to be taken to the free edge of the flange where the flange normal stress is zero. The compressive resistance of the unstiffened box flange on the other side of the splice should be checked. Otherwise, if the stiffener must be discontinued in a region subject to a net tensile stress, determined as specified

in Article [6.6.1.2.1](#), the termination of the stiffener-to-flange weld must be checked for fatigue according to the terminus detail.

Where it becomes necessary to run the stiffener beyond the field splice, splicing the stiffener across the field splice is recommended.

6.20.35. Commentary on Article [6.11.11.2](#) "Longitudinal Compression-Flange Stiffeners"

Eq. [\(6.204\)](#) is intended to prevent local buckling of the projecting elements of the longitudinal flange stiffener.

For structural tees, b_ℓ should be taken as one-half the width of the flange.

Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) for the required longitudinal flange stiffener moment of inertia, I_ℓ , is an approximate expression that within its range of applicability yields values of the elastic critical flange buckling stress close to those obtained by use of the exact but cumbersome equations of elastic stability (Timoshenko and Gere, 1961). The required size of the stiffener increases as the panel becomes smaller since the buckling resistance of the panels increases as the panels become smaller.

The actual longitudinal flange stiffener moment of inertia, I_s , used in determining the plate-buckling coefficient for uniform normal stress, k , from either Eq. [\(6.198\)](#) or [\(6.199\)](#), as applicable, automatically satisfies Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) when that value of k is used since the equations for k are derived directly from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#).

Alternatively, a k value can be assumed in lieu of using Eq. [\(6.198\)](#) or [\(6.199\)](#). k can take any value ranging from 1.0 to 4.0. However, a value of k ranging from 2.0 to 4.0 generally should be assumed. The minimum required moment of inertia for each longitudinal flange stiffener that will provide the assumed value of k can then be determined from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#).

Where required, the number of longitudinal flange stiffeners should preferably not exceed one for maximum economy in boxes of typical proportions.

Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) assumes that the box flange plate and the stiffeners are infinitely long and ignores the effect of any transverse bracing or stiffening. Thus, when n exceeds 1, the required moment of inertia from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) begins to increase dramatically. When n exceeds 2, for which the value of ψ equals $0.07k^3n^4$, the required moment of inertia from Eq. [\(6.205\)](#) becomes nearly impractical.

For rare cases where an exceptionally wide box flange is required and n may need to exceed 2, it is suggested that transverse flange stiffeners be considered to reduce the required size of the longitudinal flange stiffeners to a more practical value. The use of transverse flange stiffeners might also be considered for the case where n equals 2 if a k value greater than about 2.5 is needed and it is desired to reduce the required size of the longitudinal stiffeners over that given by Eq. [\(6.205\)](#).

The specified minimum yield strength of the transverse flange stiffeners should not be less than the specified minimum yield strength of the box flange. Individual structural tees can be used as transverse flange stiffeners, and/or a bottom strut, provided within the internal transverse bracing of the box and satisfying the requirements of Article [6.11.5](#), can serve as a transverse flange stiffener if the strut also satisfies the stiffness requirement given by Eq. [\(D6.16\)](#). In either case, the transverse flange stiffeners should be attached to the longitudinal flange stiffeners by bolting. The connection to each longitudinal stiffener should be designed to resist the following vertical force:

$$F_s = \frac{\phi_f F_{ys} S_s}{nb_{fc}} \quad (D6.13)$$

where:

ϕ_f = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article 6.5.4.2

F_{ys} = specified minimum yield strength of the transverse flange stiffener (MPa)

S_s = section modulus of the transverse flange stiffener (mm³)

Individual structural tees serving as transverse flange stiffeners should also be attached to the webs of the box.

The connection of transverse flange stiffeners to each web should be designed to resist the following vertical force:

$$F_w = \frac{\phi_f F_{ys} S_s}{2b_{fc}} \quad (D6.14)$$

For the exceptional case where transverse flange stiffeners are deemed necessary, the constant ψ in Eq. (6.205) is to be taken as 8.0 in determining the required moment of inertia of the longitudinal flange stiffeners. n in this case should preferably not exceed five. The longitudinal spacing of the transverse flange stiffeners should not exceed three times the full width of the box flange, b_{fc} in order for the transverse stiffeners to be considered effective. The plate-buckling coefficient, k , for uniform normal stress to be used in the equations of Article 6.11.8.2.2 in lieu of k determined Eq. (6.198) or (6.199) may then be taken as follows:

$$k = \frac{\left[1 + (a/b_{fc})^2\right]^2 + 87.3}{(n+1)^2 (a/b_{fc})^2 [1 + 0.1(n+1)]} \leq 4.0 \quad (D6.15)$$

where:

a = longitudinal spacing of the transverse flange stiffeners (mm)

Transverse flange stiffeners spaced at a distance less than or equal to $4w$ will provide a k of approximately 4.0 according to Eq. (D6.15) when n does not exceed 5. When the k value from Eq. (D6.15) is used, the moment of inertia, I_t , of each transverse flange stiffener about an axis through its centroid and parallel to its bottom edge must satisfy:

$$I_t \geq 0.1(n+1)^3 w^3 \frac{f_s A_f}{E a} \quad (D6.16)$$

where:

A_f = area of the box flange including the longitudinal flange stiffeners (mm²)

F_s = largest of the longitudinal flange stresses due to the factored loads in the panels on either side of the transverse flange stiffener under consideration (MPa)

Structural tees are preferred for longitudinal flange stiffeners because a tee provides a high ratio of stiffness to cross-sectional area. Tees also minimize the potential for lateral torsional buckling of the stiffeners. Using less efficient flat bars as stiffeners is an undesirable alternative. Since the longitudinal flange stiffeners are primary load carrying members, the specified minimum yield strength of the stiffeners must not be less than the specified minimum yield strength of the box flange to which they are attached. Tees may not be available in higher grades of steel. In these cases, tees can either be fabricated from plates or bars cut from plate.

Longitudinal flange stiffeners should be continuous through internal diaphragms. Consideration should be given to attaching longitudinal flange stiffeners to the internal diaphragms. Tees may be conveniently attached to the diaphragms with a pair of clip angles.

For the cases specified in Article [6.11.5](#) where transverse bending stresses due to cross-section distortion are to be considered for fatigue, it may be necessary in certain situations to consider providing bottom transverse bracing members as part of the internal cross-frames to control distortion of the box flange and reduce the transverse bending stress ranges in the flange. Where longitudinal flange stiffeners are used, the transverse member is to be attached to the longitudinal stiffeners by bolting. As discussed previously in this Article, bottom transverse bracing members and/or individual transverse flange stiffeners attached to the longitudinal flange stiffeners may also be necessary in the unusual case of an exceptionally wide box flange. For all other cases, additional transverse stiffening of box flanges is not required. It should be emphasized that bottom transverse bracing members and their connections, where provided, need not satisfy the requirements of Eqs. [\(D6.13\)](#), [\(D6.14\)](#) and [\(D6.16\)](#), unless the k value from Eq. [\(D6.15\)](#) is utilized in the design of the box flange.

6.20.36. Commentary on Article [6.13.2.7](#) "Shear Resistance"

The nominal resistance in shear is based upon the observation that the shear strength of a single high-strength bolt is about 0.60 times the tensile strength of that bolt ([Kulak et al., 1987](#)). However, in shear connections with more than two bolts in the line of force, deformation of the connected material causes nonuniform bolt shear force distribution so that the strength of the connection in terms of the average bolt strength decreases as the joint length increases. Rather than provide a function that reflects this decrease in average fastener strength with joint length, a single reduction factor of 0.80 was applied to the 0.60 multiplier. This accommodates bolts in joints up to 1270 mm in length without seriously affecting the economy of very short joints. The nominal shear resistance of bolts in joints longer than 1270 mm must be further reduced by an additional 20 percent. Studies have shown that the allowable stress factor of safety against shear failure ranges from 3.3 for compact, i.e., short, joints to approximately 2.0 for joints with an overall length in excess of 1270 mm. It is of interest to note that the longest and often the most important joints had the lowest factor, indicating that a factor of safety of 2.0 has proven satisfactory in service ([Kulak et al., 1987](#)). For flange splices, the 1270-mm length is to be measured between the extreme bolts on only one side of the connection.

The average value of the nominal resistance for bolts with threads in the shear plane has been determined by a series of tests to be $0.833(0.6F_{ub})$, with a standard deviation of 0.03 ([Yura et al., 1987](#)). A value of about 0.80 was selected for the specification formula based upon the area corresponding to the nominal body area of the bolt.

The shear strength of bolts is not affected by pretension in the fasteners, provided that the connected material is in contact at the faying surfaces.

The factored resistance equals the nominal shear resistance multiplied by a resistance factor less than that used to determine the factored resistance of a component.

This ensures that the maximum strength of the bridge is limited by the strength of the main members rather than by the connections.

The absence of design strength provisions specifically for the case where a bolt in double shear has a nonthreaded shank in one shear plane and a threaded section in the other shear plane is because of the uncertainty of manner of sharing the load between the two shear areas. It also recognizes that knowledge about the bolt placement, which might leave both shear planes in the threaded section, is not ordinarily available to the designer.

The threaded length of an A 307 bolt is not as predictable as that of a high-strength bolt. The requirement to use Eq. (6.235) reflects that uncertainty.

A 307 bolts with a long grip tend to bend, thus reducing their resistance.

6.20.37. Commentary on Article 6.13.2.8 "Slip Resistance"

Extensive data developed through research has been statistically analyzed to provide improved information on slip probability of connections in which the bolts have been preloaded to the requirements of Table 6.16. Two principal variables, bolt pretension and coefficient of friction, i.e., the surface condition factor of the faying surfaces, were found to have the greatest effect on the slip resistance of connections.

Hole size factors less than 1.0 are provided for bolts in oversize and slotted holes because of their effects on the induced tension in bolts using any of the specified installation methods. In the case of bolts in long-slotted holes, even though the slip load is the same for bolts loaded transverse or parallel to the axis of the slot, the values for bolts loaded parallel to the axis have been further reduced, based upon judgment, because of the greater consequences of slip.

The criteria for slip resistance are for the case of connections subject to a coaxial load. For cases in which the load tends to rotate the connection in the plane of the faying surface, a modified formula accounting for the placement of bolts relative to the center of rotation should be used (Kulak et al., 1987).

The required tension specified for M164M (ASTM A 325M) bolts larger than M24 reflects an update from the ISO specification that lists identical material properties for the size range from M16 to M36. This update has not yet been applied to the customary U.S. Specifications.

The minimum bolt tension values given in Table 6.16 are equal to 70 percent of the minimum tensile strength of the bolts. The same percentage of the tensile strength has been traditionally used for the required tension of the bolts.

The effect of ordinary paint coatings on limited portions of the contact area within joints and the effect of overspray over the total contact area have been investigated experimentally (Polyzois and Frank, 1986).

The tests demonstrated that the effective area for transfer of shear by friction between contact surfaces was concentrated in an annular ring around and close to the bolts. Paint on the contact surfaces approximately 25 mm, but not less than the bolt diameter away from the edge of the hole did not reduce the slip resistance. On the other

hand, bolt pretension might not be adequate to completely flatten and pull thick material into tight contact around every bolt. Therefore, these Specifications require that all areas between bolts also be free of paint.

On clean mill scale, this research found that even the smallest amount of overspray of ordinary paint, i.e., a coating not qualified as Class A, within the specified paint free area, reduced the slip resistance significantly. On blast-cleaned surfaces, the presence of a small amount of overspray was not as detrimental. For simplicity, these Specifications prohibit any overspray from areas required to be free of paint in slip-critical joints, regardless of whether the surface is clean mill scale or blast-cleaned.

The mean value of slip coefficients from many tests on clean mill scale, blast-cleaned steel surfaces and galvanized and roughened surfaces were taken as the basis for the three classes of surfaces. As a result of research by Frank and Yura (1981), a test method to determine the slip coefficient for coatings used in bolted joints was developed (A1Se, 1988). The method includes long-term creep test requirements to ensure reliable performance for qualified paint coatings. The method, which requires requalification if an essential variable is changed, is the sale basis for qualification of any coating to be used under these Specifications. Further, normally only two categories of surface conditions for paints to be used in slip-critical joints are recognized: Class A for coatings that do not reduce the slip coefficient below that provided by clean mill scale, and Class B for paints that do not reduce the slip coefficient below that of blast-cleaned steel surfaces.

To cover those cases where a coefficient of friction less than 0.33 might be adequate, the Specification provides that, subject to the approval of the Engineer, and provided that the mean slip coefficient is determined by the specified test procedure, faying surface coatings providing lower slip resistance than Class A coating may be used. It should be noted that both Class A and Class B coatings are required to be applied to blast-cleaned steel.

The research cited in the preceding paragraph also investigated the effect of varying the time from coating the faying surfaces to assembly to ascertain if partially cured paint continued to cure. It was found that all curing ceased at the time the joint was assembled and tightened and that paint coatings that were not fully cured acted as lubricant.

Thus, the slip resistance of the joint was severely reduced. On galvanized faying surfaces, research has shown that the slip factor of galvanized surfaces is significantly improved by treatments, such as hand wire brushing or light "brush-off" grit blasting (Birkemoe and Herrschaji, 1970). In either case, the treatment must be controlled in order to achieve the necessary roughening or scoring.

Power wire brushing is unsatisfactory because it tends to polish rather than roughen the surface.

Tests on surfaces that were wire-brushed after galvanizing have indicated an average value of the slip coefficient equal to 0.35 (Kulak et al., 1987). Untreated surfaces with normal zinc have much smaller slip coefficients. Even though the slip coefficient for Class C surfaces is the same as for Class A surfaces, a separate class is retained to avoid potential confusion. The higher value of the slip coefficient equal to 0.40 in previous specifications assumes that the surface has been blast cleaned after galvanizing, which is not the typical practice. Field experience and test results have indicated that galvanized members may have a tendency to continue to slip under sustained loading (Kulak et al., 1987). Tests of hot-dip galvanized joints subject to sustained loading show a creep-type behavior.

Treatments to the galvanized faying surfaces prior to assembly of the joint that caused an increase in the slip resistance under short-duration loads did not significantly improve the slip behavior under sustained loading.

Where hot-dip galvanized coatings are used, and especially if the joint consists of many plies of thickly coated material, relaxation of bolt tension may be significant and may require retensioning of the bolts subsequent to the initial tightening. This loss may be allowed for in design or pretension may be brought back to the prescribed level by a retightening of the bolts after an initial period of "settling-in."

While slip-critical connections with bolts pretensioned to the levels specified in [Table 6.16](#) do not ordinarily slip into bearing when subject to anticipated loads, it is required that they meet the requirements of Article [6.13.2.7](#) and Article [6.13.2.9](#) in order to maintain a factor of safety of 2.0, if the bolts slip into bearing as a result of large, unforeseen loads.

6.20.38. Commentary on Article [6.13.6.1.4.a](#) "Flexural Members General"

For a flexural member, it is recommended that the smaller section at the point of splice be taken as the side of the splice that has the flange with the smallest nominal flexural resistance.

Bolted splices located in regions of stress reversal near points of dead-load contra-flexure must be checked for both positive and negative flexure to determine the governing condition.

To ensure proper alignment and stability of the girder during construction, web and flange splices are not to have less than two rows of bolts on each side of the joint. Also, oversize or slotted holes are not permitted in either the member or the splice plates at bolted splices of flexural members for improved geometry control during erection and because a strength reduction may occur when oversize or slotted holes are used in eccentrically loaded bolted web connections.

Also, for improved geometry control, bolted connections for both web and flange splices are to be proportioned to prevent slip under the maximum actions induced during the erection of the steel and during the casting of the concrete deck.

At the following sections with holes in the tension flange:

- Compact composite sections in positive flexure in straight bridges;
- Straight composite I-sections in negative flexure or straight noncomposite I-sections with compact or noncompact webs designed according to the provisions of Article [6.17](#),

for which the nominal flexural resistance is permitted to exceed the moment at first yield at the strength limit state, it has not yet been fully documented that complete plastification of the cross-section can occur prior to fracture on the net section of the tension flange. Furthermore, the splice design provisions of this Article do not consider the contribution of substantial web yielding to the flexural resistance of the sections listed above. Therefore, the factored flexural resistance of the tension flange at cross-sections with holes at the strength limit state or for constructability is conservatively limited to be less than or equal to the specified minimum yield stress of the tension flange according to the provisions of Article [6.10.1.8](#). As a result, this requirement will likely prevent bolted splices from being located in these sections at or near points of

maximum applied moment where significant yielding of the web, beyond the localized yielding of the web permitted in hybrid members, is allowed at the strength limit state.

Splices for flexural members have typically been designed in the past by treating the flanges and web of the girder as individual components and then proportioning a calculated design moment for the splice to each component. However, for composite sections, superposition of moments does not apply when at elastic stress levels because the moments are applied to different sections, whereas superposition of stresses is valid. Thus, the use of flexural stresses to compute the actions necessary to design the splice is preferred.

Fatigue of the base metal adjacent to the slip critical connections in the splice plates may be checked as specified in [Table 6.3](#) using the gross section of the splice plates and member.

However, the areas of the flange and web splice plates will often equal or exceed the areas of the flange and web to which they are attached. The flanges and web are checked separately for either equivalent or more critical fatigue category details. Therefore, fatigue will generally not govern the design of the splice plates.

6.20.39. Commentary on Article [6.13.6.1.4.b](#) "Web Splices"

Eqs. [\(6.255\)](#) and [\(6.256\)](#) provide a more consistent design shear to be used for designing web splice plates and their connections at the strength limit state than that given in past editions of the Standard Specifications and the First Edition of the **LRFD Specifications**. Eq. [\(6.255\)](#) arbitrarily limits the increase in the shear at the point of splice to 50 percent of the shear due to the factored loading, V_u where V_u is less than 50 percent of the factored shear resistance, $V_r = \phi_v V_n$ at the point of splice. The increase in the shear is limited to 50 percent of V_u because the possibilities for V_u to change from its calculated value are less than for moment; large unintended shifts in the shear at the splice are unlikely. In addition, the maximum shear is usually not concurrent with the maximum moment at the splice. Thus, the use of a lower value of the design shear in regions where the applied shear is low is deemed reasonable. A lower value of the design shear is also more reasonable for rolled beams, which have significantly higher values of factored shear resistance. For cases where V_u is greater than 50 percent of V_r , the design shear is determined from Eq. [\(6.256\)](#) as the average of V_u and V_r . For checking slip of the bolted connections, the design shear is simply taken as the shear at the point of splice under Load Combination Service II defined in [Table 3.1](#). The web with the smallest nominal shear resistance on either side of the splice should be used to determine the design shear.

Web splices are also to be designed for the moment due to the eccentricity of the design shear. The eccentricity is explicitly defined as the distance from the centerline of the splice to the centroid of the connection on the side of the joint under consideration rather than the distance between the centroids of the connections on each side of the joint (**Sheikh-Ibrahim and Frank, 1998**).

Many different approaches have been used to determine the proportion of the total flexural moment carried by the web at the point of splice, which have not always led to consistent results. For reasons discussed below, it is suggested that the portion of the flexural moment assumed to be resisted by the web be applied at the middepth of the web. As a result, at sections where the neutral axis is not at the middepth of the web, a horizontal force resultant must also be applied at the middepth of the web to establish equilibrium. This horizontal force resultant may be assumed distributed equally to all web bolts. The following equations are suggested to determine a design moment, M_{uw} ,

and a design horizontal force resultant, H_{uw} , to be applied at the middepth of the web for designing the web splice plates and their connections at the strength limit state:

$$M_{uw} = \frac{t_w D^2}{12} |R_h F_{cf} - R_{cf} f_{ncf}| \quad (D6.17)$$

$$M_{uw} = \frac{t_w D}{12} |R_h F_{cf} - R_{cf} f_{ncf}| \quad (D6.18)$$

where:

- t_w = web thickness of the smaller section at the point of splice (mm)
- D = web depth of the smaller section at the point of splice (mm)
- R_h = hybrid factor specified in Article 6.10.1.10.1. For hybrid sections in which F_{cf} does not exceed the specified minimum yield strength of the web, the hybrid factor shall be taken as 1.0
- F_{cf} = design stress for the controlling flange at the point of splice specified in Article 6.13.6.1.4.c; positive for tension, negative for compression (MPa)
- R_{cf} = the absolute value of the ratio of F_{cf} to the maximum flexural stress, f_{cf} , due to the factored loads at the midthickness of the controlling flange at the point of splice, as defined in Article 6.13.6.1.4.c
- f_{ncf} = flexural stress due to the factored loads at the midthickness of the noncontrolling flange at the point of splice concurrent with F_{cf} , positive for tension, negative for compression (MPa)

In Eqs. (D6.17) and (D6.18), it is suggested that M_{uw} and H_{uw} be computed by conservatively using the stresses at the midthickness of the flanges. By utilizing the stresses at the midthickness of the flanges, the same stress values can be used for the design of both the web and flange splices, which simplifies the calculations. As an alternate, however, the stresses at the inner fibers of the flanges can be used. In either case, the stresses are to be computed considering the application of the moments due to the appropriate factored loadings to the respective cross-sections supporting those loadings. In Eqs. (D6.17) and (D6.18), the concurrent flexural stress at the midthickness of the noncontrolling flange is factored up in the same proportion as the flexural stress in the controlling flange in order to satisfy the general design requirements of Article 6.13.1.

The controlling and noncontrolling flanges are defined in Article 6.13.6.1.4.c.

The stresses in Eqs. (D6.17) and (D6.18) are to be taken as signed quantities. For convenience, absolute value signs are applied to the resulting difference of the stresses in Eq. (D6.17). In actuality, the sign of M_{uw} corresponds to the sign of the flexural moment for the loading condition under consideration. H_{uw} in Eq. (D6.18) is taken as a signed quantity; positive for tension, negative for compression.

For sections where the neutral axis is located at the mid-depth of the web, H_{uw} will equal zero. For all other sections, M_{uw} and H_{uw} applied together will yield a combined stress distribution equivalent to the unsymmetrical stress distribution in the web.

Eqs. (D6.17) and (D6.18) can also be used to compute values of M_{uw} and H_{uw} to be used when checking for slip of the web bolts. However, the following substitutions must first be made in both equations:

- replace F_{cf} with the maximum flexural stress, f_s , due to Load Combination Service II at the midthickness of the flange under consideration for the smaller section at the point of splice,
- replace f_{ncf} with the flexural stress, f_{os} , due to Load Combination Service II at the midthickness of the other flange at the point of splice concurrent with j, in the flange under consideration, and
- set the factors R_h and R_{cf} equal to 1.0. It is not necessary to determine a controlling and noncontrolling flange when checking for slip.

The same sign convention applies to the stresses.

In areas of stress reversal, M_{uw} and H_{uw} must be computed independently for both positive and negative flexure in order to determine the governing condition. For web splices not in an area of stress reversal, M_{uw} and H_{uw} need only be computed for the loading condition causing the maximum flexural stress in the controlling flange at the strength limit state or in the flange under consideration for Load Combination Service II.

An alternative approach for compact steel sections whereby all the flexural moment is assumed to be resisted by the flange splices, provided the flanges are capable of resisting the design moment, is presented by [Sheikh-Ibrahim and Frank \(1998,2001\)](#). This method is only to be applied at the strength limit state; slip of the bolts should still be checked using the conventional approach. Should the flanges not be capable of resisting the full design moment, the web splice is assumed to resist the additional flexural moment in addition to the design shear and the moment due to the eccentricity of the design shear.

For bolt groups subject to eccentric shear, a traditional approach is often used in which the bolt group is subjected to a concentric shear and a centroidal moment. A vector analysis is performed assuming there is no friction and that the plates and bolts are elastic ([AISC, 2001](#)). The use of this traditional elastic approach is preferred over the ultimate strength approach given in [AISC \(2001\)](#), in which an empirical load-deformation relationship of an individual bolt is considered, because it provides a more consistent factor of safety.

To effectively utilize the traditional elastic approach to compute the maximum resultant bolt force, all actions should be applied at the middepth of the web and the polar moment of inertia of the bolt group, I_p , should be computed about the centroid of the connection. Shifting the polar moment of inertia of the bolt group to the neutral axis of the composite section, which is typically not at the middepth of the web, may cause the bolt forces to be underestimated unless the location of the neutral axis is computed from the summation of the stresses due to the appropriate loadings acting on the respective cross-sections supporting the loadings.

Therefore, to simplify the computations and avoid possible errors, it is recommended that all calculated actions in the web be applied at the middepth of the web for the design of the splice. The following formula ([AISC, 1963](#)) may then be used to compute I_p about the centroid of the connection:

$$I_p = \frac{nm}{12} \left[s^2 (n^2 - 1) + g^2 (m^2 - 1) \right] \quad (D6.19)$$

where:

- m = number of vertical rows of bolts
 n = number of bolts in one vertical row
 s = vertical pitch (mm)
 g = horizontal pitch (mm)

When checking the bearing resistance of the web at bolt holes, the resistance of an outermost hole, calculated using the clear edge distance, can conservatively be checked against the maximum resultant force acting on the extreme bolt in the connection. This check is conservative since the resultant force acts in the direction of an inclined distance that is larger than the clear edge distance. Should the bearing resistance be exceeded, it is recommended that the edge distance be increased slightly in lieu of increasing the number of bolts or thickening the web. Other options would be to calculate the bearing resistance based on the inclined distance or to resolve the resultant force in the direction parallel to the edge distance. In cases where the bearing resistance of the web splices plate's controls, the smaller of the clear edge or end distance on the splice plates can be used to compute the bearing resistance of the outermost hole.

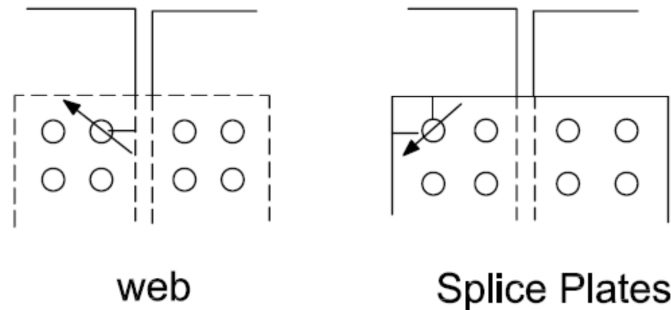


Figure 6.14: Critical Locations for Outermost Holes.

Web splice plates are to be symmetrical on each side of the web and are to extend as near as practical to the full depth of the web between flanges without impinging on bolt assembly clearances. The required bolt assembly clearances are given in [AISC \(2001\)](#).

6.20.40. Commentary on Article [6.13.6.1.4.c](#) "Flange Splices"

Eq. [\(6.257\)](#) defines a design stress to be multiplied by the smaller effective flange area on either side of the splice in order to determine a design force for the splice on the controlling flange at the strength limit state.

The design stress is based on the general design requirements specified in Article [6.13.1](#). The use of the effective flange area ensures that fracture on the net section of the tension flange will theoretically be prevented at the splice. The smaller value of the effective flange area on either side of the splice is used to determine the flange design force to ensure that the design force does not exceed the factored resistance of the smaller flange.

The controlling flange is defined as either the top or bottom flange for the smaller section at the point of splice, whichever flange has the maximum ratio of the elastic flexural stress at its mid-thickness due to the factored loads for the loading condition under investigation to its factored flexural resistance. The other flange is termed the

noncontrolling flange. In areas of stress reversal, the splice must be checked independently for both positive and negative flexure. For composite sections in positive flexure, the controlling flange is typically the bottom flange. For sections in negative flexure, either flange may qualify as the controlling flange.

The factor α in Eq. (6.257) is generally taken as 1.0, except that a lower value equal to the ratio of F_n to F_{yf} may be used for flanges where F_n is less than F_{yf} . Potential cases include bottom flanges of I-sections in compression, or bottom box flanges in compression or tension at the point of splice. In these cases, the calculated F_n of the flange at the splice may be significantly below F_{yf} making it overly conservative to use F_{yf} in Eq. (6.257) to determine the flange design force for designing the splice. For I-section flanges in compression, the reduction in F_n below F_{yf} is typically not as large as for box flanges. Thus, for simplicity, a conservative value of α equal to 1.0 may be used for this case even though the specification would permit the use of a lower value.

Eq. (6.259) defines a design stress for the noncontrolling flange at the strength limit state. In Eq. (6.259), the flexural stress at the midthickness of the noncontrolling flange, concurrent with the stress in the controlling flange, is factored up in the same proportion as the flexural stress in the controlling flange in order to satisfy the general design requirements of Article 6.13.1. However, as a minimum, the factored-up stress must be equal to or greater than $0.75\alpha \phi F_{yf}$.

Eq. (6.261) defines a design stress to be used to compute a flange design force for checking slip of the bolts under Load Combination Service II given in Table 3.1. Since net section fracture is not a concern when checking for slip under this load combination, the smaller gross flange area on either side of the splice is used to compute the design force. When checking the slip resistance, the use of a Class B surface condition is recommended unless:

- Class A coatings are applied,
- unpainted clean mill scale is left on the faying surface, or
- the coating has not been properly tested to show conformance with the requirements for Class B coatings.

Since flanges of hybrid girders are allowed to reach F_{yf} , the applied flexural stress at the midthickness of the flange in Eqs. (6.257), (6.259) and (6.261) is divided by the hybrid factor R_h , instead of reducing F_{yf} by R_h . In actuality, yielding in the web results in an increase in the applied flange stress. When the flange design stress is less than or equal to the specified minimum yield strength of the web, R_h is taken equal to 1.0 since there is theoretically no yielding in the web. The load shedding factor, R_b , is not included in these equations since the presence of the web splice plates precludes the possibility of local web buckling.

Flange splice plates subjected to tension are to be checked for yielding on the gross section, fracture on the net section, and block shear rupture at the strength limit state according to the provisions of Article 6.13.5.2. Block shear rupture will usually not govern the design of splice plates of typical proportion. Flange splice plates subjected to compression at the strength limit state are to be checked only for yielding on the gross section of the plates according to Eq. (6.260). Eq. (6.260) assumes an unbraced length of zero for the splice plates.

For a flange splice with inner and outer splice plates, the flange design force at the strength limit state may be assumed divided equally to the inner and outer plates and

their connections when the areas of the inner and outer plates do not differ by more than ten percent. For this case, the connections would be proportioned assuming double shear. Should the areas of the inner and outer plates differ by more than ten percent, the design force in each splice plate and its connection at the strength limit state should instead be determined by multiplying the flange design force by the ratio of the area of the splice plate under consideration to the total area of the inner and outer splice plates. For this case, the shear resistance of the connection would be checked for the maximum calculated splice-plate force acting on a single shear plane. When checking for slip of the connection for a flange splice with inner and outer splice plates, the slip resistance should always be determined by dividing the flange design force equally to the two slip planes regardless of the ratio of the splice plate areas. Slip of the connection cannot occur unless slip occurs on both planes.

For the box sections cited in this Article, including sections in horizontally curved bridges, longitudinal warping stresses due to cross-section distortion can be significant under construction and service conditions and must therefore be considered when checking the connections of bolted flange splices for slip and for fatigue. The warping stresses in these cases can typically be ignored in checking the top-flange splices once the flange is continuously braced. The warping stresses can also be ignored when checking splices in both the top and bottom flanges at the strength limit state.

For these sections, St. Venant torsional shear must also be considered in the design of box-flange bolted splices at all limit states. St. Venant torsional shears are typically neglected in top flanges of tub sections once the flanges are continuously braced. The bolts for box-flange splices may be designed for the effects of the torsional shear using the traditional elastic vector method that is typically applied in the design of web splices. Depending on the limit state under investigation, the shear on the flange bolt group is assumed caused by either the flange force due to the factored loads, or by the appropriate flange design force, as applicable. The moment on the bolt group is taken as the moment resulting from the eccentricity of the St. Venant torsional shear due to the factored loads, assumed applied at the centerline of the splice. At the strength limit state, a design torsional shear should be used, which can be taken as the torsional shear due to the factored loads need not be multiplied by the factor, R_{cf} from Eq.(6.259), when computing the moment for the design of the splice. The box-flange splice plates in these cases should also be designed at the strength limit state for the combined effects of the appropriate flange force and the moment resulting from the eccentricity of the St. Venant torsional shear due to the factored loads.

In cases for straight girders where flange lateral bending is deemed significant, and for horizontally curved girders, the effects of the lateral bending must be considered in the design of the bolted splices for discretely braced top flanges of tub sections or discretely braced flanges of I-sections. The traditional elastic vector method may also be used in these cases to account for the effects of flange lateral bending on the design of the splice bolts.

The shear on the flange bolt group is assumed caused by the flange force, calculated as described in the preceding paragraph. The flange force is calculated without consideration of the flange lateral bending. The moment on the bolt group is taken as the flange lateral bending moment due to the factored loads. At the strength limit state, the flange lateral bending moment due to the factored loads need not be multiplied by the factor, R_{cf} from Eq.(6.259), when computing the moment for the design of the splice. Splice plates subject to flange lateral bending should also be designed at the strength limit state for the combined effects of the appropriate flange force and the flange lateral

bending moment due to the factored loads. Lateral flange bending can be ignored in the design of top flange splices once the flange is continuously braced.

6.20.41. Commentary on Article 6.13.6.1.5 "Fillers"

Fillers are to be secured by means of additional fasteners so that the fillers are, in effect, an integral part of a shear-connected component at the strength limit state.

The integral connection results in well-defined shear planes and no reduction in the factored shear resistance of the bolts.

In lieu of extending and developing the fillers, the reduction factor given by Eq.(6.262) may instead be applied to the factored resistance of the bolts in shear. This factor compensates for the reduction in the nominal shear resistance of a bolt caused by bending in the bolt and will typically result in the need to provide additional bolts in the connection. The reduction factor is only to be applied on the side of the connection with the fillers. The factor in Eq.(6.262) was developed mathematically (Sheikh-Ibrahim, 2002) and verified by comparison to the results from an experimental program on axially loaded bolted splice connections with undeveloped fillers (Yura, et al., 1982). The factor is more general than a similar factor given in AISC (2005) in that it takes into account the areas of the main connected plate, splice plates and fillers and can be applied to fillers of any thickness. Unlike the empirical AISC factor, the factor given by Eq.(6.262) will typically be less than 1.0 for connections utilizing 6.0-mm thick fillers in order to ensure both adequate shear resistance and limited deformation of the connection.

For slip-critical connections, the factored slip resistance of a bolt at the Load Combination Service II need not be adjusted for the effect of the fillers. The resistance to slip between filler and either connected part is comparable to that which would exist between the connected parts if fillers were not present.

For fillers 6.0 mm or greater in thickness in axially loaded bolted connections, the specified minimum yield strength of the fillers should theoretically be greater than or equal to the specified minimum yield strength of the connected plate times the factor $[1/(1+\gamma)]$ in order to provide fully developed fillers that act integrally with the connected plate. However, such a requirement may not be practical or convenient due to material availability issues.

As a result, premature yielding of the fillers, bolt bending and increased deformation of the connection may occur in some cases at the strength limit state. To control excessive deformation of the connection, a lower limit on the specified minimum yield strength of the filler plate material is recommended for fillers 6.0 mm or greater in thickness. Connections where the fillers are appropriately extended and developed or where additional bolts are provided according to Eq.(6.262) in lieu of extending the fillers, but that does not satisfy the recommended yield strength limit, will still have adequate reserve shear resistance in the connection bolts.

However, such connections will have an increased probability of larger deformations at the strength limit state. For fillers less than 6.0 mm in thickness, the effects of yielding of the fillers and deformation of the connection are considered inconsequential. For applications involving the use of weathering steels, a weathering grade product should be specified for the filler plate material.

6.20.42. Commentary on Article [6.15.2](#) "Structural Resistance"

Due to the nature of pile driving, additional factors must be considered in selection of resistance factors that are not normally accounted for in steel members. The factors considered in development of the specified resistance factors include:

- Unintended eccentricity of applied load about pile axis,
- Variations in material properties of pile, and
- Pile damage due to driving.

These factors are discussed by [Davisson \(1983\)](#).

While the resistance factors specified herein generally conforms to the recommendations given by [Davisson \(1983\)](#), they have been modified to reflect current design philosophy.

The factored compressive resistance, P_r , includes reduction factors for unintended load eccentricity and material property variations, as well as a reduction for potential damage to piles due to driving, which is most likely to occur near the tip of the pile. The resistance factors for computation of the factored axial pile capacity near the tip of the pile are 0.50 to 0.60 and 0.60 to 0.70 for severe and good driving conditions, respectively. These factors include a base axial compression resistance factor ϕ_c equal to 0.90, modified by reduction multipliers of 0.78 and 0.87 for eccentric loading of H-piles and pipe piles, respectively, and reduction multipliers of 0.75 and 0.875 for difficult and moderately difficult driving conditions.

For steel piles, flexure occurs primarily toward the head of the pile. This upper zone of the pile is less likely to experience damage due to driving. Therefore, relative to combined axial compression and flexure, the resistance factor for axial resistance range of $\phi_c = 0.70$ to 0.80 accounts for both unintended load eccentricity and pile material property variations, whereas the resistance factor for flexural resistance of $\phi_f = 1.00$ accounts only for base flexural resistance. This design approach is illustrated on [Figure 6.15](#) which illustrates the depth to fixity as determined by P - Δ analysis.

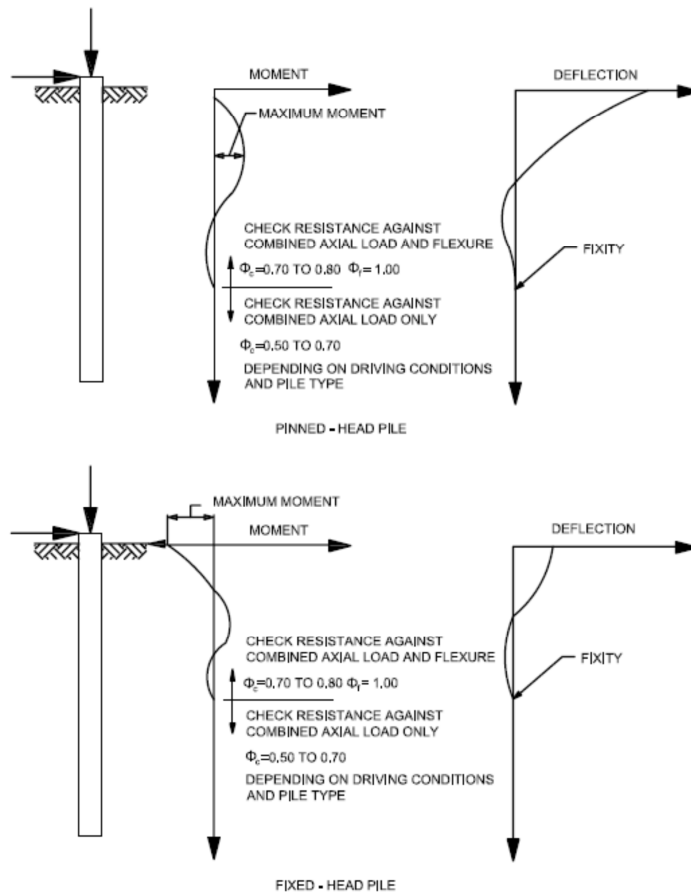


Figure 6.15: Distribution of Moment and Deflection in Vertical Piles Subjected to Lateral Load.

If an unusual situation resulted in significant bending at the pile tip, possible pile damage should be considered in evaluating resistance to combined flexure and axial load.

SECTION 7. DECKS AND DECK SYSTEMS

7.1. SCOPE

This Section contains provisions for the analysis and design of bridge decks and deck systems of concrete, metal or combinations thereof subjected to gravity loads.

For monolithic concrete bridge decks satisfying specific conditions, an empirical design, requiring no analysis, is permitted.

Continuity in the deck and its supporting components is encouraged.

Composite action between the deck and its supporting components is required where technically feasible.

- C Implicit in this Section is a design philosophy that prefers jointless, continuous bridge decks and deck systems to improve the weather and corrosion-resisting effects of the whole bridge, reduce inspection efforts and maintenance costs, and increase structural effectiveness and redundancy.

7.2. DEFINITIONS

Appurtenance : Curbs, parapets, railings, barriers, dividers, and sign and lighting posts attached to the deck.

Arching Action : A structural phenomenon in which wheel loads are transmitted primarily by compressive struts formed in the slab.

Band : A strip of laminated wood deck within which the pattern of butt joints is not repeated.

Bolster : A spacer between a metal deck and a beam.

Bulkhead : A steel element attached to the side of stress laminated timber decks to distribute the prestressing force and reduce the tendency to crush the wood.

Cellular Deck : A concrete deck with void-ratio in excess of 40 percent.

Clear Span : The face-to-face distance between supporting components.

Closed Rib : A rib in an orthotropic deck consisting of a plate forming a trough, welded to the deck plate along both sides of the rib.

Closure Joint : A cast-in-place concrete fill between precast components to provide continuity.

Compatibility : The equality of deformation at the interface of elements and/or components joined together.

Component : A structural element or combination of elements requiring individual design consideration.

Composite Action : A condition in which two or more elements or components are made to act together by preventing relative movement at their interface.

<i>Continuity</i>	: In decks, both structural continuity and the ability to prevent water penetration without the assistance of nonstructural elements.
<i>Core Depth</i>	: The distance between the top of top reinforcement and the bottom of bottom reinforcement in a concrete slab.
<i>Deck</i>	: A component, with or without wearing surface that supports wheel loads directly and is supported by other components.
<i>Deck Joint</i>	: A complete or partial interruption of the deck to accommodate relative movement between portions of a structure.
<i>Deck System</i>	: A superstructure, in which the deck is integral with its supporting components, or in which the effects or deformation of supporting components on the behavior of the deck is significant.
<i>Design Span</i>	: For decks, the center-to-center distance between the adjacent supporting components, taken in the primary direction.
<i>Effective Length</i>	: The span length used in the empirical design of concrete slabs defined in Article 7.7.2.3 .
<i>Elastic</i>	: A structural response in which stress is directly proportional to strain and no deformation remains upon removal of loading.
<i>Equilibrium</i>	: A state where the sum of forces parallel to any axis and the sum of moments about any axis in space are 0.0.
<i>Equivalent Strip</i>	: An artificial linear element, isolated from a deck for the purpose of analysis, in which extreme force effects calculated for a line of wheel loads, transverse or longitudinal, will approximate those actually taking place in the deck.
<i>Extreme</i>	: Maximum or minimum.
<i>Flexural Continuity</i>	: The ability to transmit moment and rotation between components or within a component.
<i>Floor beam</i>	: The traditional name for a cross-beam.
<i>Footprint</i>	: The specified contact area between wheel and roadway surface.
<i>Frame Action</i>	: Transverse continuity between the deck and the webs of cellular cross-section or between the deck and primary components in large bridges.
<i>Glued Laminated Deck Panel</i>	: A deck panel made from wood laminations connected by adhesives.
<i>Governing Position</i>	: The location and orientation of a transient load to cause extreme force effects.
<i>Inelastic</i>	: The structural response in which stress is not directly proportional to strain and deformation may remain upon removal of loading.

<i>Interface</i>	: The location where two elements and/or components are in contact.
<i>Internal Composite Action</i>	: The interaction between a deck and a structural overlay.
<i>Isotropic Plate</i>	: A plate having essentially identical structural properties in the two principal directions.
<i>Isotropic Reinforcement</i>	: Two identical layers of reinforcement, perpendicular to and in touch with each other.
<i>Lateral</i>	: Any horizontal or close to horizontal direction.
<i>Laminated Deck</i>	: A deck consisting of a series of laminated wood elements that are tightly abutted along their edges to form a continuous surface.
<i>Local Analysis</i>	: An in-depth study of strains and stresses in or among components using force effects obtained from global analysis.
<i>Net Depth</i>	: The depth of concrete, excluding the concrete placed in the corrugations of a metal formwork.
<i>Open Grid Floor</i>	: A metal grid floor not filled or covered with concrete.
<i>Open Rib</i>	: A rib in an orthotropic deck consisting of a single plate or rolled section welded to the deck plate.
<i>Orthotropic</i>	: A plate having significantly different structural properties in the two principal directions.
<i>Overfill</i>	: The concrete above the top of the steel grid of filled or partially filled steel grid deck systems.
<i>Partial Composite Action</i>	: A condition in which two or more elements or components are made to act together by decreasing, but not eliminating, relative movement at their interface, or where the connecting elements are too flexible to fully develop the deck in composite action.
<i>Primary Direction</i>	: In isotropic decks: direction of the shorter span; in orthotropic decks: direction of the main load carrying elements.
<i>Secondary Direction</i>	: The direction normal to the primary direction.
<i>Segmental Construction</i>	: A method of building a bridge utilizing match-cast, prefabricated, or cast-in-place concrete segments joined together by longitudinal post-tensioning.
<i>Shear Connector</i>	: A mechanical device that prevents relative movements both normal and parallel to an interface.

<i>Shear Continuity</i>	: A condition where shear and displacement are transmitted between components or within a component.
<i>Shear Key</i>	: A preformed hollow in the side of a precast component filled with grout or a system of match-cast depressions and protrusions in the face of segments that is intended to provide shear continuity between components.
<i>Skew Angle</i>	: The angle between the axis of support relative to a line normal to the longitudinal axis of the bridge, i.e., a 0° skew denotes a rectangular bridge.
<i>Spacing</i>	: Center-to-center distance of elements or components, such as reinforcing bars, girders, bearings, etc.
<i>Stay-in-Place Formwork</i>	: Permanent metal or precast concrete forms that remain in place after construction is finished.
<i>Stiffener Beam</i>	: An unsupported beam attached to the underside of a wood deck to enhance lateral continuity.
<i>Stress Range</i>	: The algebraic difference between extreme stresses.
<i>Structural Overlay</i>	: An overlay bonded to the deck that consists of concretes other than asphaltic concretes.
<i>Tandem</i>	: Two closely spaced and mechanically interconnected axles of equal weight.
<i>Tie-Down</i>	: A mechanical device that prevents relative movement normal to an interface.
<i>Void</i>	: An internal discontinuity of the deck by which its self-weight is reduced.
<i>Voided Deck</i>	: Concrete deck in which the area of the voids does not constitute more than 40 percent of the gross area.
<i>Wheel</i>	: One tire or a pair of tires at one end of an axle.
<i>Wheel Load</i>	: One-half of a specified design axle load.
<i>Wearing Surface</i>	: An overlay or sacrificial layer of the structural deck to protect the structural deck against wear, road salts, and environmental effects. The overlay may include waterproofing.
<i>Yield Line</i>	: A plastic hinge line.
<i>Yield Line Analysis</i>	: A method of determining the load-carrying capacity of a component on the basis of the formation of a mechanism.
<i>Yield Line Method</i>	: A method of analysis in which a number of possible yield line patterns of concrete slabs are examined in order to determine minimum load-carrying capacity.

7.3. NOTATIONS

- A_B = effective bearing area of anchorage bulkhead (mm²)
 A_s = area of steel bar or strand (mm²)
 a = larger of the spacing of the rib webs (mm)
 c = depth of the bottom cutout to accommodate a rib in an orthotropic deck (mm)
 d = effective depth: distance between the outside compressive fiber and the center of gravity of the tensile reinforcement (mm)
 e = clear spacing between closed ribs in orthotropic steel decks (mm)
 F = nominal bearing resistance of wood across the grain (MPa)
 F_r = the out-of-plane flexural stresses in rib webs (MPa)
 h = depth of deck (mm)
 h' = length of the inclined portion of the rib web (mm)
 k = factor representing a distribution of bending moment along a rib
 L = span length from center-to-center of supports
 P_{BU} = factored compressive resistance of the wood under the bulkhead (N)
 P_{pt} = prestressing force per prestressing element (N)
 q = load intensity (MPa)
 R_{sw} = steel-wood ratio
 S = effective span length (mm)
 s = spacing of prestressing bars (mm)
 t = thickness of slab or plate (mm)
 t_d = effective depth of deck plate, including the stiffening effect of surfacing (mm)
 t_r = thickness of rib web (mm)
 ϕ = resistance factor

7.4. GENERAL DESIGN REQUIREMENTS

7.4.1. Interface Action

Decks and open grid floors shall be made composite with their supporting components, unless there are compelling reasons to the contrary. Non-composite decks shall be connected to their supporting components to prevent vertical separation.

C Composite action is recommended to enhance the stiffness and economy of structures.

- C Some decks without shear connectors have historically demonstrated a degree of composite action due to chemical bond and/or friction that cannot be accounted for in structural design.

Shear connectors and other connections between decks, other than open grid floors, and their supporting members shall be designed for force effects calculated on the basis of full composite action, whether or not that composite action is considered in proportioning the primary members. The details for transmitting shear across the interface to metal supporting components shall satisfy the applicable provisions of Article 6.6.

Force effects between the deck and appurtenances or other components shall be accommodated.

- C It is difficult to design and detail a tie-down device that does not attract shear forces due to transient loads, temperature changes, and fluctuation in moisture content. These forces may loosen and/or break such devices, and cause fatigue damage in other parts of the floor system and its connections to main members and to floorbeams in particular.

7.4.2. Deck Drainage

With the exception of unfilled steel grid decks, cross and longitudinal slopes of the deck surface shall be provided as specified in Article 2.7.6.

Structural effects of drainage openings shall be considered in the design of decks.

7.4.3. Concrete Appurtenances

Unless otherwise specified by the Owner, concrete curbs, parapets, barriers, and dividers should be made structurally continuous. Consideration of their structural contribution to the deck should be limited in accordance with the provisions of Article 7.5.1.

- C Experience indicates that the interruption of concrete appurtenances at locations other than deck joints does not serve the intended purpose of stress relief. Large cracks, only a foot or so away from open joints, have been observed in concrete parapets. The structural participation of these components is usually but not always beneficial. One possible negative aspect of continuity is increased cracking in the appurtenance.

7.4.4. Edge Supports

Unless the deck is designed to support wheel loads in extreme positions with respect to its edges, edge supports shall be provided. Nonintegral edge beams shall conform to the provisions of Article 7.7.1.4.

- C If the deck joint hardware is integrated with the deck, it may be utilized as a structural element of the edge beam.

7.4.5. Stay-in-Place Formwork for Overhangs

Stay-in-place formwork, other than that in filled steel decks, shall not be used in the overhang of concrete decks.

7.5. LIMIT STATES

7.5.1. General

The structural contribution of a concrete appurtenance to the deck may be considered for service and fatigue but not for strength or extreme event limit states.

- C Exclusion of contribution of an appurtenance at strength limit state is a safety measure in that advantage is not taken of a component that may be damaged, disconnected, or destroyed by a collision.

For other than the deck overhang, where the conditions specified in Article 7.7.2 are met, a concrete deck may be assumed to satisfy service, fatigue, and fracture and strength limit state requirements and need not meet the other provisions of Article 7.5.

C Article 7.7.2.2 states that the empirical design method does not apply to overhangs.

7.5.2. Service Limit States

At service limit states, decks and deck systems shall be analyzed as fully elastic structures and shall be designed and detailed to satisfy the provisions of Section 5 and Section 6.

The effects of excessive deck deformation¹, including deflection, shall be considered for metal grid decks and other lightweight metal and concrete bridge decks.. For these deck systems, the deflection caused by live load plus dynamic load allowance, shall not exceed the values in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Limits of Deflection in Decks Caused by Live Load plus Dynamic Load Allowance

Description	Limit
Decks with no pedestrian traffic	L/800
Decks with limited pedestrian traffic	L/1000
Decks with significant pedestrian traffic	L/1200

where: L = span length from center-to-center of supports.

- C Deck deformation refers to local dishing at wheel loads, not to overall superstructure deformation.
- C The primary objective of curtailing excessive deck deformation is to prevent breakup and loss of the wearing surface. No overall limit can be specified because such limit is a function of the composition of the wearing surface and the adhesion between the deck and the wearing surface. The limits should be established by testing.
- C Substantial work has been done relating accelerations to user comfort. Acceleration is a function of the fundamental frequency of vibration of the deck on a particular span, and the magnitude of dynamic deflection due to live load. Dynamic deflections are typically 15 percent to 20 percent of static deflections. Analysis shows that static deflections serve well as a proxy for acceleration levels for deck systems.

7.5.3. Fatigue and Fracture Limit State

Fatigue need not be investigated for concrete decks.

- C The provisions that do not require fatigue investigation of certain types of decks are based exclusively on observed performance and laboratory testing.

Metal grid, filled grid, partially filled grid and unfilled grid decks composite with reinforced concrete slabs shall comply with the provisions of Article 4.6.2.1.8 and Article 6.5.3.

Steel grid and steel orthotropic decks shall comply with the provisions of Article 6.5.3.

Concrete decks, other than those in multi-girder application, shall be investigated for the fatigue limit states as specified in Article 5.5.3.

- C A series of 35 pulsating load fatigue tests of model slabs indicate that the fatigue limit for the slabs designed by the conventional AASHTO moment methods was approximately three times the service level. Decks based on the isotropic reinforcement method specified in Article 7.7.2 had fatigue limits of approximately twice the service level (deV Batchelor et al., 1978).

¹ Deck deformation refers to local dishing at wheel loads, not to overall superstructure deformation.

7.5.4. Strength Limit States

At strength limit states, decks and deck systems may be analyzed as either elastic or inelastic structures and shall be designed and detailed to satisfy the provisions of [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#).

- C These Specifications do not permit an unlimited application of inelastic methods of analysis due to the lack of adequate background research. There are, however, well-established inelastic plate analyses whose use is allowed.

7.5.5. Extreme Event Limit States

Decks shall be designed for force effects transmitted by traffic and combination railings using loads, analysis procedures, and limit states specified in [Section 11](#).

Acceptance testing, complying with [Section 11](#), may be used to satisfy this requirement.

7.6. ANALYSIS

7.6.1. Methods of Analysis

Approximate elastic methods of analysis specified in Article [4.6.2.1](#), refined methods specified in Article [4.6.3.2](#), or the empirical design of concrete slabs specified in Article [7.7](#) may be used for various limit states as permitted in Article [7.5](#).

- C Analytical methods presented herein should not be construed as excluding other analytical approaches, provided that they are approved by the Owner.

7.6.2. Loading

Loads, load positions, tire contact area, and load combinations shall be in accordance with the provisions of [Section 3](#).

7.7. CONCRETE DECK SLABS

7.7.1. General

7.7.1.1. Minimum Depth and Cover

Unless approved by the Owner, the depth of a concrete deck, excluding any provision for grinding, grooving, and sacrificial surface, should not be less than 175 mm.

- C For slabs of depth less than 1/20 of the design span, consideration should be given to prestressing in the direction of that span in order to control cracking.
- C Construction tolerances become a concern for thin decks.

Minimum cover shall be in accordance with the provisions of Article [5.10.1](#).

- C Minimum cover requirements are based on traditional concrete mixes and on the absence of protective coating on either the concrete or the steel inside. A combination of special mix design, protective coatings, dry or moderate climate, and the absence of corrosion chemicals may justify a reduction of these requirements provided that the Owner approves.

7.7.1.2. Composite Action

Shear connectors shall be designed in accordance with the provisions of [Section 5](#) for concrete beams and [Section 6](#) for steel beams.

7.7.1.3. Skewed Decks

If the skew angle of the deck does not exceed 25° , the primary reinforcement may be placed in the direction of the skew; otherwise, it shall be placed perpendicular to the main supporting components.

- C The intent of this provision is to prevent extensive cracking of the deck, which may result from the absence of appreciable reinforcement acting in the direction of principal flexural stresses due to a heavily skewed reinforcement, as shown in [Figure 7.1](#).

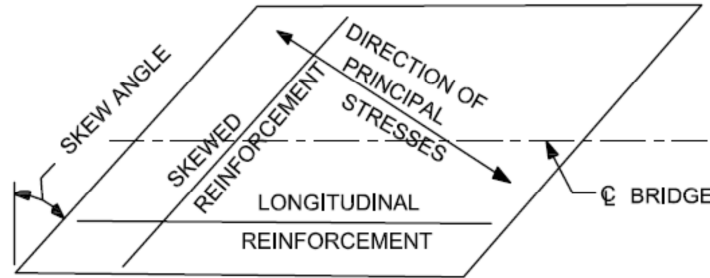


Figure 7.1: Reinforcement Layout in Skewed Decks

- C The somewhat arbitrary 25° limit could affect the area of steel as much as ten percent. This was not taken into account because the analysis procedure and the use of bending moment as a basis of design were not believed to be sufficiently accurate to warrant such an adjustment. Owners interested in making this refinement should also consider one of the refined methods of analysis identified in Article [4.6.3.2](#).

7.7.1.4. Edge Support

Unless otherwise specified, at lines of discontinuity, the edge of the deck shall either be strengthened or be supported by a beam or other line component. The beam or component shall be integrated in or made composite with the deck. The edge beams may be designed as beams whose width may be taken as the effective width of the deck specified in Article [4.6.2.1.4](#).

Where the primary direction of the deck is transverse, and/or the deck is composite with a structurally continuous concrete barrier, no additional edge beam need be provided.

7.7.1.5. Design of Cantilever Slabs

The overhanging portion of the deck shall be designed for railing impact loads and in accordance with the provisions of Article [3.6.1.3.4](#).

- C An acceptable method of analyzing deck overhangs for railing impact loads is presented in the appendix to [Section 11](#).

Punching shear effects at the outside toe of a railing post or barrier due to vehicle collision loads shall be investigated.

- C Any combination of increasing the depth of the slab, employing special reinforcement extending the slab width beyond the railing, and enlarging base plates under railing posts may be utilized to prevent failure due to punching shear.

7.7.2. Empirical Design

7.7.2.1. General

The provisions of Article [7.7.2](#) relate exclusively to the empirical design process for concrete deck slabs supported by longitudinal components and shall not be applied to any other Article in this Section, unless specifically permitted.

- C Extensive research into the behavior of concrete deck slabs discovered that the primary structural action by which these slabs resist concentrated wheel loads is not flexure, as traditionally believed, but a complex internal membrane stress state referred to as internal arching. This action is made possible by the cracking of the concrete in the positive moment region of the design slab and the resulting upward shift of the neutral axis in that portion of the slab. The action is sustained by in-plane membrane forces that develop as a result of lateral confinement provided by the surrounding concrete slab, rigid appurtenances, and supporting components acting compositely with the slab.
- C The arching creates what can best be described as an internal compressive dome, the failure of which usually occurs as a result of overstraining around the perimeter of the wheel footprint. The resulting failure mode is that of punching shear, although the inclination of the fracture surface is much less than 45° due to the presence of large in-plane compressive forces associated with arching. The arching action, however, cannot resist the full wheel load. There remains a small flexural component for which the specified minimum amount of isotropic reinforcement is more than adequate. The steel has a dual purpose: it provides for both local flexural resistance and global confinement required to develop arching effects (Fang, 1985; Holowka et al., 1980).
- C All available test data indicate that the factor of safety of a deck designed by the flexural method specified in the 16th edition of the AASHTO Standard Specifications, working stress design, is at least 10.0. Tests indicate a comparable factor of safety of about 8.0 for an empirical design. Therefore, even the empirical design possesses an extraordinary reserve strength.
- C The design of reinforced concrete decks using the concept of internal arching action within the limits specified herein has been verified by extensive nonlinear finite element analysis (Hewitt and deV Batchelor, 1975; Fang et al., 1990). These analyses are accepted in lieu of project-specific design calculation as a pre-approved basis of design.
- C Slabs with the minimum specified reinforcement have demonstrated nearly complete insensitivity to differential displacement among their supports.

The longitudinal bars of the isotropic reinforcement may participate in resisting negative moments at an internal support in continuous structures.

- C The additional longitudinal reinforcement provided for the slab in the negative moment region of continuous beams and girder-type bridges beyond that required for isotropic reinforcement according to the provisions of Article [7.7.2.5](#) need not be matched in the perpendicular direction. Theoretically, this portion of the deck will be orthotropically reinforced, but this does not weaken the deck.

7.7.2.2. Application

Empirical design of reinforced concrete decks may be used if the conditions set forth in Article [7.7.2.4](#) are satisfied.

The provisions of this Article shall not be applied to overhangs.

The overhang should be designed for:

- Wheel loads for decks with discontinuous railings and barriers using the equivalent strip method,
 - Equivalent line load for decks with continuous barriers specified in Article [3.6.1.3.4](#), and
 - Collision loads using a failure mechanism as specified in Article [11.13.2](#).
- C Although current tests indicated that arching action may exist in the cantilevered overhang of the slab, the available evidence is not sufficient to formulate code provisions for it (Hays et al., 1989).

- C As indicated in Article 7.5.5, acceptance testing complying with Section 11 may be used to satisfy design requirements for deck overhangs.

7.7.2.3. Effective Length

- C Physical tests and analytical investigations indicate that the most important parameter concerning the resistance of concrete slabs to wheel loads is the ratio between the effective length and the depth of the slab.

For the purpose of the empirical design method, the effective length of slab shall be taken as:

- For slabs monolithic with walls or beams: the face-to-face distance, and
- For slabs supported on steel or concrete girders: the distance between flange tips, plus the flange overhang, taken as the distance from the extreme flange tip to the face of the web, disregarding any fillets.

In case of non-uniform spacing of supporting components, the effective length, $S_{\text{effective}}$, shall be taken as the larger of the deck lengths at the two locations shown in Figure 7.2.

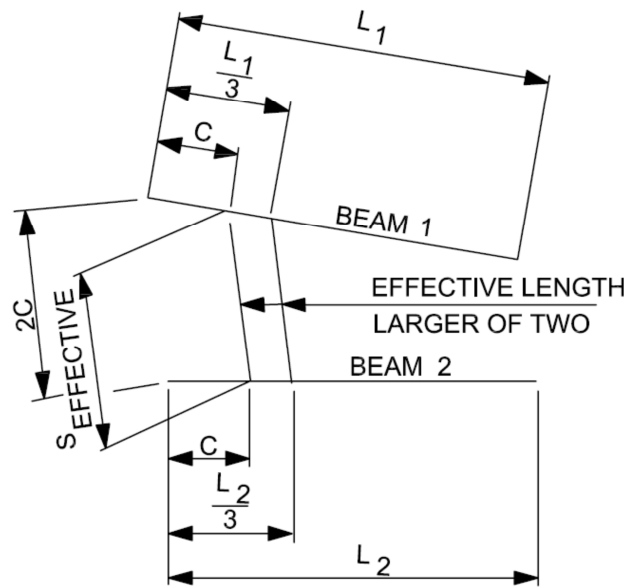


Figure 7.2: Effective Length for Non-uniform Spacing of Beams.

7.7.2.4. Design Conditions

- C Intermediate cross-frames are not needed in order to use the empirical deck design method for cross-sections involving torsionally weak open shapes, such as T- or I-shaped girders.
- C Use of separated, torsionally stiff beams without intermediate diaphragms can give rise to the situation, shown in Figure 7.3, in which there is a relative displacement between beams and in which the beams do not rotate sufficiently to relieve the moment over the webs. This moment may or may not require more reinforcing than is provided by the empirical deck design.

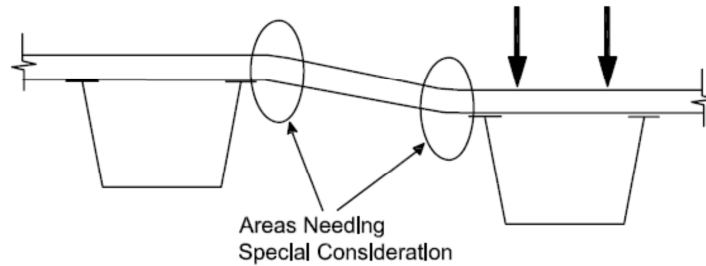


Figure 7.3: Schematic of Effect of Relative Displacements in Torsionally Stiff Cross-Section.

For the purpose of this Article, the design depth of the slab shall exclude the loss that is expected to occur as a result of grinding, grooving, or wear.

The empirical design may be used only if the following conditions are satisfied:

- Cross-frames or diaphragms are used throughout the cross-section at lines of support;
 - For cross-section involving torsionally stiff units, such as individual separated box beams, either intermediate diaphragms between the boxes are provided at a spacing not to exceed 8 m, or the need for supplemental reinforcement over the webs to accommodate transverse bending between the box units is investigated and reinforcement is provided if necessary;
 - The supporting components are made of steel and/or concrete;
 - The deck is fully cast-in-place and water cured;
 - The deck is of uniform depth, except for haunches at girder flanges and other local thickening;
- C All the tests carried out so far were restricted to specimens of uniform depth.
- The ratio of effective length to design depth does not exceed 18.0 and is not less than 6.0;
 - Core depth of the slab is not less than 100 mm;
 - The effective length, as specified in Article [7.7.2.3](#), does not exceed 4100 mm;
- C No experience exists for effective lengths exceeding 4100 mm. The 175-mm depth is considered an absolute minimum with 50-mm cover on top and 25-mm cover on the bottom, providing for a reinforced core of 100 mm, as indicated in [Figure 7.4](#).
- The minimum depth of the slab is not less than 175 mm, excluding a sacrificial wearing surface where applicable;
 - There is an overhang beyond the centerline of the outside girder of at least 5.0 times the depth of the slab; this condition is satisfied if the overhang is at least 3.0 times the depth of the slab and a structurally continuous concrete barrier is made composite with the overhang;
- C The provisions of the [Ontario Highway Bridge Design Code \(1991\)](#), based on model test results, do not permit length-to-depth ratios in excess of 15.0. The larger value of 18.0 is based on recent experiments ([Hays et al., 1989](#)).
- C The intention of the overhang provision is to ensure confinement of the slab between the first and the second beam.
- The specified 28-day strength of the deck concrete is not less than 28.0 MPa;

- C The 28.0-MPa limit is based on the fact that none of the tests included concrete with less than 28.0-MPa strength at 28 days. Many jurisdictions specify 31.0-MPa concrete for ensuring reduced permeability of the deck. On the other hand, tests indicate that resistance is not sensitive to the compressive strength, and 24.0 MPa may be accepted with the approval of the Owner.

- The deck is made composite with the supporting structural components.

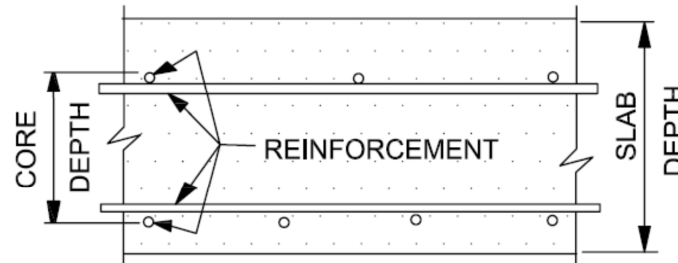


Figure 7.4: Core of a Concrete Slab.

For the purpose of this Article, a minimum of two shear connectors at 600 mm centers shall be provided in the negative moment region of continuous steel superstructures. The provisions of Article [6.10.1.1](#) shall also be satisfied. For concrete girders, the use of stirrups extending into the deck shall be taken as sufficient to satisfy this requirement.

7.7.2.5. Reinforcement Requirements

Four layers of isotropic reinforcement shall be provided in empirically designed slabs. Reinforcement shall be located as close to the outside surfaces as permitted by cover requirements. Reinforcement shall be provided in each face of the slab with the outermost layers placed in the direction of the effective length. The minimum amount of reinforcement shall be $0.570 \text{ mm}^2/\text{mm}$ of steel for each bottom layer and $0.380 \text{ mm}^2/\text{mm}$ of steel for each top layer. Spacing of steel shall not exceed 450 mm. Reinforcing steel shall be Grade 420 or better. All reinforcement shall be straight bars, except that hooks may be provided where required.

- C Prototype tests indicated that 0.2 percent reinforcement in each of four layers based on the effective depth d satisfies strength requirements. However, the conservative value of 0.3 percent of the gross area, which corresponds to about $0.570 \text{ mm}^2/\text{mm}$ in a 190-mm slab, is specified for better crack control in the positive moment area. Field measurements show very low stresses in negative moment steel; this is reflected by the $0.380 \text{ mm}^2/\text{mm}$ requirement, which is about 0.2 percent reinforcement steel. The additional intent of this low amount of steel is to prevent spalling of the deck due to corrosion of the bars or wires.

Both lap splices and mechanical splices shall be allowed. Mechanical splices shall be tested and approved to conform to the limits for slip in Article [5.16.5.2.2](#), Mechanical Couplers, and for fatigue in Article [5.5.3.4](#), Welded or Mechanical Splices of Reinforcement. Sleeve wedge-type couplers shall not be permitted on coated reinforcing.

- C Welded splices are not permitted due to fatigue considerations. Tested and pre-approved mechanical splices may be permitted when lapping of reinforcing is not possible or desirable, as often occurs in staged construction and widenings. Sleeve wedge-type couplers will not be permitted on coated reinforcing due to stripping of the coating.

If the skew angle exceeds 25° , the specified reinforcement in both directions shall be doubled in the end zones of the deck. Each end zone shall be taken as a longitudinal distance equal to the effective length of the slab specified in Article [7.7.2.3](#).

- C The intent of this provision is crack control. Beam slab bridges with a skew angle exceeding 25° have shown a tendency to develop torsional cracks due to differential deflections in the end zone (OHBCD, 1991). The extent of cracking is usually limited to a width that approximates the effective length.

7.7.2.6. Deck with Stay-in-Place Formwork

For decks made with corrugated metal formwork, the design depth of the slab shall be assumed to be the minimum concrete depth.

- C Concrete in the troughs of the corrugated metal deck is ignored due to lack of evidence that it consistently contributes to the strength of the deck. Reinforcement should not be placed directly on corrugated metal formwork.

Stay-in-place concrete formwork shall not be permitted in conjunction with empirical design of concrete slabs.

- C The empirical design is based on a radial confinement around the wheel load, which may be weakened by the inherent discontinuity of the bottom reinforcement at the boundaries between formwork panels. Limited tests carried out on flexurally designed slabs with stay-in-place concrete formwork indicate a punching shear failure mode, but somewhat less resistance than that provided by fully cast-in-place slabs. The reason for this decrease is that the discontinuity between the panels intercepts, and thus prevents, the undisturbed formation of the frustum of a cone where punching shear occurs (Buth et al., 1972).

7.7.3. Traditional Design

7.7.3.1. General

- C The traditional design is based on flexure. The live load force effect in the slab may be determined using the approximate methods of Article 4.6.2.1 or the refined methods of Article 4.6.3.2.

The provisions of this Article shall apply to concrete slabs that have four layers of reinforcement, two in each direction, and that comply with Article 7.7.1.1.

7.7.3.2. Distribution Reinforcement

Reinforcement shall be placed in the secondary direction in the bottom of slabs as a percentage of the primary reinforcement as follows:

- For primary reinforcement parallel to traffic:

$$1750 / \sqrt{S} \leq 50 \text{ percent}$$
- For primary reinforcement perpendicular to traffic:

$$3840 / \sqrt{S} \leq 67 \text{ percent}$$

where S is the effective span length taken as equal to the effective length specified in Article 7.7.2.3 (mm).

7.7.4. Stay-in-Place Formwork

7.7.4.1. General

Stay-in-place formwork shall be designed to be elastic under construction loads. The construction load shall not be taken to be less than the weight of the form and the concrete slab plus 2.4 kN/m².

- C The intent of this Article is to prevent excessive sagging of the formwork during construction, which would result in an unanticipated increase in the weight of the concrete slab.

Flexural stresses due to unfactored construction loads shall not exceed:

- 75 percent of the yield strength of steel, or

- 65 percent of the 28-day compressive strength for concrete in compression or the modulus of rupture in tension for prestressed concrete form panels.

The elastic deformation caused by the dead load of the forms, fresh concrete, and reinforcement shall not exceed the values in [Table 7.2](#):

Table 7.2: Limits of elastic deformation caused by the dead load of the forms, fresh concrete, and reinforcement.

Formwork Span (L)	Allowable deformation
$L \leq 3000 \text{ mm}$	$L / 180 \leq 13 \text{ mm}$
$L > 3000 \text{ mm}$	$L / 240 \leq 20 \text{ mm}$

Note: Deflection limits are specified to ensure adequate cover for reinforcing steel and to account for all dead load in the design.

7.7.4.2. Steel Formwork

- C For steel stay-in-place formwork, it has been common to provide an allowance for the weight of the form and additional concrete, with the provision added to the contract documents that if the allowance is exceeded by the Contractor's choice,

Panels shall be specified to be tied together mechanically at their common edges and fastened to their support. No welding of the steel formwork to the supporting components shall be permitted, unless otherwise shown in the contract documents.

Steel formwork shall not be considered to be composite with a concrete slab.

- C The Contractor is responsible for showing that the effects on the rest of the bridge are acceptable or providing additional strengthening as needed at no cost to the Owner.
- C The customary allowance for the weight of the form and additional concrete has been 7.19×10^{-4} MPa, but this should be reviewed if form spans exceed about 3000 mm.

7.7.4.3. Concrete Formwork

1. Depth

The depth of stay-in-place concrete should neither exceed 55 percent of the depth of the finished deck slab nor be less than 90 mm.

- C Thousands of bridges have successfully been built with a depth ratio of 43 percent or somewhat higher; 55 percent is believed to be a practical limit, beyond which cracking of the cast-in-place concrete at the panel interface may be expected.

2. Reinforcement

Concrete formwork panels may be prestressed in the direction of the design span.

If the precast formwork is prestressed, the strands may be considered as primary reinforcement in the deck slab.

Transfer and development lengths of the strands shall be investigated for conditions during construction and in service.

- C The transfer and development lengths for epoxy-coated strands with alkali-resistant hard particles embedded in the coating may be less than that for uncoated strands. Where epoxy-coated strands are used, this value should be determined by testing.

Prestressing strands and/or reinforcing bars in the precast panel need not be extended into the cast-in-place concrete above the beams.

- C Tests indicate no difference between constructions with and without reinforcement extended into the cast-in-place concrete over the beams (Bieschke and Klingner, 1982). The absence of extended reinforcement, however, may affect transverse load distribution due to a lack of positive moment continuity over the beams or may result in reflective cracking at the ends of the panel. In addition to transverse cracking, which usually occurs at the panel joints due to creep and shrinkage, the latter may appear unseemly and/or make the construction of this type of deck questionable where deicing salts are used.

If used, bottom distribution reinforcement may be placed directly on the top of the panels. Splices in the top primary reinforcement in deck slab shall not be located over the panel joints.

The concrete cover below the strands should not be less than 20 mm.

3. Creep and Shrinkage Control

The age of the panel concrete, at the time of placing the cast-in-place concrete, shall be such that the difference between the combined shrinkage and creep of the precast panel and the shrinkage of the cast-in-place concrete is minimized.

- C The objective of this Article is to minimize interface shear stresses between the precast panel and the cast-in-place concrete and to promote good bond.

The upper surface of the panels shall be specified to be roughened in such a manner as to ensure composite action with the cast-in-place concrete.

- C No bonding agents and/or mechanical connectors are needed for composite action.

4. Bedding of Panels

The ends of the formwork panels shall be supported on a continuous mortar bed or shall be supported during construction in such a manner that the cast-in-place concrete flows into the space between the panel and the supporting component to form a concrete bedding.

- C Setting screws, bituminous fiber boards, neoprene glands, etc., may be appropriate as temporary supports. In the past, some jurisdictions have had bad experience where prestressed concrete panels were supported only by flexible materials. Creep due to prestress had apparently pulled the panel ends away from cast-in-place concrete. Load was transferred to the flexible panel supports, which compressed, resulting in excessive reflective cracking in the cast-in-place concrete.

7.7.5. Precast Deck Slabs on Girders

7.7.5.1. General

Both reinforced and prestressed precast concrete slab panels may be used. The depth of the slab, excluding any provision for grinding, grooving, and sacrificial surface, shall not be less than 175 mm.

7.7.5.2. Transversely Joined Precast Decks

Flexurally discontinuous decks made from precast panels and joined together by shear keys may be used. The design of the shear key and the grout used in the key shall be approved by the Owner. The provisions of Article 7.7.4.3.4 may be applicable for the design of bedding.

- C The shear keys tend to crack due to wheel loads, warping, and environmental effects, leading to leaking of the keys and decreased shear transfer. The relative movement between adjacent panels tends to crack the overlay, if present. Therefore, this construction is not recommended for the regions where the deck may be exposed to salts.

7.7.5.3. Longitudinally Post-Tensioned Precast Decks

The precast components may be placed on beams and joined together by longitudinal post-tensioning. The minimum average effective prestress shall not be less than 1.7 MPa.

- C Decks made flexurally continuous by longitudinal post-tensioning are the more preferred solution because they behave monolithically and are expected to require less maintenance on the long-term basis.

The transverse joint between the components and the block-outs at the coupling of post-tensioning ducts shall be specified to be filled with a non-shrink grout having a minimum compressive strength of 35 MPa at 24 hours.

- C The post-tensioning ducts should be located at the center of the slab cross-section. Block-outs should be provided in the joints to permit the splicing of post-tensioning ducts.
- C Panels should be placed on the girders without mortar or adhesives to permit their movement relative to the girders during prestressing. Panels can be placed directly on the girders or located with the help of shims of inorganic material or other leveling devices. If the panels are not laid directly on the beams, the space therein should be grouted at the same time as the shear connector block-outs.

Block-outs shall be provided in the slab around the shear connectors and shall be filled with the same grout upon completion of post-tensioning.

- C A variety of shear key formations has been used in the past. Recent prototype tests indicate that a "V" joint may be the easiest to form and to fill.

7.7.6. Deck Slabs in Segmental Construction

7.7.6.1. General

The provisions of this Article shall apply to the top slabs of post-tensioned girders whose cross-sections consist of single or multi-cell boxes. The slab shall be analyzed in accordance with the provisions of Article [4.6.2.1.6](#).

7.7.6.2. Joints in Decks

Joints in the decks of precast segmental bridges may be dry joints, epoxied match-cast surfaces, or cast-in-place concrete.

- C Both epoxied match-cast and cast-in-place concrete joints permitted herein should produce water-tight joints

Dry joints should be used only in regions where deicing salts are not applied.

- C Dry joints in the deck, with or without a nonstructural sealant, have been observed to permit percolation of water due to shrinkage as well as creep and temperature-induced warping of segments.

The strength of cast-in-place concrete joints shall not be less than that of the precast concrete. The width of the concrete joint shall permit the development of reinforcement in the joint or coupling of ducts if used, but in no case shall it be less than 300 mm.

- C The 300-mm cast-in-place closure joint is believed to provide a better riding profile if the deck is not overlaid.
- C A combination joint in which only the deck part of a match-cast joint is epoxied should be avoided.

7.8. STEEL DECKS

7.8.1. General

Steel decks shall be designed to satisfy the requirements of [Section 6](#).

The tire contact area shall be determined as specified in Article [3.6.1.2.5](#).

7.8.2. Steel Grid Decks

7.8.2.1. General

Grid deck shall be composed of main elements that span between beams, stringers, or cross-beams and secondary members that interconnect and span between the main elements. The main and secondary elements may form a rectangular or diagonal pattern and shall be securely joined together. All intersections of elements in open grid floors, partially filled grid decks, and unfilled grid decks composite with reinforced concrete slabs shall be welded.

- C Research has shown that welds between elements in partially filled grids "may be very important to the survival of the cross bar" (Gangarao et al., 1992).

Force effects may be determined using one of the following methods:

- The approximate methods specified in Article 4.6.2.1, as applicable;
- Orthotropic plate theory;
- Equivalent grillage; or
- Design aids provided by the manufacturers, if the performance of the deck is documented and supported by sufficient technical evidence.

One of the accepted approximate methods is based on transformed cross-section area. Mechanical shear transfer devices, including indentations, embossment, sand coating of surface, and other appropriate means may be used to enhance the composite action between elements of the grid and the concrete fill.

- C Laboratory tests have shown that section properties of filled and partially filled grids, computed by the transformed area method, are conservative (Gangarao et al., 1992). Tests have also demonstrated that a monolithic concrete overpour may be considered fully effective in determining section properties.

If a filled or partially filled grid deck or an unfilled grid deck composite with reinforced concrete slab is considered to be composite with its supporting members for the purpose of designing those members, the effective width of slab in composite section shall be as specified in Article 4.6.2.6.1.

- C Filled and partially filled grid decks and unfilled grid decks composite with reinforced concrete slabs have better potential for composite action with the supporting components due to their considerable in-plane rigidity.
- C In computing section properties, omit any effect of concrete in tension (i.e., below the neutral axis in positive bending, and above the neutral axis in negative bending).
- C The modular ratios may be applied to the composite action of concrete fill with grid deck in flexure and to the composite action between the deck and its supporting beams.
- C Field tests of systems consisting of unfilled grid decks composite with reinforced concrete slabs and stringers or floorbeams demonstrate significant levels of composite action, with the effective width being at least 12.0 times the overall thickness of the deck, including the grid portion and the structural reinforced concrete slab.

7.8.2.2. Open Grid Floors

Open grid floors shall be connected to the supporting components by welding or by mechanically fastening at each main element. Where welding is used to make this connection, a single-sided 75-mm long weld or a 40.0-mm weld on each side of the main element may be used.

- C Long-term experience indicates that even where there is an apparently insignificant degree of composite action between the deck and its supporting components, high stresses may develop at

their interface, resulting in local failures and separation of the deck. Therefore, the requirement to connect at each intersection of a main bar, as indicated, applies even to open grid floors.

Unless evidence is provided to the contrary, welding within open grid floors should be considered as a Category E¹ detail, and the provisions of Article 6.6 shall apply.

Ends and edges of open grid floors that may be exposed to vehicular traffic shall be supported by closure bars or other effective means.

7.8.2.3. Filled and Partially Filled Grid Decks

1. General

These decks shall consist of a steel grid or other metal structural system filled either completely or partially with concrete.

The provisions of Article 7.8.2.1 shall apply to filled and partially filled grid decks.

Where possible, a 45-mm thick structural overfill should be provided.

Filled and partially filled grids shall be attached to supporting components by welding or shear studs to transfer shear between the two surfaces (see Figure 7.6).

Full-scale tests on systems consisting of partially filled grid decks and stringers demonstrated significant levels of composite action, with the effective width being at least 12.0 times the depth of the deck.

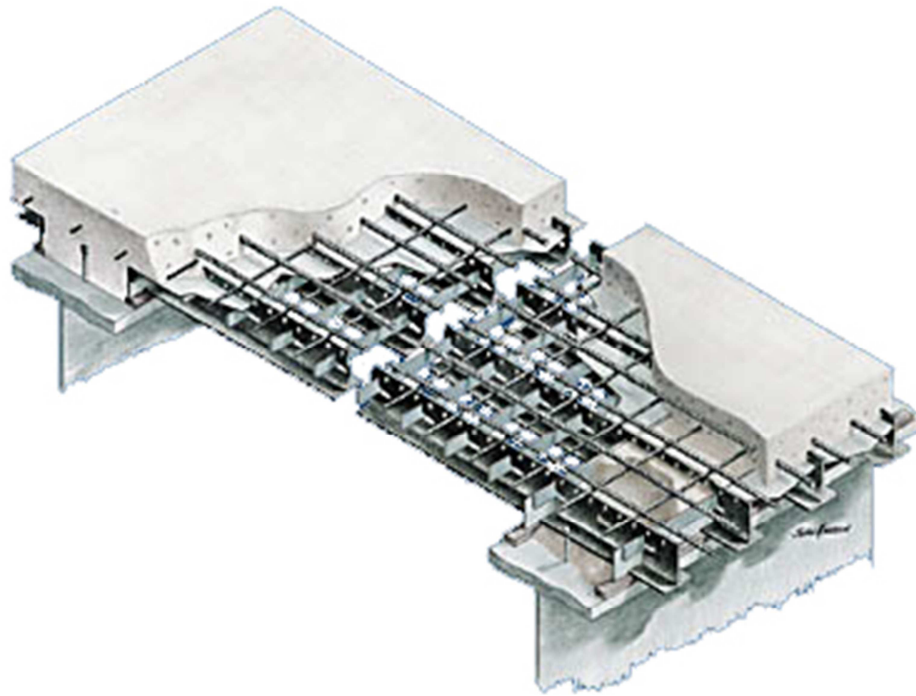


Figure 7.5: Example of Filled Grid Deck Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slab

- C Full-scale tests on systems consisting of partially filled grid decks and stringers demonstrated significant levels of composite action, with the effective width being at least 12.0 times the depth of the deck. Under load, the deck strain readings across the width of the deck were nearly uniform, with extremely small slip recorded at the deck-stringer interface.

¹ Welding Categories are well described in Welding Code (AWS 2008).

- C In order to activate the deck in composite action, large shear forces need be resisted at the interface. A preferred method of shear transfer is by welded studs encased in a concrete haunch, similar to that illustrated in Figure [Figure 7.6](#).

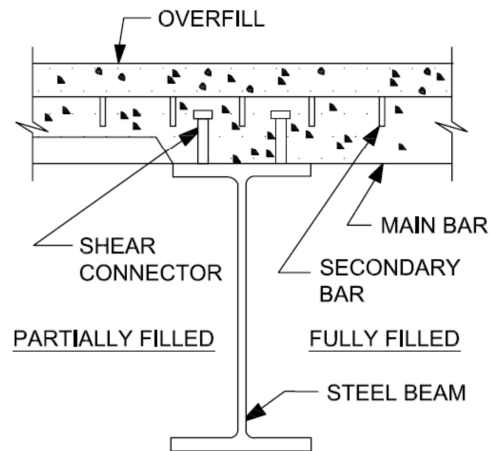


Figure 7.6: An acceptable shear connection of partially and fully filled grid decks to beams.

2. Design Requirements

Design of filled and partially filled grid decks shall be in accordance with the provisions of Article [7.8.2.1](#) and Article [4.6.2.1.8](#).

- C The presence of a composite structural overlay improves both the structural performance and riding quality of the deck.

The concrete portion of filled and partially filled grid decks shall be in accordance with the general provisions of [Section 5](#) relating to long-term durability and integrity.

For cast-in-place applications, weight of concrete fill shall be assumed to be carried solely by the metal portion of the deck. The transient loads and superimposed permanent loads may be assumed to be supported by the grid bars and concrete fill acting compositely. A structural overfill may be considered as part of the composite structural deck. Where a structural overfill is provided, the design depth of the deck shall be reduced by a provision for loss that is expected as a result of grinding, grooving, or wear of the concrete.

3. Fatigue and Fracture Limit State

The internal connection between the elements of the steel grid in a fully or partially filled grid deck shall be investigated for fatigue.

- C The fatigue category to be used for fatigue investigation should be determined by appropriate laboratory testing in positive and negative bending. The fatigue category for welds and punchouts shall not be taken as better than Category C, which has been shown by testing to be appropriate for most details of grid decks constructed with concrete.

Unless evidence is provided to the contrary, tack welds attaching horizontal form pans to metal grids shall be considered Category E' details (see [Table 6.3](#) for more information about detail categories for load-induced fatigue).

- C In grid decks, "tack welds" refers only to small welds used to attach sheet metal pans that serve only as forms for concrete poured onto or into the grid. The small fillet welds used in the fabrication of grid decks are generally less than 38 mm long, but are not considered "tack welds."
- C Where possible, form pans should be attached by means other than tack welding.

7.8.2.4. Unfilled Grid Decks Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slabs

1. General

An unfilled grid deck composite with reinforced concrete slab consists of a reinforced concrete slab that is cast on top of and is composite with an unfilled steel grid.

C This bridge deck combines the attributes of a concrete deck and a steel grid deck.

Composite action between the concrete slab and the grid deck shall be ensured by providing shear connectors or other means capable of resisting horizontal and vertical components of interface shears. Composite action between the grid deck and the supporting components should be ensured by mechanical shear connectors.

C An acceptable way of providing composite action between the deck and the supporting components is shown in [Figure 7.7](#).

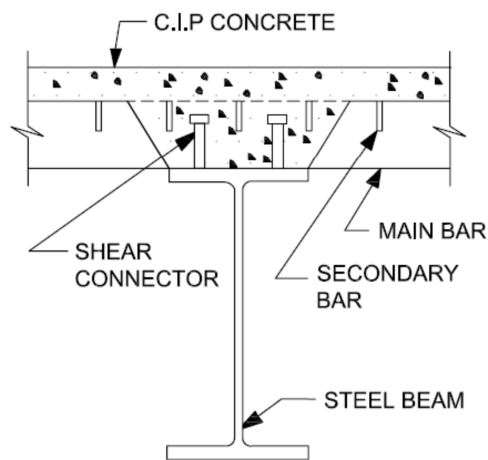


Figure 7.7: An Acceptable Shear Connection of Unfilled Grid Decks Composite with Reinforced Concrete Slabs to Beams.

Unless otherwise specified, provisions of Article [7.8.2.1](#) shall apply.

Discontinuities and cold joints in such decks should be kept to a minimum.

2. Design

C For the purpose of design, the deck can be subdivided into intersecting sets of composite concrete/steel beams.

Design of unfilled grid decks composite with reinforced concrete slabs shall be in accordance with the provisions of Article [7.8.2.1](#) and Article [4.6.2.1.8](#). The design depth of the deck shall be reduced by a provision for loss that is expected as a result of grinding, grooving, or wear of the concrete.

The reinforced concrete portion of unfilled grid decks composite with reinforced concrete slabs shall be in accordance with the general provisions of [Section 5](#) relating to long-term durability and integrity.

In the concrete slab, one layer of reinforcement in each principal direction may be used.

For cast-in-place applications, weight of concrete slab shall be assumed to be carried solely by the grid portion of the deck. The transient loads and superimposed permanent loads may be assumed to be supported by the composite section.

The interface between the concrete slab and the metal system shall satisfy the provisions of Article [6.10.10](#). Acceptable methods of shear connection shall include tertiary bars to which 13-mm diameter rebar or round studs have been welded, or the punching of holes at least 19 mm in size in the top portion of the main bars of the grid which are embedded in the reinforced concrete slab by a minimum of 25 mm.

3. Fatigue Limit State

The internal connection between the elements of the steel grid in unfilled grid decks composite with reinforced concrete slabs shall be investigated for fatigue.

- C The fatigue category to be used for fatigue investigation should be determined by appropriate laboratory testing in positive and negative bending. The fatigue category for welds and punchouts shall not be taken as better than Category C, which has been shown by testing to be appropriate for most details of grid decks constructed with concrete.

Unless evidence is provided to the contrary, tack welds attaching horizontal form pans to metal grids shall be considered Category E' details.

The composite reinforced concrete slab shall be included in the calculation of stress range.

- C In grid decks, "tack welds" refers only to small welds used to attach sheet metal pans that serve only as forms for concrete poured onto or into the grid. The small fillet welds used in the fabrication of grid decks are generally less than 38 mm long, but are not considered "tack welds."
- C Where possible, form pans should be attached by means other than tack welding.

7.8.3. Orthotropic Steel Decks

7.8.3.1. General

- C The intent of this Article is to ensure the structural integrity of the deck and its structural participation with the cross-beams and the primary longitudinal components, as appropriate. Any structural arrangement in which the orthotropic deck is made to act independently from the main components is undesirable.

Orthotropic steel decks shall consist of a deck plate stiffened and supported by longitudinal ribs and transverse floorbeams.

The deck plate shall act as a common flange of the ribs, the floorbeams, and the main longitudinal components of the bridge.

In rehabilitation, if the orthotropic deck is supported by existing floorbeams, the connection between the deck and the floorbeam should be designed for full composite action, even if the effect of composite action is neglected in the design of floorbeams.

Where practical, connections suitable to develop composite action between the deck and the main longitudinal components should be provided.

7.8.3.2. Wheel Load Distribution

A 45° distribution of the tire pressure may be assumed to occur in all directions from the surface contact area to the middle of the deck plate. The tire footprint shall be as specified in Article [3.6.1.2.5](#).

- C The 45° distribution is the traditional, conservative assumption.

7.8.3.3. Wearing Surface

The wearing surface should be regarded as an integral part of the total orthotropic deck system and shall be specified to be bonded to the top of the deck plate.

- C Wearing surfaces acting compositely with the deck plate may reduce deformations and stresses in orthotropic decks.

The contribution of a wearing surface to the stiffness of the members of an orthotropic deck may be considered if structural and bonding properties are satisfactorily demonstrated over the temperature range of -30° to $+50^{\circ}\text{C}$. If the contribution of the wearing surface to stiffness is considered in the design, the required engineering properties of the wearing surface shall be indicated in the contract documents.

- C The deck stiffening effect of the wearing surface is dependent upon its thickness, the elastic modulus which is dependent on temperature and the load application, i.e., static or dynamic, and bond characteristics.
- C The combination of temperature and live load effects has resulted in debonding of some wearing surfaces in the field, which should be regarded as failure of the wearing surface. The Designer should consider past experience in selection of a wearing surface and in determination of its long-term contribution to the structural system.

Force effects in the wearing surface and at the interface with the deck plate shall be investigated with consideration of engineering properties of the wearing surface at anticipated extreme service temperatures.

- C Wearing surface cracking is related to stresses exceeding tensile strength of surfacing material. Flexural stresses in surfacing may be reduced by limiting local deck flexibility, as indicated in Article [2.6.2.6.2](#). Safety against surfacing cracking may be best assured by using surfacing materials with semi-plastic properties or with low elastic modulus not subject to much variation with temperature.

The long-term composite action between deck plate and wearing surface shall be documented by both static and cyclic load tests.

For the purpose of designing the wearing surface and its adhesion to the deck plate, the wearing surface shall be assumed to be composite with the deck plate, regardless of whether the deck plate is designed on that basis.

- C The wearing surface plays an important role in improving skid resistance, distributing wheel loads, and protecting the deck against corrosion and abuse.
- C Selection or design of a wearing surface should include evaluation of the following functional requirements:
- Sufficient ductility and strength to accommodate expansion, contraction, and imposed deformation without cracking or debonding;
 - Sufficient fatigue strength to withstand flexural stresses due to composite action of the wearing surface with the deck plate resulting from local flexure;
 - Sufficient durability to resist rutting, shoving, and wearing;
 - Imperviousness to water and motor vehicle fuels and oils;
 - Resistance to deterioration from deicing salts; and
 - Resistance to aging and deterioration due to solar radiation.

7.8.3.4. Refined Analysis

Force effects in orthotropic decks may be determined by elastic methods of analysis, such as equivalent grillage, finite strip, or finite element methods, as specified in [Section 4](#).

7.8.3.5. Approximate Analysis

1. Effective Width

The effective width of deck plate acting with a rib should be determined as specified in Article [4.6.2.6.4](#).

2. Decks with Open Ribs

- C Approximate analysis of both open rib and closed rib decks is based on the Pelikan-Esslinger method presented in [Wolchuk \(1963\)](#) and [Troitsky \(1987\)](#). This method gives conservative values of global force effects in the orthotropic deck supported on longitudinal edge girders. Load distribution of adjacent transversely located wheel loads on decks with closed ribs is discussed in [Wolchuk \(1964\)](#).

The rib may be analyzed as a continuous beam supported by the floorbeams.

For rib spans not exceeding 4500 mm, the load on one rib due to wheel loads may be determined as the reaction of transversely continuous deck plate supported by rigid ribs.

For rib spans greater than 4500 mm, the effect of rib flexibility on the lateral distribution of wheel loads may be determined by elastic analysis.

For rib spans smaller than 3000 mm or for decks with shallow floorbeams, the flexibility of the floorbeams shall be considered in calculating force effects in the ribs.

Local stresses at rib/floorbeam intersections needed for fatigue investigation shall be obtained by detailed analysis.

3. Decks with Closed Ribs

For the global analysis of decks with closed ribs, the semi-empirical Pelikan-Esslinger method may be used. Local stresses at rib/floorbeam intersections subject to load-induced fatigue shall be determined by detailed analysis. The load effects on a closed rib with a span not greater than 6000 mm may be calculated from wheel loads placed over one rib only, without regard for the effects of the adjacent transversely located wheel loads.

For longer rib spans appropriate corrections of load effects on ribs shall be calculated.

7.8.3.6. Design

1. Superposition of Local and Global Effects

In calculating extreme force effects in the deck, the combination of local and global effects should be determined as specified in Article [6.14.3](#).

- C The orthotropic deck is part of the global structural system, and, therefore, participates in distributing global stresses. These stresses may be additive to those generated in the deck locally. The axles of the design truck or the design tandem are used for the design of decks, whereas the rest of the bridge is proportioned for combinations of the design truck, the design tandem, and the design lane load. The governing positions of the same load for local and global effects could be quite different. Therefore, the Designer should analyze the bridge for both load regimes separately, apply the appropriate dynamic load allowance factor, and use the one that governs.

2. Limit States

Orthotropic decks shall be designed to meet the requirements of [Section 6](#) at all applicable limit states, unless otherwise specified herein.

At the service limit state, the deck shall satisfy the requirements as specified in Article [2.6.2.6](#).

- C Tests indicate a large degree of redundancy and load redistribution between first yield and failure of the deck. The large reduction in combined force effects is a reflection of this performance.

At the strength limit state for the combination of local and global force effects, the provisions of Article 6.14.3 shall apply.

The effects of compressive instability of the orthotropic deck shall be investigated at strength limit states. If instability does not control, the resistance of orthotropic plate deck shall be based on the attainment of yield strength at any point in the cross-section.

- C As the deck acts as part of the global structural system, it is exposed to in-plane axial tension and/or compression. Consequently, buckling should be investigated.

For the fatigue limit state, the provisions of Article 6.6.1.2, Table 6.4, shall apply for load-induced fatigue.

The deck plate/rib wall junction of decks with closed ribs is considered to be subject to distortion-induced fatigue rules of Article 6.6.1.3.3. Fatigue strength of this detail may be considered satisfactory if requirements for geometric proportions and welding details stipulated in Article 7.8.3.7 are satisfied.

Application of less stringent fatigue design rules may be considered, with Owner's approval, for interior traffic lanes of multilane decks subjected to infrequent truck traffic.

- C Experience has shown that fatigue damage on orthotropic decks occurs mainly at the ribs under the truck wheel paths in the exterior lanes.

7.8.3.7. Detailing Requirements

1. Minimum Plate Thickness

The deck plate thickness, t , shall not be less than 14.0 mm or four percent of the larger spacing of rib webs.

- C Although analysis may indicate that deck plates less than 14.0 mm thick could be satisfactory, experience shows that a minimum thickness of 14.0 mm is advisable both from construction and long-term performance points of view.

2. Closed Ribs

- C Fatigue tests indicate that local out-of-plane flexural stress in the rib web at the junction with the deck plate should be minimized. One way to achieve this is to limit the stress in the rib web caused by the rotation of the rib-deck plate junction by making the rib web relatively slender compared with the deck plate.

The thickness of closed ribs shall not be less than 6.0 mm.

Cross-sectional dimensions of an orthotropic steel deck shall satisfy:

$$\frac{t_r a^3}{t_{d,eff}^3 h'} < 400 \quad (7.1)$$

where:

- t_r = thickness of the rib web (mm)
- $t_{d,eff}$ = effective thickness of the deck plate, with consideration of the stiffening effect of the surfacing, as specified in Article 7.8.3.3 (mm)
- a = larger of the spacing of the rib webs (mm)
- h' = length of the inclined portion of the rib web (mm)

As the interiors of closed ribs cannot be inspected and/or repaired, it shall be sealed against the ingress of moisture and air:

- By continuous welds at the rib-to-deck plate interface,
- At welded rib splices, and
- At the diaphragms at the ends of the ribs.

C The use of sealed ribs justifies the minimum plate thickness specified.

Eighty percent partial penetration welds between the webs of a closed rib and the deck plate should be permitted.

C Partial penetration welds are generally used for connecting closed ribs with thickness greater than 6.35 mm to deck plates. Such welds, which require careful choice of automatic welding processes and a tight fit, are less susceptible to fatigue failure than full penetration groove welds requiring backup bars.

3. Unauthorized Welding to Orthotropic Decks

Welding of attachments, utility supports, lifting lugs, or shear connectors to the deck plate or ribs shall not be permitted.

C Experience shows that welding attachments to the deck plate or the ribs may result in fatigue cracks.

4. Deck and Rib Details

C Closed ribs may be trapezoidal, U-shaped or V-shaped, the latter are most efficient.

Deck and rib splices shall either be welded or mechanically fastened by high-strength bolts using details as shown in [Table 6.4](#) and [Figure 7.8](#).

Ribs shall be run continuously through cutouts in the webs of floorbeams, as shown in [Figure 7.8](#).

The following fabrication details shall be required by the contract documents where identified in [Figure 7.8](#):

- a) No snipes (cutouts) in floorbeam web
 - b) Welds to be wrapped around
 - c) Grind smooth
 - d) 25 mm minimum if internal diaphragm not extended to the bottom of the rib (see commentary)
 - e) Combined fillet-groove welds may have to be used in cases where size of fillet welds needed to satisfy the resistance requirements specified in [Table 6.4](#), Case (10) would be excessive.
- C The floorbeam web cutouts at the intersections with the ribs may be with or without an additional free cutout at the bottom of the ribs. The former detail is generally preferable since it minimizes the rib restraint against rotation in its plane and associated stresses in the welds and in the floorbeam web.
- C If the bottom cutout depth c is small, the rotation of the rib is restrained and considerable out-of-plane stresses are introduced in the floorbeam web when the floorbeam is shallow.
- C Local secondary stresses are also introduced in the rib walls by the interaction forces between the floorbeam webs and the rib walls and by secondary effects due to the small depth of cutout c ([Wolchuk and Ostapenko, 1992](#)).
- C The secondary stresses due to rib-floorbeam interaction can be eliminated if diaphragms are placed inside of the rib in the plane of the floorbeam web.
- C The designer may have the option of either terminating the diaphragm below the top of the free cutout, in which case the diaphragm should extend at least 25 mm below the top of the free cutout and must have a fatigue resistant welded connection to the rib wall, or extending the diaphragm to the bottom of the rib and welding all around.

- C Extending the diaphragm to the underside of the deck plate may significantly alleviate local stresses in the deck plate.
- C If the floorbeam web is deep and flexible, or where additional depth of the cutout would unduly reduce the shear strength of the floorbeam, welding all around the rib periphery may be appropriate ([ECSC Report on Fatigue, 1995](#); [Wolchuk, 1999](#)).
- C Fatigue tests suggest that open snipes in the floorbeam webs at the junctions of the rib walls with the deck plate may cause cracks in the rib walls. Therefore, a tight-fitting snipe and a continuous weld between the floorbeam web and the deck and rib wall plates appear to be preferable.
- C Orthotropic deck failures caused by improper details are discussed elsewhere ([Wolchuk, 1991](#)).
- C Open ribs may be flat bars, angles, tees or bulb bars. Open-rib decks are less efficient, but have better fatigue strength.

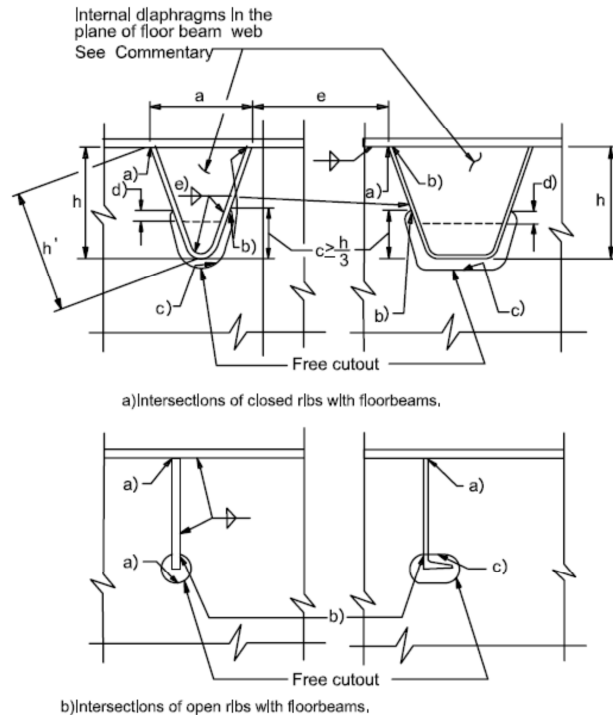


Figure 7.8: Detailing Requirements for Orthotropic Decks.

7.8.4. Corrugated Metal Decks

7.8.4.1. General

Corrugated metal decks should be used only on secondary and rural roads.

Corrugated metal decks shall consist of corrugated metal pans filled with bituminous asphalt or another approved surfacing material. The metal pans shall be positively fastened to the supporting components to ensure the stability under transient loads.

7.8.4.2. Distribution of Wheel Loads

A 45° distribution of the tire load from the contact area to the neutral axis of the corrugated metal pans may be assumed.

- C The 45° distribution is a traditional approach for most nonmetallic structural materials.

7.8.4.3. Composite Action

For contribution of the fill to composite action with the deck plate, the provisions of Article [7.8.3.3](#) shall apply.

Composite action of the corrugated metal deck pan with the supporting components may be considered only if the interface connections are designed for full composite action, and the deck is shown to resist the compressive forces associated with the composite action.

- C Due to the sensitivity of the plate to temperature, corrosion, and structural instability, composite action should be utilized only if physical evidence is sufficient to prove that its functionality can be counted on for the specified design life.

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SECTION 8. FOUNDATIONS

8.1. SCOPE

Provisions of this Section shall apply for the design of spread footings, driven piles, drilled shaft, and micropile foundations.

The probabilistic LRFD basis of these Specifications, which produces an interrelated combination of load, load factor resistance, resistance factor, and statistical reliability, shall be considered when selecting procedures for calculating resistance other than that specified herein. Other methods, especially when locally recognized and considered suitable for regional conditions, may be used if resistance factors are developed in a manner that is consistent with the development of the resistance factors for the method(s) provided in these Specifications, and are approved by the Owner.

- C The development of the resistance factors provided in this Section are summarized in Allen (2005), with additional details provided in Appendix A of Barker et al. (1991), in Paikowsky et al. (2004), in Allen (2005), and in D'Appolonia (2006).
- C The specification of methods of analysis and calculation of resistance for foundations herein is not intended to imply that field verification and/or reaction to conditions actually encountered in the field are no longer needed. These traditional features of foundation design and construction are still practical considerations when designing in accordance with these Specifications.

8.2. DEFINITIONS

- Battered Pile* : A pile or micropile installed driven at an angle inclined to the vertical to provide higher resistance to lateral loads.
- Bearing Pile* : A pile or micropile whose purpose is to carry axial load through friction or point bearing.
- Bent* : A type of pier comprised of multiple columns or piles supporting a single cap and in some cases connected with bracing.
- Bent Cap* : A flexural substructure element supported by columns or piles that receives loads from the superstructure.
- Bond Length* : The length of a micropile that is bonded to the ground and which is conceptually used to transfer the applied axial loads to the surrounding soil or rock. Also known as the load transfer length.
- Casing* : Steel pipe introduced during the drilling process to temporarily stabilize the drill hole. Depending on the details of micropile construction and composition, this casing may be fully extracted during or after grouting, or may remain partially or completely in place as part of the final micropile pile configuration.
- Centralizer* : A device to centrally locate the core steel within a borehole.

<i>Column Bent</i>	: A type of bent that uses two or more columns to support a cap. Columns may be drilled shafts or other independent units supported by individual footings or a combined footing; and may employ bracing or struts for lateral support above ground level.
<i>Combination Point Bearing and Friction Pile</i>	: Pile that derives its capacity from contributions of both point bearing developed at the pile tip and resistance mobilized along the embedded shaft.
<i>Combined Footing</i>	: A footing that supports more than one column.
<i>Core Steel</i>	: Reinforcing bars or pipes used to strengthen or stiffen a micropile, excluding any left-in casing.
<i>CPT</i>	: Cone Penetration Test.
<i>Geomechanics Rock Mass Rating System</i>	: Rating system developed to characterize the engineering behavior of rock masses (Bieniawski, 1984).
<i>CU</i>	: Consolidated Undrained.
<i>Deep Foundation</i>	: A foundation that derives its support by transferring loads to soil or rock at some depth below the structure by end bearing, adhesion or friction, or both.
<i>DMT</i>	: Flat Plate Dilatometer Test.
<i>Drilled Shaft</i>	: A deep foundation unit, wholly or partly embedded in the ground, constructed by placing fresh concrete in a drilled hole with or without steel reinforcement. Drilled shafts derive their capacity from the surrounding soil and/or from the soil or rock strata below its tip. Drilled shafts are also commonly referred to as caissons, drilled caissons, bored piles, or drilled piers.
<i>Effective Stress</i>	: The net stress across points of contact of soil particles, generally considered as equivalent to the total stress minus the pore water pressure.
<i>ER</i>	: Hammer efficiency expressed as percent of theoretical free fall energy delivered by the hammer system actually used in a Standard Penetration Test.
<i>Free (unbonded) Length</i>	: The design length of a micropile that is not bonded to the surrounded ground or grout.
<i>Friction Pile</i>	: A pile whose support capacity is derived principally from soil resistance mobilized along the side of the embedded pile.

<i>Geomechanics Rock Mass Rating System</i>	: Rating system developed to characterize the engineering behavior of rock masses (Bieniawski, 1984).
<i>Geotechnical Bond Strength</i>	: The nominal grout-to-ground bond strength.
<i>IGM</i>	: Intermediate Geomaterial, a material that is transitional between soil and rock in terms of strength and compressibility, such as residual soils, glacial tills, or very weak rock.
<i>Isolated Footing</i>	: Individual support for the various parts of a substructure unit; the foundation is called a footing foundation.
<i>Length of Foundation</i>	: Maximum plan dimension of a foundation element.
<i>Load Test</i>	: Incremental loading of a foundation element, recording the total movement at each increment.
<i>Micropile</i>	: A small-diameter drilled and grouted non-displacement pile (normally less than 300 mm.) that is typically reinforced.
<i>OCR</i>	: Over Consolidation Ratio, the ratio of the pre-consolidation pressure to the current vertical effective stress.
<i>Pile</i>	: A slender deep foundation unit, wholly or partly embedded in the ground, that is installed by driving, drilling, auguring, jetting, or otherwise and that derives its capacity from the surrounding soil and/or from the soil or rock strata below its tip.
<i>Pile Bent</i>	: A type of bent using pile units, driven or placed, as the column members supporting a cap.
<i>Pile Cap</i>	: A flexural substructure element located above or below the finished ground line that receives loads from substructure columns and is supported by shafts or piles.
<i>Pile Shoe</i>	: A metal piece fixed to the penetration end of a pile to protect it from damage during driving and to facilitate penetration through very dense material.
<i>Piping</i>	: Progressive erosion of soil by seeping water that produces an open pipe through the soil through which water flows in an uncontrolled and dangerous manner.
<i>Plunge Length</i>	: The length of casing inserted into the bond zone to effect a transition between the upper cased portions to the lower uncased portion of a micropile.
<i>Plunging</i>	: A mode of behavior observed in some pile load tests, wherein the settlement of the pile continues to increase with no increase in load.
<i>PMT</i>	: Pressuremeter Test.

<i>Point-Bearing Pile</i>	: A pile whose support capacity is derived principally from the resistance of the foundation material on which the pile tip bears.
<i>post Grouting</i>	: The injection of additional grout into the load bond length of a micropile after the primary grout has set. Also known as re-grouting or secondary grouting.
<i>Primary Grout</i>	: Portland cement-based grout that is injected into a micropile hole, prior to or after the installation of the reinforcement to provide the load transfer to the surrounding ground along the micropile and afford a degree of corrosion protection for a micropile loaded in compression.
<i>Reinforcement Steel</i>	: The steel component of a micropile which accepts and/or resists applied loadings.
<i>RMR</i>	: Rock Mass Rating.
<i>RQD</i>	: Rock Quality Designation.
<i>Shallow Foundation</i>	: A foundation that derives its support by transferring load directly to the soil or rock at shallow depth.
<i>Slickensides</i>	: Polished and grooved surfaces in clayey soils or rocks resulting from shearing displacements along planes.
<i>SPT</i>	: Standard Penetration Test.
<i>Total Stress</i>	: Total pressure exerted in any direction by both soil and water.
<i>UU</i>	: Unconsolidated Undrained.
<i>VST</i>	: Vane Shear Test (performed in the field).
<i>Width of Foundation</i>	: Minimum plan dimension of a foundation element.

8.3. NOTATION

A	= steel pile cross-sectional area (mm^2)
A_b	= cross-sectional area of steel reinforcing bar (mm^2)
A_c	= cross-sectional area of steel casing (mm^2)
A_{ct}	= cross-sectional area of steel casing considering reduction for threads (mm^2)
A_g	= cross-sectional area of grout within micropile (mm^2)
A'	= effective footing area for determination of elastic settlement of footing subjected to eccentric loads (mm^2)
A_p	= area of pile or micropile tip or base of drilled shaft (mm^2)

A_s	=	surface area of pile shaft; area of grout to ground bond surface of micropile through bond length (mm ²)
A_u	=	uplift area of a belled drilled shaft (mm ²)
a_{si}	=	pile perimeter at the point considered (mm)
B	=	footing width; pile group width; pile diameter (mm)
B'	=	effective footing width (mm)
C_α	=	secondary compression index, void ratio definition (dim.)
$C_{\alpha \varepsilon}$	=	secondary compression index, strain definition (dim.)
C_c	=	compression index, void ratio definition (dim.)
$C_{c\varepsilon}$	=	compression index, strain definition (dim.)
C_F	=	correction factor for $K\delta$ when δ is not equal to ϕ_f (dim.)
C_N	=	overburden stress correction factor for N (dim.)
C_r	=	recompression index, void ratio definition (dim.)
$C_{r\varepsilon}$	=	recompression index, strain definition (dim.)
$C_{wq},$ $C_{w\gamma}$	=	correction factors for groundwater effect (dim.)
C'	=	bearing capacity index (dim.)
c	=	cohesion of soil taken as undrained shear strength (MPa)
c_v	=	coefficient of consolidation (mm ² /yr.)
c_1	=	undrained shear strength of the top layer of soil as depicted in Figure 8.17 (MPa)
c_2	=	undrained shear strength of the lower layer of soil as depicted in Figure 8.17 (MPa)
c'_1	=	drained shear strength of the top layer of soil (MPa)
c^*	=	reduced effective stress soil cohesion for punching shear (MPa)
c'	=	effective stress cohesion intercept (MPa)
c'_i	=	instantaneous cohesion at a discrete value of normal stress (MPa)
D	=	depth of pile embedment; pile width or diameter; diameter of drilled shaft (mm)
DD	=	downdrag load per pile (N)
D'	=	effective depth of pile group (mm)
D_b	=	depth of embedment of pile into a bearing stratum (mm)

D_{est}	= estimated pile length needed to obtain desired nominal resistance per pile (mm)
D_f	= foundation embedment depth taken from ground surface to bottom of footing (mm)
D_i	= pile width or diameter at the point considered (mm)
D_p	= diameter of the bell on a belled drilled shaft (mm)
D_r	= relative density (percent)
D_w	= depth to water surface taken from the ground surface (mm)
d_q	= correction factor to account for the shearing resistance along the failure surface passing through cohesionless material above the bearing elevation (dim.)
E	= modulus of elasticity of pile material (MPa)
E_d	= developed hammer energy (mm-N)
E_i	= modulus of elasticity of intact rock
E_m	= rock mass modulus (MPa)
E_p	= modulus of elasticity of pile (MPa)
ER	= hammer efficiency expressed as percent of theoretical free fall energy delivered by the hammer system actually used (dim.)
E_s	= soil (Young's) modulus (MPa)
e	= void ratio (dim.)
e_B	= eccentricity of load parallel to the width of the footing (mm)
e_L	= eccentricity of load parallel to the length of the footing (mm)
e_o	= void ratio at initial vertical effective stress (dim.)
f'_c	= 28-day compressive strength of concrete or grout, unless another age is specified (MPa)
f_{pe}	= effective stress in the prestressing steel after losses (MPa)
f_s	= approximate constant sleeve friction resistance measured from a CPT at depths below $8D$ (MPa)
f_{si}	= unit local sleeve friction resistance from CPT at the point considered (MPa)
f_y	= Specified minimum yield strength of steel (MPa)
H	= horizontal component of inclined loads (N)
H_c	= height of compressible soil layer (mm)

H_{crit}	=	minimum distance below a spread footing to a second separate layer of soil with different properties that will affect shear strength of the foundation (mm)
H_d	=	length of longest drainage path in compressible soil layer (mm)
H_s	=	height of sloping ground mass (mm)
H_{s2}	=	distance from bottom of footing to top of the second soil layer (mm)
h_i	=	length interval at the point considered (mm)
I	=	influence factor of the effective group embedment (dim.)
I_p	=	influence coefficient to account for rigidity and dimensions of footing (dim.)
I_w	=	weak axis moment of inertia for a pile (mm ⁴)
i_c, i_q, i_γ	=	load inclination factors (dim.)
j	=	damping constant (dim.)
K_c	=	correction factor for side friction in clay (dim.)
K_s	=	correction factor for side friction in sand (dim.)
K_δ	=	coefficient of lateral earth pressure at midpoint of soil layer under consideration (dim.)
L	=	length of foundation; pile length (mm)
L_b	=	micropile bonded length (mm).
L'	=	effective footing length (mm)
L_i	=	depth to middle of length interval at the point considered (mm)
L_p	=	micropile casing plunge length (mm).
LL	=	liquid limit of soil (percent)
N	=	uncorrected Standard Penetration Test (SPT) blow count (blows/300 mm)
$\bar{N}_{160}$	=	average corrected SPT blow count along pile side (blows/300 mm)
N_1	=	SPT blow count corrected for overburden pressure σ'_v (blows/300 mm)
N_{160}	=	SPT blow count corrected for both overburden and hammer efficiency effects (blows/300 mm)
N_b	=	number of hammer blows for 25 mm of pile permanent set (blows/25 mm)
N_c	=	cohesion term (undrained loading) bearing capacity factor (dim.)
N_{cq}	=	modified bearing capacity factor (dim.)

N_q	= surcharge (embedment) term (drained or undrained loading) bearing capacity factor (dim.)
N'	= alternate notation for N_I (blows/300 mm)
N'_q	= pile bearing capacity factor from Figure 8.34 (dim.)
N_γ	= unit weight (footing width) term (drained loading) bearing capacity factor (dim.)
N_{cmb}	= modified bearing capacity factors (dim.)
$N_{qm}, N_{\gamma m}$	
N_m	= modified bearing capacity factor (dim.)
N_s	= slope stability factor (dim.)
N_u	= uplift adhesion factor for bell (dim.)
N_1	= number of intervals between the ground surface and a point 8D below the ground surface (dim.)
N_2	= number of intervals between 8D below the ground surface and the tip of the pile (dim.)
N_{60}	= SPT blow count corrected for hammer efficiency (blows/300 mm)
n	= porosity (dim.); number of soil layers within zone of stress influence of the footing (dim.)
n_h	= rate of increase of soil modulus with depth (MPa/mm)
P_f	= probability of failure (dim.)
P_L	= plastic limit of soil (percent)
P_m	= p-multiplier from Table 8.29 (dim.)
P_t	= factored axial load transferred to ground along micropile plunge length (N)
P_u	= factored axial load on uncased micropile segment adjusted for plunge length load transfer
p_a	= atmospheric pressure (MPa) (Sea level value equivalent to 1 atm or 0.101 MPa)
Q	= load applied to top of footing or shaft (N); load test load (N)
Q_f	= load at failure during load test (N)
Q_g	= bearing capacity for block failure (N)
Q_p	= factored load per pile, excluding downdrag load (N)
Q_{T1}	= total load acting at the head of the drilled shaft (N)

q	=	net foundation pressure applied at $2D_b/3$; this pressure is equal to applied load at top of the group divided by the area of the equivalent footing and does not include the weight of the piles or the soil between the piles (MPa)
q_c	=	static cone tip resistance (MPa)
$\bar{q}_c$	=	average static cone tip resistance over a depth B below the equivalent footing (MPa)
q_{c1}	=	average q_c over a distance of 8D below the pile tip (path a-b-c) (MPa)
q_{c2}	=	average q_c over a distance of 8D above the pile tip (path c-e) (MPa)
q_L	=	limiting unit tip resistance of a single pile from Figure 8.35 (MPa)
q_ℓ	=	limiting tip resistance of a single pile (MPa)
q_n	=	nominal bearing resistance (MPa)
q_o	=	applied vertical stress at base of loaded area (MPa)
q_p	=	nominal unit tip resistance of pile (MPa)
q_R	=	factored bearing resistance (MPa)
q_s	=	unit shear resistance; unit side resistance of pile (MPa)
q_{shell}	=	nominal unit uplift resistance of a belled drilled shaft (MPa)
q_u	=	uniaxial compression strength of rock (MPa)
q_{ult}	=	nominal bearing resistance (MPa)
q_1	=	nominal bearing resistance of footing supported in the upper layer of a two-layer system, assuming the upper layer is infinitely thick (MPa)
q_2	=	nominal bearing resistance of a fictitious footing of the same size and shape as the actual footing but supported on surface of the second (lower) layer of a two-layer system (MPa)
R_c	=	factored micropile structural axial compression resistance (N)
R_{cc}	=	factored structural axial compression resistance of cased micropile segments (N)
R_{cu}	=	factored structural axial compression resistance of uncased micropile segments (N)
R_{ep}	=	nominal passive resistance of soil available throughout the design life of the structure (N)
R_n	=	nominal resistance of footing, pile or shaft (N)
R_{ndr}	=	nominal pile driving resistance including downdrag (N)
R_{nstat}	=	nominal resistance of pile from static analysis method (N)

R_p	=	nominal pile or micropile tip resistance (kips) (N)
R_R	=	factored nominal resistance of a footing, pile or shaft (N)
R_s	=	pile side resistance (N); nominal uplift resistance due to side resistance (N); nominal micropil. grout-ta-ground bond resistance (N)
R_{sbell}	=	nominal uplift resistance of a belled drilled shaft (N)
R_{sdd}	=	skin friction which must be overcome during driving (N)
R_T	=	factored structural axial tension resistance (N)
R_{TC}	=	factored structural axial tension resistance of cased micropile segments (N)
R_{TU}	=	factored structural axial tension resistance of uncased micropile segments (N)
R_τ	=	nominal sliding resistance between the footing and the soil (N)
R_{ug}	=	nominal uplift resistance of a pile group (N)
r	=	radius of circular footing or B/2 for square footing (mm)
S_c	=	primary consolidation settlement (mm)
$S_{c(1-D)}$	=	single dimensional consolidation settlement (mm)
S_e	=	elastic settlement (mm)
S_s	=	secondary settlement (mm)
S_t	=	total settlement (mm)
s_f	=	pile top movement during load test (mm)
S_u	=	undrained shear strength (MPa)
$\bar{S}_u$	=	average undrained shear strength along pile side (MPa)
s	=	pile permanent set (mm)
s, m	=	fractured rock mass parameters
s_c, s_q, s_γ	=	shape factors (dim.)
T	=	time factor (dim.)
t	=	time for a given percentage of one-dimensional consolidation settlement to occur (yr.)
t_1, t_2	=	arbitrary time intervals for determination of secondary settlement, S_s (yr.)
U	=	percentage of consolidation

V	=	total vertical force applied by a footing (N); pile displacement volume (mm ³ /mm)
W_g	=	weight of block of soil, piles and pile cap (N)
W_{T1}	=	vertical movement at the head of the drilled shaft (mm)
X	=	width or smallest dimension of pile group (mm)
Y	=	length of pile group (mm)
Z	=	total embedded pile length; penetration of shaft (mm)
z	=	depth below ground surface (mm)
α	=	adhesion factor applied to s_u (dim.)
α_b	=	nominal micropile grout-to-ground bond stress (MPa)
α_E	=	reduction factor to account for jointing in rock (dim.)
α_t	=	coefficient from Figure 8.33 (dim.)
β	=	reliability index; coefficient relating the vertical effective stress and the unit skin friction of a pile or drilled shaft (dim.)
β_m	=	punching index (dim.)
β_z	=	factor to account for footing shape and rigidity (dim.)
γ	=	unit density of soil (kg/m ³)
γ_p	=	load factor for downdrag
ΔH_i	=	elastic settlement of layer i (mm)
δ	=	elastic deformation of pile (mm); friction angle between foundation and soil (°)
ε_v	=	vertical strain of over consolidated soil (mm/mm)
η	=	shaft efficiency reduction factor for axial resistance of a drilled shaft group (dim.)
γ	=	empirical coefficient relating the passive lateral earth pressure and the unit skin friction of a pile (dim.)
μ_c	=	reduction factor for consolidation settlements to account for three-dimensional effects (dim.)
ϕ_f	=	angle of internal friction of drained soil (°)
ϕ'_f	=	drained (long term) effective angle of internal friction of clays (°)
ϕ'_i	=	instantaneous friction angle of the rock mass (°)
ϕ'_1	=	effective stress angle of internal friction of the top layer of soil (°)

ϕ'_s	=	secant friction angle (°)
ϕ^*	=	reduced effective stress soil friction angle for punching shear (°)
ϕ	=	resistance factor (dim.)
ϕ_b	=	resistance factor for bearing of shallow foundations (dim.)
ϕ_{bl}	=	resistance factor for driven piles or shafts, block failure in clay (dim.)
ϕ_C	=	structural resistance factor for micropiles in axial compression (dim.)
ϕ_{CC}	=	structural resistance factor for cased micropiles segments in axial compression (dim.)
ϕ_{CU}	=	structural resistance factor for uncased micropiles segments in axial compression (dim.)
ϕ_{da}	=	resistance factor for driven piles, drivability analysis (dim.)
ϕ_{dyn}	=	resistance factor for driven piles, dynamic analysis and static load test methods (dim.)
ϕ_{ep}	=	resistance factor for passive soil resistance (dim.)
ϕ_{load}	=	resistance factor for shafts, static load test (dim.)
ϕ_{qp}	=	resistance factor for tip resistance (dim.)
ϕ_{qs}	=	resistance factor for shaft side resistance (dim.)
ϕ_τ	=	resistance factor for sliding resistance between soil and footing (dim.)
ϕ_{stat}	=	resistance factor for driven piles or shafts, static analysis methods (dim.)
ϕ_T	=	structural resistance factor for micropiles in axial tension (dim.)
ϕ_{TC}	=	structural resistance factor for cased micropiles segments in axial tension (dim.)
ϕ_{TU}	=	structural resistance factor for uncased micropiles segments in axial tension (dim.)
ϕ_{ug}	=	resistance factor for group uplift (dim.)
ϕ_{up}	=	resistance factor for uplift resistance of a single pile or drilled shaft (dim.)
ϕ_{upload}	=	resistance factor for shafts, static uplift load test (dim.)

8.4. SOIL AND ROCK PROPERTIES

8.4.1. Informational Needs

The expected project requirements shall be analyzed to determine the type and quantity of information to be developed during the geotechnical exploration. This analysis should consist of the following:

- Identify design and constructability requirements, e.g., provide grade separation, support loads from bridge superstructure, provide for dry excavation, and their effect on the geotechnical information needed.
 - Identify performance criteria, e.g., limiting settlements, right of way restrictions, proximity of adjacent structures, and schedule constraints.
 - Identify areas of geologic concern on the site and potential variability of local geology.
 - Identify areas of hydrologic concern on the site, e.g., potential erosion or scour locations.
 - Develop likely sequence and phases of construction and their effect on the geotechnical information needed.
 - Identify engineering analyses to be performed, e.g., bearing capacity, settlement, global stability.
 - Identify engineering properties and parameters required for these analyses.
 - Determine methods to obtain parameters and assess the validity of such methods for the material type and construction methods.
 - Determine the number of tests/samples needed and appropriate locations for them.
- C The first phase of an exploration and testing program requires that the Engineer understand the project requirements and the site conditions and/or restrictions. The ultimate goal of this phase is to identify geotechnical data needs for the project and potential methods available to assess these needs.
- C **Geotechnical Engineering Circular #5-Evaluation of Soil and Rock Properties (Sabatini et al., 2002)** provides a summary of information needs and testing considerations for various geotechnical applications.

8.4.2. Subsurface Exploration

Subsurface explorations shall be performed to provide the information needed for the design and construction of foundations. The extent of exploration shall be based on variability in the subsurface conditions, structure type, and any project requirements that may affect the foundation design or construction.

- C The performance of a subsurface exploration program is part of the process of obtaining information relevant for the design and construction of substructure elements. The elements of the process that should precede the actual exploration program include a search and review of published and unpublished information at and near the site, a visual site inspection, and design of the subsurface exploration program. Refer to **Mayne et al. (2001)** and **Sabatini et al. (2002)** for guidance regarding the planning and conduct of subsurface exploration programs.

The exploration program should be extensive enough to reveal the nature and types of soil deposits and/or rock formations encountered, the engineering properties of the soils and/or rocks, the potential for liquefaction, and the groundwater conditions. The exploration program should be sufficient to identify and delineate problematic

subsurface conditions such as karstic formations, mined out areas, swelling/collapsing soils, existing fill or waste areas, etc.

- C The suggested minimum number and depth of borings are provided in [Table 8.1](#). While engineering judgment will need to be applied by a licensed and experienced geotechnical professional to adapt the exploration program to the foundation types and depths needed and to the variability in the subsurface conditions observed, the intent of [Table 8.1](#) regarding the minimum level of exploration needed should be carried out. The depth of borings indicated in [Table 8.1](#) performed before or during design should take into account the potential for changes in the type, size and depth of the planned foundation elements.

Borings should be sufficient in number and depth to establish a reliable longitudinal and transverse substrata profile at areas of concern such as at structure foundation locations and adjacent earthwork locations, and to investigate any adjacent geologic hazards that could affect the structure performance.

As a minimum, the subsurface exploration and testing program shall obtain information adequate to analyze foundation stability and settlement with respect to:

- Geological formation(s) present,
- Location and thickness of soil and rock units,
- Engineering properties of soil and rock units, such as unit weight, shear strength and compressibility,
- Groundwater conditions,
- Ground surface topography, and
- Local considerations, e.g., liquefiable, expansive or dispersive soil deposits, underground voids from solution weathering or mining activity, or slope instability potential.

[Table 8.1](#) shall be used as a starting point for determining the locations of borings. The final exploration program should be adjusted based on the variability of the anticipated subsurface conditions as well as the variability observed during the exploration program. If conditions are determined to be variable, the exploration program should be increased relative to the requirements in [Table 8.1](#) such that the objective of establishing a reliable longitudinal and transverse substrata profile is achieved. If conditions are observed to be homogeneous or otherwise are likely to have minimal impact on the foundation performance, and previous local geotechnical and construction experience has indicated that subsurface conditions are homogeneous or otherwise are likely to have minimal impact on the foundation performance, a reduced exploration program relative to what is specified in [Table 8.1](#) may be considered.

- C [Table 8.1](#) should be used only as a first step in estimating the number of borings for a particular design, as actual boring spacings will depend upon the project type and geologic environment. In areas underlain by heterogeneous soil deposits and/or rock formations, it will probably be necessary to drill more frequently and/or deeper than the minimum guidelines in [Table 8.1](#) to capture variations in soil and/or rock type and to assess consistency across the site area. For situations where large diameter rock socketed shafts will be used or where drilled shafts are being installed in formations known to have large boulders, or voids such as in karstic or mined areas, it may be necessary to advance a boring at the location of each shaft. Even the best and most detailed subsurface exploration programs may not identify every important subsurface problem condition if conditions are highly variable. The goal of the subsurface exploration program, however, is to reduce the risk of such problems to an acceptable minimum.
- C In a laterally homogeneous area, drilling or advancing a large number of borings may be redundant, since each sample tested would exhibit similar engineering properties. Furthermore, in areas where soil or rock conditions are known to be very favorable to the construction and performance of the foundation type likely to be used, e.g., footings on very dense soil, and groundwater is deep enough

to not be a factor, obtaining fewer borings than provided in [Table 8.1](#) may be justified. In all cases, it is necessary to understand how the design and construction of the geotechnical feature will be affected by the soil and/or rock mass conditions in order to optimize the exploration.

Engineering judgment will need to be applied by a licensed and experienced geotechnical professional to adapt the exploration program to the foundation types and depths needed and to the variability in the subsurface conditions observed, the intent of [Table 8.1](#) regarding the minimum level of exploration needed should be carried out. The depth of borings indicated in [Table 8.1](#) performed before or during design should take into account the potential for changes in the type, size and depth of the planned foundation elements.

If requested by the Owner or as required by law, boring and penetration test holes shall be plugged.

- C Borings may need to be plugged due to requirements by regulatory agencies having jurisdiction and/or to prevent water contamination and/or surface hazards.

Laboratory and/or in-situ tests shall be performed to determine the strength, deformation, and permeability characteristics of soils and/or rocks and their suitability for the foundation proposed.

- C Parameters derived from field tests, e.g., driven pile resistance based on cone penetrometer testing, may also be used directly in design calculations based on empirical relationships. These are sometimes found to be more reliable than analytical calculations, especially in familiar ground conditions for which the empirical relationships are well established.

Table 8.1: Minimum Number of Exploration Points and Depth of Exploration (Modified after Sabatini et al, 2002)

Application	Minimum Number of Exploration Points and Location of Exploration Points	Minimum Depth of Exploration
Retaining Walls	A minimum of one exploration point for each retaining wall. For retaining walls more than 30 000 mm in length, exploration points spaced every 30 000 to 60 000 mm with locations alternating from in front of the wall to behind the wall. For anchored walls, additional exploration points in the anchorage zone spaced at 30 000 to 60 000 mm. For soil-nailed walls, additional exploration points at a distance of 1.0 to 1.5 times the height of the wall behind the wall spaced at 30 000 to 60 000 mm.	Investigate to a depth below bottom of wall at least to a depth where stress increase due to estimated foundation load is less than ten percent of the existing effective overburden stress at that depth and between one and two times the wall height. Exploration depth should be great enough to fully penetrate soft highly compressible soils, e.g., peat, organic silt, or soft fine grained soils, into competent material of suitable bearing capacity, e.g., stiff to hard cohesive soil, compact dense cohesionless soil, or bedrock.
Shallow Foundations	For substructure, e.g., piers or abutments, widths less than or equal to 30 000 mm, a minimum of one exploration point per substructure. For substructure widths greater than 30 000 mm, a minimum of two exploration points per substructure. Additional exploration points should be provided if erratic subsurface conditions are encountered.	Depth of exploration should be: • great enough to fully penetrate unsuitable foundation soils, e.g., peat, organic silt, or soft fine grained soils, into competent material of suitable bearing resistance, e.g., stiff to hard cohesive soil, or compact to dense cohesionless soil or bedrock ; • at least to a depth where stress increase due to estimated foundation load is less than ten percent of the existing effective overburden stress at that depth; and • if bedrock is encountered before the depth required by the second criterion above is achieved, exploration depth should be great enough to penetrate a minimum of 3000 mm into the bedrock, but rock exploration should be sufficient to characterize compressibility of infill material of near-horizontal to horizontal discontinuities. Note that for highly variable bedrock conditions, or in areas where very large boulders are likely, more than 3000 mm of rock core may be required to verify that adequate quality bedrock is present.

Application	Minimum Number of Exploration Points and Location of Exploration Points	Minimum Depth of Exploration
Deep Foundations	For substructure, e.g., bridge piers or abutments, widths less than or equal to 30 000 mm, a minimum of one exploration point per substructure. For substructure widths greater than 30 000 mm, a minimum of two exploration points per substructure. Additional exploration points should be provided if erratic subsurface conditions are encountered, especially for the case of shafts socketed into bedrock.	In soil, depth of exploration should extend below the anticipated pile or shaft tip elevation a minimum of 6000 mm, or a minimum of two times the maximum pile group dimension, whichever is deeper. All borings should extend through unsuitable strata such as unconsolidated fill, peat, highly organic materials, soft fine-grained soils, and loose coarse-grained soils to reach hard or dense materials. For piles bearing on rock, a minimum of 3000 mm of rock core shall be obtained at each exploration point location to verify that the boring has not terminated on a boulder. For shafts supported on or extending into rock, a minimum of 3000 mm of rock core, or a length of rock core equal to at least three times the shaft diameter for isolated shafts or two times the maximum shaft group dimension, whichever is greater, shall be extended below the anticipated shaft tip elevation to determine the physical characteristics of rock within the zone of foundation influence. Note that for highly variable bedrock conditions, or in areas where very large boulders are likely, more than 3000 mm of rock core may be required to verify that adequate quality bedrock is present.

8.4.3. Laboratory Tests

8.4.3.1. Soil Tests

Laboratory testing should be conducted to provide the basic data with which to classify soils and to measure their engineering properties.

C Laboratory tests of soils may be grouped broadly into two general classes:

- Classification or index tests. These may be performed on either disturbed or undisturbed samples.
- Quantitative or performance tests for permeability, compressibility and shear strength. These tests are generally performed on undisturbed samples, except for materials to be placed as controlled fill or materials that do not have a stable soil-structure, e.g., cohesionless materials. In these cases, tests should be performed on specimens prepared in the laboratory.

When performed, laboratory tests shall be conducted in accordance with the AASHTO, ASTM, or Owner-supplied procedures applicable to the design properties needed.

C Detailed information regarding the types of tests needed for foundation design is provided in *Geotechnical Engineering Circular #5-Evaluation of Soil and Rock Properties* (Sabatini et al., 2002).

8.4.3.2. Rock Tests

If laboratory strength tests are conducted on intact rock samples for classification purposes, they should be considered as upper bound values. If laboratory compressibility tests are conducted, they should be considered as lower bound values. Additionally, laboratory tests should be used in conjunction with field tests and field characterization of the rock mass to give estimates of rock mass behavioral characteristics. When performed, laboratory tests shall be conducted in accordance with the ASTM or Owner-supplied procedures applicable to the design properties needed.

- C Rock samples small enough to be tested in the laboratory are usually not representative of the entire rock mass. Laboratory testing of rock is used primarily for classification of intact rock samples, and, if performed properly, serves a useful function in this regard.
- C Detailed information regarding the types of tests needed and their use for foundation design is provided in Geotechnical Engineering Circular #5-Evaluation of Soil and Rock Properties, April 2002 (Sabatini et al., 2002).

8.4.4. In-Situ Tests

In-situ tests may be performed to obtain deformation and strength parameters of foundation soils or rock for the purposes of design and/or analysis. In-situ tests should be conducted in soils that do not lend themselves to undisturbed sampling as a means to estimate soil design parameters. When performed, in-situ tests shall be conducted in accordance with the appropriate ASTM or AASHTO standards.

- C Detailed information on in-situ testing of soils and rock and their application to geotechnical design can be found in [Sabatini et al. \(2002\)](#) and [Wyllie \(1999\)](#).

Where in-situ test results are used to estimate design properties through correlations, such correlations should be well established through long-term widespread use or through detailed measurements that illustrate the accuracy of the correlation.

- C Correlations are in some cases specific to a geological formation. While this fact does not preclude the correlation from being useful in other geologic formations, the applicability of the correlation to those other formations should be evaluated.
- C For further discussion, see Article [8.4.6](#).

8.4.5. Geophysical Tests

Geophysical testing should be used only in combination with information from direct methods of exploration, such as *SPT*, *CPT*¹, etc. to establish stratification of the subsurface materials, the profile of the top of bedrock and bedrock quality, depth to groundwater, limits of types of soil deposits, the presence of voids, anomalous deposits, buried pipes, and depths of existing foundations. Geophysical tests shall be selected and conducted in accordance with available ASTM standards. For those cases where ASTM standards are not available, other widely accepted detailed guidelines, such as [Sabatini et al. \(2002\)](#), [AASHTO Manual on Subsurface Investigations \(1988\)](#), [Arman et al. \(1997\)](#) and [Campanella \(1994\)](#), should be used.

- C Geophysical testing offers some notable advantages and some disadvantages that should be considered before the technique is recommended for a specific application. The advantages are summarized as follows:
 - Many geophysical tests are noninvasive and thus, offer, significant benefits in cases where conventional drilling, testing and sampling are difficult, e.g., deposits of gravel, talus deposits, or where potentially contaminated subsurface soils may occur.

¹ SPT = Standard Penetration Test.

CPT = Cone Penetration Test.

- In general, geophysical testing covers a relatively large area, thus providing the opportunity to generally characterize large areas in order to optimize the locations and types of in-situ testing and sampling. Geophysical methods are particularly well suited to projects that have large longitudinal extent compared to lateral extent, e.g., new highway construction.
 - Geophysical measurement assesses the characteristics of soil and rock at very small strains, typically on the order of 0.001 percent, thus providing information on truly elastic properties, which are used to evaluate service limit states.
 - For the purpose of obtaining subsurface information, geophysical methods are relatively inexpensive when considering cost relative to the large areas over which information can be obtained.
- C Some of the disadvantages of geophysical methods include:
- Most methods work best for situations in which there is a large difference in stiffness or conductivity between adjacent subsurface units.
 - It is difficult to develop good stratigraphic profiling if the general stratigraphy consists of hard material over soft material or resistive material over conductive material.
 - Results are generally interpreted qualitatively and, therefore, only an experienced Engineer or geologist familiar with the particular testing method can obtain useful results.
 - Specialized equipment is required (compared to more conventional subsurface exploration tools).
 - Since evaluation is performed at very low strains, or no strain at all, information regarding ultimate strength for evaluation of strength limit states is only obtained by correlation.
- C There are a number of different geophysical in-situ tests that can be used for stratigraphic information and determination of engineering properties. These methods can be combined with each other and/or combined with the in-situ tests presented in Article [8.4.4](#) to provide additional resolution and accuracy. [ASTM D 6429](#), Standard Guide for Selecting Surface Geophysical Methods, provides additional guidance on selection of suitable methods.

8.4.6. Selection of Design Properties

8.4.6.1. General

Subsurface soil or rock properties shall be determined using one or more of the following methods:

- In-situ testing during the field exploration program, including consideration of any geophysical testing conducted,
 - Laboratory testing, and
 - Back analysis of design parameters based on site performance data.
- C A geologic stratum is characterized as having the same geologic depositional history and stress history, and generally has similarities throughout the stratum in terms of density, source material, stress history, and hydrogeology. The properties of a given geologic stratum at a project site are likely to vary significantly from point to point within the stratum. In some cases, a measured property value may be closer in magnitude to the measured property value in an adjacent geologic stratum than to the measured properties at another point within the same stratum. However, soil and rock properties for design should not be averaged across multiple strata.
- C It should also be recognized that some properties, e.g., undrained shear strength in normally consolidated clays, may vary as a predictable function of a stratum dimension, e.g., depth below the top of the stratum. Where the property within the stratum varies in this manner, the design parameters should be developed taking this variation into account, which may result in multiple values of the property within the stratum as a function of a stratum dimension such as depth.

Local experience, local geologic formation specific property correlations, and knowledge of local geology, in addition to broader based experience and relevant published data, should also be considered in the final selection of design parameters. If published correlations are used in combination with one of the methods listed above, the applicability of the correlation to the specific geologic formation shall be

considered through the use of local experience, local test results, and/or long-term experience.

The focus of geotechnical design property assessment and final selection shall be on the individual geologic strata identified at the project site.

The design values selected for the parameters should be appropriate to the particular limit state and its correspondent calculation model under consideration.

The determination of design parameters for rock shall take into consideration that rock mass properties are generally controlled by the discontinuities within the rock mass and not the properties of the intact material. Therefore, engineering properties for rock should account for the properties of the intact pieces and for the properties of the rock mass as a whole, specifically considering the discontinuities within the rock mass. A combination of laboratory testing of small samples, empirical analysis, and field observations should be employed to determine the engineering properties of rock masses, with greater emphasis placed on visual observations and quantitative descriptions of the rock mass.

- C The observational method, or use of back analysis, to determine engineering properties of soil or rock is often used with slope failures, embankment settlement or excessive settlement of existing structures. With landslides or slope failures, the process generally starts with determining the geometry of the failure and then determining the soil/rock parameters or subsurface conditions that result from a combination of load and resistance factors that approach 1.0. Often the determination of the properties is aided by correlations with index tests or experience on other projects. For embankment settlement, a range of soil properties is generally determined based on laboratory performance testing on undisturbed samples. Monitoring of fill settlement and pore pressure in the soil during construction allows the soil properties and prediction of the rate of future settlement to be refined. For structures such as bridges that experience unacceptable settlement or retaining walls that have excessive deflection, the engineering properties of the soils can sometimes be determined if the magnitudes of the loads are known. As with slope stability analysis, the subsurface stratigraphy must be adequately known, including the history of the groundwater level at the site.
- C Local geologic formation-specific correlations may be used if well established by data comparing the prediction from the correlation to measured high quality laboratory performance data, or back-analysis from full scale performance of geotechnical elements affected by the geologic formation in question.
- C The Engineer should assess the variability of relevant data to determine if the observed variability is a result of inherent variability of subsurface materials and testing methods or if the variability is a result of significant variations across the site. Methods to compare soil parameter variability for a particular project to published values of variability based on database information of common soil parameters are presented in Sabatini (2002) and Duncan (2000). Where the variability is deemed to exceed the inherent variability of the material and testing methods, or where sufficient relevant data is not available to determine an average value and variability, the Engineer may perform a sensitivity analysis using average parameters and a parameter reduced by one standard deviation, i.e., "mean minus 1 sigma," or a lower bound value. By conducting analyses at these two potential values, an assessment is made of the sensitivity of the analysis results to a range of potential design values. If these analyses indicate that acceptable results are provided and that the analyses are not particularly sensitive to the selected parameters, the Engineer may be comfortable with concluding the analyses. If, on the other hand, the Engineer determines that the calculation results are marginal or that the results are sensitive to the selected parameter, additional data collection/review and parameter selection are warranted.
- C When evaluating service limit states, it is often appropriate to determine both upper and lower bound values from the relevant data, since the difference in displacement of substructure units is often more critical to overall performance than the actual value of the displacement for the individual substructure unit.
- C For strength limit states, average measured values of relevant laboratory test data and/or in-situ test data were used to calibrate the resistance factors provided in Article 10.5, at least for those resistance factors developed using reliability theory, rather than a lower bound value. It should be recognized that to be consistent with how the resistance factors presented in Article 8.5.5.2 were calibrated, i.e., to average property values, accounting for the typical variability in the property, average property values for a given geologic unit should be selected. However, depending on the availability of soil or rock property data and the variability of the geologic strata under consideration, it

may not be possible to reliably estimate the average value of the properties needed for design. In such cases, the Engineer may have no choice but to use a more conservative selection of design parameters to mitigate the additional risks created by potential variability or the paucity of relevant data.

- C Note that for those resistance factors that were determined based on calibration by fitting to allowable stress design, this property selection issue is not relevant, and property selection should be based on past practice.

8.4.6.2. Soil Strength

1. General

The selection of soil shear strength for design should consider, at a minimum, the following:

- the rate of construction loading relative to the hydraulic conductivity of the soil, i.e., drained or undrained strengths;
- the effect of applied load direction on the measured shear strengths during testing;
- the effect of expected levels of deformation for the geotechnical structure;
- the effect of the construction sequence.

- C Refer to [Sabatini et al. \(2002\)](#) for additional guidance on determining which soil strength parameters are appropriate for evaluating a particular soil type and loading condition. In general, where loading is rapid enough and/or the hydraulic conductivity of the soil is low enough such that excess pore pressure induced by the loading does not dissipate, undrained (total) stress parameters should be used. Where loading is slow enough and/or the hydraulic conductivity of the soil is great enough such that excess pore pressures induced by the applied load dissipate as the load is applied, drained (effective) soil parameters should be used. Drained (effective) soil parameters should also be used to evaluate long term conditions where excess pore pressures have been allowed to dissipate or where the designer has explicit knowledge of the expected magnitude and distribution of the excess pore pressure.

2. Undrained Strength of Cohesive Soils

Where possible, laboratory consolidated undrained (CU) and unconsolidated undrained (UU) testing should be used to estimate the undrained shear strength, S_u , supplemented as needed with values determined from in-situ testing. Where collection of undisturbed samples for laboratory testing is difficult, values obtained from in-situ testing methods may be used. For relatively thick deposits of cohesive soil, profiles of S_u as a function of depth should be obtained so that the deposit stress history and properties can be ascertained.

- C For design analyses of short-term conditions in normally to lightly overconsolidated cohesive soils, the undrained shear strength, S_u , is commonly evaluated. Since undrained strength is not a unique property, profiles of undrained strength developed using different testing methods will vary. Typical transportation project practice entails determination of S_u based on laboratory CU and UU testing and, for cases where undisturbed sampling is very difficult, field vane testing. Other in-situ methods can also be used to estimate the value of S_u .
- C Specific issues that should be considered when estimating the undrained shear strength are described below:
- Strength measurements from hand torvanes, pocket penetrometers, or unconfined compression tests should not be solely used to evaluate undrained shear strength for design analyses. Consolidated undrained (CU) triaxial tests and in-situ tests should be used.
 - For relatively deep deposits of cohesive soil, e.g., approximately 6000 mm depth or more, all available undrained strength data should be plotted with depth. The type of test used to evaluate each undrained strength value should be clearly identified. Known soil layering should be used so that trends in undrained strength data can be developed for each soil layer.

- Review data summaries for each laboratory strength test method. Moisture contents of specimens for strength testing should be compared to moisture contents of other samples at similar depths. Significant changes in moisture content will affect measured undrained strengths. Review boring logs, Atterberg limits, grain size, and unit weight measurements to confirm soil layering.
- CU tests on normally to slightly over consolidated samples that exhibit disturbance should contain at least one specimen consolidated to at least $4\sigma_p'$ to permit extrapolation of the undrained shear strength at σ_p' .
- Undrained strengths from CU tests correspond to the effective consolidation pressure used in the test. This effective stress needs to be converted to the equivalent depth in the ground.
- A profile of σ_p' (or OCR) should be developed and used in evaluating undrained shear strength.
- Correlations for S_u based on in-situ test measurements should not be used for final design unless they have been calibrated to the specific soil profile under consideration. Correlations for S_u based on *SPT* tests should be avoided.

3. Drained Strength of Cohesive Soils

Long-term effective stress strength parameters, c' and ϕ'_f , of clays should be evaluated by slow consolidated drained direct shear box tests, consolidated drained (CD) triaxial tests, or consolidated undrained (CU) triaxial tests with pore pressure measurements. In laboratory tests, the rate of shearing should be sufficiently slow to ensure substantially complete dissipation of excess pore pressure in the drained tests or, in undrained tests, complete equalization of pore pressure throughout the specimen.

- C The selection of peak, fully softened, or residual strength for design analyses should be based on a review of the expected or tolerable displacements of the soil mass.
- C The use of a nonzero cohesion intercept (c') for long-term analyses in natural materials must be carefully assessed. With continuing displacements, it is likely that the cohesion intercept value will decrease to zero for long-term conditions, especially for highly plastic clays.

4. Drained Strength of Granular Soils

The drained friction angle of granular deposits should be evaluated by correlation to the results of *SPT* testing, *CPT* testing, or other relevant in-situ tests. Laboratory shear strength tests on undisturbed samples, if feasible to obtain, or reconstituted disturbed samples, may also be used to determine the shear strength of granular soils.

- C Because obtaining undisturbed samples of granular deposits for laboratory testing is extremely difficult, the results of in-situ tests are commonly used to develop estimates of the drained friction angle, ϕ . If reconstituted disturbed soil samples and laboratory tests are used to estimate the drained friction angle, the reconstituted samples should be compacted to the same relative density estimated from the available in-situ data. The test specimen should be large enough to allow the full grain size range of the soil to be included in the specimen. This may not always be possible, and if not possible, it should be recognized that the shear strength measured would likely be conservative.
- C A method using the results of *SPT* testing is presented. Other in-situ tests such as *CPT* and *DMT* may be used. For details on determination of ϕ from these tests, refer to [Sabatini et al. \(2002\)](#).

If *SPT* N values are used, unless otherwise specified for the design method or correlation being used, they shall be corrected for the effects of overburden pressure determined as:

$$N1 = C_N N \quad (8.1)$$

where:

$$N1 = \text{SPT blow count corrected for overburden pressure, } \sigma'_v \text{ (blows/300 mm)}$$

$$C_N = [0.77 \log_{10} (1.92 / \sigma'_v)], \text{ and } C_N < 2.0$$

σ'_v = vertical effective stress (MPa)

N = uncorrected *SPT* blow count (blows/300 mm)

SPT N values should also be corrected for hammer efficiency, if applicable to the design method or correlation being used, determined as:

$$N_{60} = (ER/60\%)N \quad (8.2)$$

where:

N_{60} = *SPT* blow count corrected for hammer efficiency (blows/300 mm)

ER = hammer efficiency expressed as percent of theoretical free fall energy delivered by the hammer system actually used. The following values for ER may be assumed if hammer specific data are not available, e.g., from older boring logs:

ER = 60 percent for conventional drop hammer using rope and cathead.

ER = 80 percent for automatic trip hammer.

N = uncorrected *SPT* blow count (blows/300 mm)

- C The use of automatic trip hammers is increasing. In order to use correlations based on standard rope and cathead hammers, the *SPT* N values must be corrected to reflect the greater energy delivered to the sampler by these systems.
- C Hammer efficiency (ER) for specific hammer systems used in local practice may be used in lieu of the values provided. If used, specific hammer system efficiencies shall be developed in general accordance with [ASTM D4945](#) for dynamic analysis of driven piles or other accepted procedure.
- C The following values for ER may be assumed if hammer specific data are not available, e.g., from older boring logs:
 - ER = 60 percent for conventional drop hammer using rope and cathead
 - ER = 80 percent for automatic trip hammer
- C Corrections for rod length, hole size, and use of a liner may also be made if appropriate. In general, these are only significant in unusual cases or where there is significant variation from standard procedures. These corrections may be significant for evaluation of liquefaction. Information on these additional corrections may be found in [Youd and Idriss, 1997](#).

When *SPT* blow counts have been corrected for both overburden effects and hammer efficiency effects, the resulting corrected blow count shall be denoted as N_{160} , determined as:

$$N_{160} = C_N N_{60} \quad (8.3)$$

The drained friction angle of granular deposits should be determined based on the following correlation.

Table 8.2: Correlation of *SPT* N_{160} values to drained friction angle of granular soils (modified after [Bowles, 1977](#))

N_{160}	ϕ_f
<4	25–30
4	27–32
10	30–35

30	35–40
50	38–43

- C The N_{160} - ϕ correlation used is modified after Bowles (1977). The correlation of Peck, Hanson and Thornburn (1974) falls within the ranges specified. Experience should be used to select specific values within the ranges. In general, finer materials or materials with significant silt-sized material will fall in the lower portion of the range. Coarser materials with less than five percent fines will fall in the upper portion of the ranges. The geologic history and angularity of the particles may also need to be considered when selecting a value for ϕ .
- C Care should be exercised when using other correlations of *SPT* results to soil parameters. Some published correlations are based on corrected values (N_{160}) and some are based on uncorrected values (N). The designer should ascertain the basis of the correlation and use either N_{160} or N as appropriate.
- C Care should also be exercised when using *SPT* blow counts to estimate soil shear strength if in soils with coarse gravel, cobbles, or boulders. Large gravels, cobbles, or boulders could cause the *SPT* blow counts to be unrealistically high.

For gravels and rock fill materials where *SPT* testing is not reliable, Figure 8.1 should be used to estimate the drained friction angle.

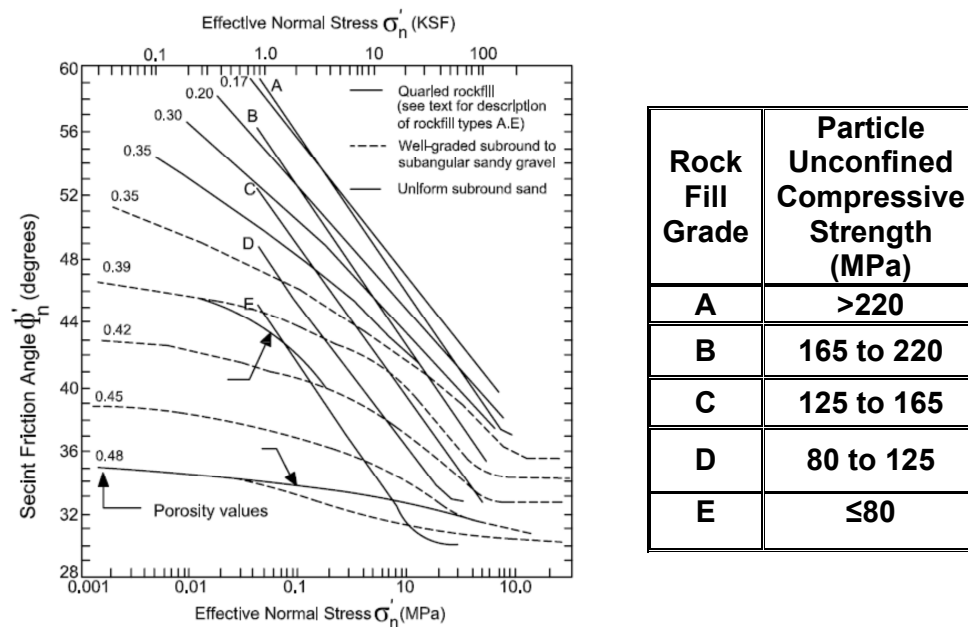


Figure 8.1: Estimation of drained friction angle of gravels and rock fills (modified after Terzaghi, Peck, and Mesri, 1996)

- C The secant friction angle derived from the procedure to estimate the drained friction angle of gravels and rock fill materials depicted in Figure 8.1 is based on a straight line from the origin of a Mohr diagram to the intersection with the strength envelope at the effective normal stress. Thus the angle derived is applicable only to analysis of field conditions subject to similar normal stresses.

8.4.6.3. Soil Deformation

Consolidation parameters C_c , C_r , C_α should be determined from the results of one-dimensional consolidation tests. To assess the potential variability in the settlement estimate, the average, upper and lower bound values obtained from testing should be considered.

- C It is important to understand whether the values obtained are computed based on a void ratio definition or a strain definition. Computational methods vary for each definition.
- C For preliminary analyses or where accurate prediction of settlement is not critical, values obtained from correlations to index properties may be used. Refer to Sabatini et al. (2002) for discussion of the various correlations available. If correlations for prediction of settlement are used, their applicability to the specific geologic formation under consideration should be evaluated..

Pre-consolidation stress may be determined from one-dimensional consolidation tests and in-situ tests. Knowledge of the stress history of the soil should be used to supplement data from laboratory and/or in-situ tests, if available.

- C A profile of σ'_p , or $\text{OCR} = \sigma'_p/\sigma'_{o'}$, with depth should be developed for the site for design applications where the stress history could have a significant impact on the design properties selected and the performance of the foundation. As with consolidation properties, an upper and lower bound profile should be developed based on laboratory tests and plotted with a profile based on particular in-situ test(s), if used. It is particularly important to accurately compute pre-consolidation stress values for relatively shallow depths where in-situ effective stresses are low. An underestimation of the pre-consolidation stress at shallow depths will result in overly conservative estimates of settlement for shallow soil layers.

The coefficient of consolidation, c_v , should be determined from the results of one-dimensional consolidation tests. The variability in laboratory determination of c_v results should be considered in the final selection of the value of c_v to be used for design.

- C Due to the numerous simplifying assumptions associated with conventional consolidation theory, on which the coefficient of consolidation is based, it is unlikely that even the best estimates of c_v from high-quality laboratory tests will result in predictions of time rate of settlement in the field that are significantly better than a prediction within one order of magnitude. In general, the in-situ value of c_v is larger than the value measured in the laboratory test. Therefore, a rational approach is to select average, upper, and lower bound values for the appropriate stress range of concern for the design application. These values should be compared to values obtained from previous work performed in the same soil deposit. Under the best-case conditions, these values should be compared to values computed from measurements of excess pore pressures or settlement rates during construction of other structures.
- C *CPTu* tests in which the pore pressure dissipation rate is measured may be used to estimate the field coefficient of consolidation.
- C For preliminary analyses or where accurate prediction of settlement is not critical, values obtained from correlations to index properties presented in Sabatini et al. (2002) may be used.

Where evaluation of elastic settlement is critical to the design of the foundation or selection of the foundation type, in-situ methods such as Pressuremeter Test (*PMT*) or Dilatometer Test (*DMT*) for evaluating the modulus of the stratum should be used.

- C For preliminary design or for final design where the prediction of deformation is not critical to structure performance, i.e., the structure design can tolerate the potential inaccuracies inherent in the correlations. The elastic properties (E_s , ν) of a soil may be estimated from empirical relationships presented in Table 8.3.
- C The specific definition of E_s is not always consistent for the various correlations and methods of in-situ measurement. See Sabatini et al. (2002) for additional details regarding the definition and determination of E_s .
- C An alternative method of evaluating the equivalent elastic modulus using measured shear wave velocities is presented in Sabatini et al. (2002).

Table 8.3: Elastic Constants of Various Soils (Modified after U.S. Department of the Navy, 1982, and Bowles, 1988).

Soil Type	Typical Range of Young's Modulus Values, E_s (MPa)	Poisson's Ratio, ν (dim.)
Clay: Soft sensitive Medium stiff to stiff Very stiff	2.4–15 15–50 50–100	0.4–0.5 (undrained)
Loess Silt	15–60 2–20	0.1–0.3 0.3–0.35
Fine Sand: Loose Medium dense Dense	7.5–10 10–20 20–25	0.25
Sand: Loose Medium dense Dense	10–25 25–50 50–75	0.20–0.36 0.30–0.40
Gravel: Loose Medium dense Dense	25–75 75–100 100–200	0.20–0.35 0.30–0.40
Estimating E_s from SPT N Value		
Soil Type		E_s (MPa)
Silts, sandy silts, slightly cohesive mixtures		0.4 N_{160}
Clean fine to medium sands and slightly silty sands		0.7 N_{160}
Coarse sands and sands with little gravel		1.0 N_{160}
Sandy gravel and gravels		1.1 N_{160}
Estimating E_s from q_c (static cone resistance)		
Sandy soils		$4q_c$

- C The modulus of elasticity for normally consolidated granular soils tends to increase with depth. An alternative method of defining the soil modulus for granular soils is to assume that it increases linearly with depth starting at zero at the ground surface in accordance with the following equation:

$$E_s = n_h \times z \quad (8.4)$$

- C where:

E_s = the soil modulus at depth z (MPa)

n_h = rate of increase of soil modulus with depth as defined in [Table 8.4](#) (MPa/mm)

z = depth below the ground surface (mm)

Table 8.4: Rate of Increase of Soil Modulus with Depth n_h (MPa/mm) for Sand .

Consistency	Dry or Moist	Submerged
Loose	9.4×10^{-3}	4.7×10^{-3}
Medium	0.025	0.013
Dense	0.063	0.031

- C The formulation provided in Eq. (8.4) is used primarily for analysis of lateral response or buckling of deep foundations.
- C The potential for soil swell that may result in uplift on deep foundations or heave of shallow foundations should be evaluated based on Table 8.5.

Table 8.5: Method for Identifying Potentially Expansive Soils (Reese and O'Neill, 1988).

Liquid Limit LL (%)	Plastic Limit PL (%)	Soil Suction (MPa)	Potential Swell (%)	Potential Swell Classification
>60	>35	>0.38	>1.5	High
50–60	25–35	0.14–0.38	0.5–1.5	Marginal
<50	<25	<0.14	<0.5	Low

8.4.6.4. Rock Mass Strength

The strength of intact rock material should be determined using the results of unconfined compression tests on intact rock cores, splitting tensile tests on intact rock cores, or point load strength tests on intact specimens of rock.

- C Because of the importance of the discontinuities in rock, and the fact that most rock is much more discontinuous than soil, emphasis is placed on visual assessment of the rock and the rock mass.
- C Other methods for assessing rock mass strength, including in-situ tests or other visual systems that have proven to yield accurate results may be used in lieu of the specified method.

The rock should be classified using the rock mass rating system (RMR) as described in Table 8.6. For each of the five parameters in the Table, the relative rating based on the ranges of values provided should be evaluated. The rock mass rating (RMR) should be determined as the sum of all five relative ratings. The RMR should be adjusted in accordance with the criteria in Table 8.7. The rock classification should be determined in accordance with Table 8.8.

Table 8.6: Geomechanics Classification of Rock Masses

Parameter			Ranges of Values						
1	Strength of intact rock material	Point load strength index	>8 MPa	4–8 MPa	2–4 MPa	1–2 MPa	For this low range, uniaxial Strength of compressive test is preferred		
		Uniaxial compressive strength	>200 MPa	100–200 MPa	50–100 MPa	25–50 MPa	10–25 MPa	3.5–10 MPa	1.0–3.5 MPa
	Relative Rating		15	12	7	4	2	1	0
2	Drill core quality RQD		90% to 100%		75% to 90%	50% to 75%	25% to 50%		<25%
	Relative Rating		20		17	13	8		3
3	Spacing of joints		>3000 mm		900–3000 mm	300–900 mm	50–300 mm		<50 mm
	Relative Rating		30		25	20	10		5
4	Condition of joints		• Very rough Surfaces • Not continuous • No separation • Hard joint wall rock		• Slightly rough surfaces • Separation <1.25 mm • Hard joint wall rock	• Slightly rough surfaces • Separation <1.25 mm • Soft joint wall rock	• Slicken-sided surfaces or • Gouge <5 mm thick or • Joints open 1.25–5 mm • Continuous joints	• Soft gouge >5 mm thick or • Joints open >5 mm • Continuous joints	
	Relative Rating		25		20	12	6		0
5	Groundwater conditions (use one of the three evaluation criteria as appropriate to the method of exploration)	Inflow per 10 000 mm tunnel length	None		<25 L/min		25–125 L/min		>125 L/min
		Ratio = joint water pressure/ major principal stress	0		0.0–0.2		0.2–0.5		>0.5
		General Conditions	Completely Dry		Moist only (interstitial water)		Water under moderate pressure		Severe water problems
		Relative Rating		10		7		4	

Table 8.7: Geomechanics Rating Adjustment for Joint Orientations.

Strike and Dip Orientations of Joints		Very Favorable	Favorable	Fair	Unfavorable	Very Unfavorable
Ratings	Tunnels	0	–2	–5	–10	–12
	Foundations	0	–2	–7	–15	–25
	Slopes	0	–5	–25	–50	–60

Table 8.8: Geomechanics Rock Mass Classes Determined from Total Ratings.

RMR Rating	100–81	80–61	60–41	40–21	<20
Class No.	I	II	III	IV	V
Description	Very good rock	Good rock	Fair rock	Poor rock	Very poor rock

The shear strength of fractured rock masses should be evaluated using the **Hoek and Brown** criteria, in which the shear strength is represented as a curved envelope that is a function of the uniaxial compressive strength of the intact rock, q_u , and two dimensionless constants m and s . The values of m and s as defined in [Table 8.9](#) should be used.

- C This method was developed by **Hoek (1983)** and **Hoek and Brown (1988, 1997)**. Note that the instantaneous cohesion at a discrete value of normal stress can be taken as:

$$c_i = \tau - \sigma'_n \tan \phi'_i \quad (8.5)$$

- C The instantaneous cohesion and instantaneous friction angle define a conventional linear Mohr envelope at the normal stress under consideration. For normal stresses significantly different than that used to compute the instantaneous values, the resulting shear strength will be unconservative. If there is considerable variation in the effective normal stress in the zone of concern, consideration should be given to subdividing the zone into areas where the normal stress is relative constant and assigning separate strength parameters to each zone. Alternatively, the methods of **Hoek (1983)** may be used to compute average values for the range of normal stresses expected.

The shear strength of the rock mass should be determined as:

$$\tau = (\cot \phi'_i - \cos \phi'_i) m \frac{q_u}{8} \quad (8.6)$$

in which:

$$\phi'_i = \tan^{-1} \left\{ 4h \cos^2 \left[30 + 0.33 \sin^{-1} \left(h^{\frac{-3}{2}} \right) \right] - 1 \right\}^{\frac{-1}{2}}$$

$$h = 1 + \frac{16(m\sigma'_n + sq_u)}{(3m^2q_u)}$$

where:

- τ = the shear strength of the rock mass (MPa)
- ϕ'_i = the instantaneous friction angle of the rock mass (degrees)
- q_u = average unconfined compressive strength of rock core (MPa)
- σ'_n = effective normal stress (MPa)
- m, s = constants from [Table 8.9](#) (dim.)

Table 8.9: Approximate Relationship between Rock-Mass Quality and Material Constants Used in Defining Nonlinear Strength (Hoek and Brown, 1988)

Rock Quality	Constants	Rock Type				
		A = Carbonate rocks with well developed crystal cleavage— <i>dolomite, limestone and marble</i> . B = Lithified argillaceous rocks— <i>mudstone, siltstone, shale and slate (normal to cleavage)</i> C = Arenaceous rocks with strong crystals and poorly developed crystal cleavage— <i>sandstone and quartzite</i> D = Fine grained polyminerallic igneous crystalline rocks— <i>andesite, dolerite, diabase and rhyolite</i> E = Coarse grained polyminerallic igneous & metamorphic crystalline rocks— <i>amphibolite, gabbro gneiss, granite, norite, quartz-diorite</i>				
		A	B	C	D	E
INTACT ROCK SAMPLES Laboratory size specimens free from discontinuities CSIR rating: RMR = 100	m s	7.00 1.00	10.00 1.00	15.00 1.00	17.00 1.00	25.00 1.00
VERY GOOD QUALITY ROCK MASS Tightly interlocking undisturbed rock with unweathered joints at 900–3000 mm CSIR rating: RMR = 85	m s	2.40 0.082	3.43 0.082	5.14 0.082	5.82 0.082	8.567 0.082
GOOD QUALITY ROCK MASS Fresh to slightly weathered rock, slightly disturbed with joints at 900–3000 mm CSIR rating: RMR = 65	m s	0.575 0.00293	0.821 0.00293	1.231 0.00293	1.395 0.00293	2.052 0.00293
FAIR QUALITY ROCK MASS Several sets of moderately weathered joints spaced at 300–900 mm CSIR rating: RMR = 44	m s	0.128 0.00009	0.183 0.00009	0.275 0.00009	0.311 0.00009	0.458 0.00009
POOR QUALITY ROCK MASS Numerous weathered joints at 50–300 mm; some gouge. Clean compacted waste rock. CSIR rating: RMR = 23	m s	0.029 3×10^{-6}	0.041 3×10^{-6}	0.061 3×10^{-6}	0.069 3×10^{-6}	0.102 3×10^{-6}
VERY POOR QUALITY ROCK MASS Numerous heavily weathered joints spaced <50 mm with gouge. Waste rock with fines. CSIR rating: RMR = 3	m s	0.007 1×10^{-7}	0.010 1×10^{-7}	0.015 1×10^{-7}	0.017 1×10^{-7}	0.025 1×10^{-7}

Where it is necessary to evaluate the strength of a single discontinuity or set of discontinuities, the strength along the discontinuity should be determined as follows:

- For smooth discontinuities, the shear strength is represented by a friction angle of the parent rock material. To evaluate the friction angle of this type of discontinuity surface for design, direct shear tests on samples should be

performed. Samples should be formed in the laboratory by cutting samples of intact core.

- For rough discontinuities the nonlinear criterion of **Barton (1976)** should be applied.

C The range of typical friction angles provided in [Table 8.10](#) may be used in evaluating measured values of friction angles for smooth joints.

Table 8.10: Typical Ranges of Friction Angles for Smooth Joints in a Variety of Rock Types
(Modified after Barton, 1976; Jaeger and Cook, 1976)

Rock Class	Friction Angle Range	Typical Rock Types
Low Friction	20–27°	Schists (high mica content), shale, marl
Medium Friction	27–34°	Sandstone, siltstone, chalk, gneiss, slate
High Friction	34–40°	Basalt, granite, limestone, conglomerate

Note: Values assume no infilling and little relative movement between joint faces.

C When a major discontinuity with a significant thickness of infilling is to be investigated, the shear strength will be governed by the strength of the infilling material and the past and expected future displacement of the discontinuity. Refer to **Sabatini et al. (2002)** for detailed procedures to evaluate infilled discontinuities.

8.4.6.5. Rock Mass Deformation

The elastic modulus of a rock mass (E_m) shall be taken as the lesser of the intact modulus of a sample of rock core (E_i) or the modulus determined from one of the following equations:

$$E_m = 1000 \left(10^{\frac{RMR-10}{40}} \right) \quad (8.7)$$

where:

E_m = elastic modulus of the rock mass (MPa)

$E_m \leq E_i$

E_i = elastic modulus of intact rock (MPa)

RMR = rock mass rating specified in Article [8.4.6.4](#)

or

$$E_m = \left(\frac{E_m}{E_i} \right) E_i \quad (8.8)$$

where:

E_m = elastic modulus of the rock mass (MPa)

E_m/E_i = reduction factor determined from [Table 8.11](#) (dim.)

E_i = elastic modulus of intact rock from tests (MPa)

For critical or large structures, determination of rock mass modulus (E_m) using in-situ tests may be warranted. Refer to **Sabatini et al. (2002)** for descriptions of suitable in-situ tests.

Table 8.11: Estimation of E_m based on RQD^1 (after O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

RQD (percent)	E_m/E_i	
	Closed Joints	Open Joints
100	1.00	0.60
70	0.70	0.10
50	0.15	0.10
20	0.05	0.05

See Article [8.6.2.4.4](#) for more information about RQD

- C [Table 8.11](#) was developed by O'Neill and Reese (1999) based on a reanalysis of the data presented by Carter and Kulhawy (1988) for the purposes of estimating side resistance of shafts in rock.
- C Preliminary estimates of the elastic modulus of intact rock may be made from [Table 8.12](#).
- C It is extremely important to use the elastic modulus of the rock mass for computation of displacements of rock materials under applied loads. Use of the intact modulus will result in unrealistic and unconservative estimates.

Table 8.12: Summary of Elastic Moduli for Intact Rock (Modified after Kulhawy, 1978).

Rock Type	No. of Values	No. of Rock Types	Elastic Modulus, E_i (MPa $\times 10^3$)			Standard Deviation (MPa $\times 10^3$)
			Maximum	Minimum	Mean	
Granite	26	26	100.0	6.410	52.70	24.48
Diorite	3	3	112.0	17.100	51.40	42.68
Gabbro	3	3	84.1	67.600	75.80	6.69
Diabase	7	7	104.0	69.000	88.30	12.27
Basalt	12	12	84.1	29.000	56.10	17.93
Quartzite	7	7	88.3	36.500	66.10	16.00
Marble	14	13	73.8	4.000	42.60	17.17
Gneiss	13	13	82.1	28.500	61.10	15.93
Slate	11	2	26.1	2.410	9.58	6.62
Schist	13	12	69.0	5.930	34.30	21.93
Phyllite	3	3	17.3	8.620	11.80	3.93
Sandstone	27	19	39.2	0.620	14.70	8.20
Siltstone	5	5	32.8	2.620	16.50	11.38
Shale	30	14	38.6	0.007	9.79	10.00
Limestone	30	30	89.6	4.480	39.30	25.72
Dolostone	17	16	78.6	5.720	29.10	23.72

Poisson's ratio for rock should be determined from tests on intact rock core.

¹ Rock Quality Designation (RQD) values provide a basis for making preliminary design decisions involving estimation of required depths of excavation for foundations of structures. The RQD values also can serve to identify potential problems related to bearing capacity, settlement, erosion, or sliding in rock foundations. The RQD can provide an indication of rock quality in quarries for concrete aggregate, rockfill, or large riprap.

Used alone, RQD is not sufficient to provide an adequate description of rock mass quality. The RQD does not account for joint orientation, tightness, continuity, and gouge material. The RQD must be used in combination with other geological and geotechnical input.

For more information, ASTM D6032-08 "Standard Test Method for Determining Rock Quality Designation (RQD) of Rock Core" covers well this matter.

Where tests on rock core are not practical, Poisson's ratio may be estimated from [Table 8.13](#).

Table 8.13: Summary of Poisson's Ratio for Intact Rock (Modified after [Kulhawy, 1978](#))

Rock Type	No. of Values	No. of Rock Types	Poisson's Ratio, ν			Standard Deviation
			Maximum	Minimum	Mean	
Granite	22	22	0.39	0.09	0.20	0.08
Gabbro	3	3	0.20	0.16	0.18	0.02
Diabase	6	6	0.38	0.20	0.29	0.06
Basalt	11	11	0.32	0.16	0.23	0.05
Quartzite	6	6	0.22	0.08	0.14	0.05
Marble	5	5	0.40	0.17	0.28	0.08
Gneiss	11	11	0.40	0.09	0.22	0.09
Schist	12	11	0.31	0.02	0.12	0.08
Sandstone	12	9	0.46	0.08	0.20	0.11
Siltstone	3	3	0.23	0.09	0.18	0.06
Shale	3	3	0.18	0.03	0.09	0.06
Limestone	19	19	0.33	0.12	0.23	0.06
Dolostone	5	5	0.35	0.14	0.29	0.08

8.4.6.6. Erodibility of Rock

Consideration should be given to the physical characteristics of the rock and the condition of the rock mass when determining a rock's susceptibility to erosion in the vicinity of bridge foundations. Physical characteristics that should be considered in the assessment of erodibility include cementing agents, mineralogy, joint spacing, and weathering.

- C There is no consensus on how to determine erodibility of rock masses near bridge foundations. Refer to Richardson and [Davis \(2001\)](#) "Evaluating Scour at Bridges-Fourth Edition", [Mayne et al. \(2001\)](#), [Appendix M](#) for guidance on two proposed methods. The first method was proposed in an [FHWA memorandum of July 1991](#) and consists of evaluating various rock index properties. The second method is documented in [Smith \(1994\)](#) "Preliminary Procedure to Evaluate Scour in Bedrock" which uses the erodibility index proposed by [G. W. Annandale](#). The Engineer should consider the appropriateness of these two methods when determining the potential for a rock mass to scour.

8.4.6.7. Design for Sabkha Soils

Design for Sabkha Soils shall follow the provisions of [SBC 303, Chapter 11](#).

8.5. LIMIT STATES AND RESISTANCE FACTORS

8.5.1. General

The limit states shall be as specified in Article [1.3.2](#); foundation-specific provisions are contained in this Section.

Foundations shall be proportioned so that the factored resistance is not less than the effects of the factored loads specified in [Section 3](#).

8.5.2. Service Limit States

8.5.2.1. General

Foundation design at the service limit state shall include:

- Settlements
- Horizontal movements
- Overall stability, and
- Scour at the design flood

Consideration of foundation movements shall be based upon structure tolerance to total and differential movements, rideability and economy. Foundation movements shall include all movement from settlement, horizontal movement, and rotation.

- C In bridges where the superstructure and substructure are not integrated, settlement corrections can be made by jacking and shimming bearings. Article [2.6.2.3](#) requires jacking provisions for these bridges.
- C The cost of limiting foundation movements should be compared with the cost of designing the superstructure so that it can tolerate larger movements of of correcting the consequences of movements through maintenance to determine minimum lifetime cost. The Owner may establish more stringent criteria.
- C The design flood for scour is defined in Article [2.7.4.4.2](#), and is specified in Article [3.7.5](#) as applicable at the service limit state.

Bearing resistance estimated using the presumptive allowable bearing pressure for spread footings, if used, shall be applied only to address the service limit state.

- C Presumptive bearing pressures were developed for use with working stress design. These values may be used for preliminary sizing of foundations, but should generally not be used for final design. If used for final design, presumptive values are only applicable at service limit states.

8.5.2.2. Tolerable Movements and Movement Criteria

Foundation movement criteria shall be consistent with the function and type of structure, anticipated service life, and consequences of unacceptable movements on structure performance. Foundation movement shall include vertical, horizontal, and rotational movements. The tolerable movement criteria shall be established by either empirical procedures or structural analyses, or by consideration of both.

Foundation settlement shall be investigated using all applicable loads in the Service I Load Combination specified in [Table 3.1](#). Transient loads may be omitted from settlement analyses for foundations bearing on or in cohesive soil deposits that are subject to time-dependant consolidation settlements.

All applicable service limit state load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) shall be used for evaluating horizontal movement and rotation of foundations.

- C Experience has shown that bridges can and often do accommodate more movement and/or rotation than traditionally allowed or anticipated in design. Creep, relaxation, and redistribution of force effects accommodate these movements. Some studies have been made to synthesize apparent response. These studies indicate that angular distortions between adjacent foundations greater than 0.008 rad. in simple spans and 0.004 rad. in continuous spans should not be permitted in settlement criteria ([Moulton et al., 1985](#); [DiMillio, 1982](#); [Barker et al., 1991](#)). Other angular distortion limits may be appropriate after consideration of:
 - cost of mitigation through larger foundations, realignment or surcharge,
 - rideability,
 - aesthetics, and
 - safety.
- C Rotation movements should be evaluated at the top of the substructure unit in plan location and at the deck elevation.

Horizontal movement criteria should be established at the top of the foundation based on the tolerance of the structure to lateral movement, with consideration of the column length and stiffness.

- C Tolerance of the superstructure to lateral movement will depend on bridge seat or joint widths, bearing type(s), structure type, and load distribution effects.

8.5.2.3. Overall Stability

The evaluation of overall stability of earth slopes with or without a foundation unit shall be investigated at the service limit state as specified in Article [9.6.2.3](#).

8.5.2.4. Abutment Transitions

Vertical and horizontal movements caused by embankment loads behind bridge abutments shall be investigated.

- C Settlement of foundation soils induced by embankment loads can result in excessive movements of substructure elements. Both short and long term settlement potential should be considered.
- C Settlement of improperly placed or compacted backfill behind abutments can cause poor rideability and a possibly dangerous bump at the end of the bridge. Guidance for proper detailing and material requirements for abutment backfill is provided in [Cheney and Chassie \(2000\)](#).
- C Lateral earth pressure behind and/or lateral squeeze below abutments can also contribute to lateral movement of abutments and should be investigated, if applicable.

8.5.3. Strength Limit States

8.5.3.1. General

Design of foundations at strength limit states shall include consideration of the nominal geotechnical and structural resistances of the foundation elements. Design at strength limit states shall not consider the deformations required to mobilize the nominal resistance, unless a definition of failure based on deformation is specified.

The design of all foundations at the strength limit state shall consider:

- structural resistance;
- loss of lateral and vertical support due to scour at the design flood event.

- C For the purpose of design at strength limit states, the nominal resistance is considered synonymous with the ultimate capacity of an element as previously defined under allowable stress design, i.e., AASHTO (2002).
- C For design of foundations such as piles or drilled shafts that may be based directly on static load tests, or correlation to static load tests, the definition of failure may include a deflection-limited criteria.
- C Structural resistance includes checks for axial, lateral and flexural resistance.
- C The design event for scour is defined in [Section 2](#) and is specified in Article [3.7.5](#) as applicable at the strength limit state.

8.5.3.2. Spread Footings

The design of spread footings at the strength limit state shall also consider:

- nominal bearing resistance,
- overturning or excessive loss of contact,
- sliding at the base of footing,
- constructability.

- C The designer should consider whether special construction methods are required to bear a spread footing at the design depth. Consideration should be given to the potential need for shoring, cofferdams, seals, and/or dewatering. Basal stability of excavations should be evaluated, particularly if dewatering or cofferdams are required.
- C Effort should be made to identify the presence of expansive/collapsible soils in the vicinity of the footing. If present, the structural design of the footing should be modified to accommodate the potential impact to the performance of the structure, or the expansive/collapsible soils should be removed or otherwise remediated. Special conditions such as the presence of karstic formations or mines should also be evaluated, if present.

8.5.3.3. Driven Piles

The design of pile foundations at the strength limit state shall also consider:

- axial compression resistance for single piles,
 - pile group compression resistance,
 - uplift resistance for single piles,
 - uplift resistance for pile groups,
 - pile punching failure into a weaker stratum below the bearing stratum,
 - single pile and pile group lateral resistance, and
 - constructability, including pile drivability.
- C For pile foundations, as part of the evaluation for the strength limit states identified herein, the effects of downdrag, soil setup or relaxation, and buoyancy due to groundwater should be evaluated.
 - C If a pile cap is needed, see also commentary in Articles [8.5.3.2](#)

8.5.3.4. Drilled Shafts

The design of drilled shaft foundations at the strength limit state shall also consider:

- axial compression resistance for single drilled shafts,
 - shaft group compression resistance,
 - uplift resistance for single shafts,
 - uplift resistance for shaft groups,
 - single shaft and shaft group lateral resistance,
 - shaft punching failure into a weaker stratum below the bearing stratum, and
 - constructability, including method(s) of shaft construction.
- C See commentary in Articles [8.5.3.2](#) and [8.5.3.3](#).
 - C The design of drilled shafts for each of these limit states should include the effects of the method of construction, including construction sequencing, whether the shaft will be excavated in the dry or if wet methods must be used, as well as the need for temporary or permanent casing to control caving ground conditions. The design assumptions regarding construction methods must carry through to the contract documents to provide assurance that the geotechnical and structural resistance used for design will be provided by the constructed product.

8.5.3.5. Micropiles

The design of micropiles foundations at the strength limit state shall also consider:

- axial compression resistance for single micropile,
- micropile group compression resistance,
- uplift resistance for single micropile,
- uplift resistance for micropile group,

- micropile group punching failure into a weaker stratum below the bearing stratum, and single micropile punching failure where tip resistance is considered,
 - single micropile and micropile group lateral resistance, and
 - constructibility, including method(s) of micropile construction.
- C The commentary in Article [8.5.3.2](#) is applicable if a pile cap is needed. The design of micropiles for each of these limit states should include the effects of the method of construction for the micropile type to be constructed. The design assumptions regarding construction methods must carry through to the contract documents to provide assurance that the geotechnical and structural resistance used for design will be provided by the constructed product.

8.5.4. Extreme Events Limit States

Foundations shall be designed for extreme events as applicable.

- C Extreme events include the check flood for scour, vessel and vehicle collision, seismic loading, and other site-specific situations that the Engineer determines should be included. Appendix A8 gives additional guidance regarding seismic analysis and design.

8.5.4.1. Liquefaction Design Requirements

Liquefaction assessment shall be required for bridges in Seismic Design Category D. If it is determined that liquefaction can occur at a bridge site then the bridge shall be supported on deep foundations or the ground improved so that liquefaction does not occur.

For liquefied sites subject to lateral flow, the Engineer shall consider the use of large diameter shafts in lieu of the conventional pile cap foundation type in order to minimize lateral flow demands on the bridge foundation.

If liquefaction occurs then the bridge shall be designed and analyzed in two configurations as follows:

- *Non-liquefied Configuration:* The structure shall be analyzed and designed, assuming no liquefaction occurs using the ground response spectrum appropriate for the site soil conditions.
- *Liquefied Configuration:* The structure as designed in non-liquefied configuration above shall be reanalyzed and redesigned, if necessary, assuming that the layer has liquefied and the liquefied soil provides the appropriate residual resistance (i.e., P - y curves or modulus of subgrade reaction values for lateral pile response analyses consistent with liquefied soil conditions). The design spectra shall be the same as that used in non-liquefied configuration unless a site-specific response spectra has been developed using non-linear, effective stress methods that properly account for the buildup in pore-water pressure and stiffness degradation in liquefiable layers. The reduced response spectra resulting from the site-specific non-linear, effective stress analyses shall not be less than 2/3 of that used in the non-liquefied configuration.

The Designer shall cover explicit detailing of plastic hinging zones for both cases specified above since it is likely that locations of plastic hinges for the Liquefied Configuration are different than locations of plastic hinges for the Non-liquefied Configuration. Design requirements of Seismic Design Category D including shear reinforcement shall be met for the liquefied and non-liquefied configuration.

- C Liquefaction below a spread footing foundation can result in three conditions that lead to damage or failure of a bridge:

- Loss in bearing support which causes large vertical downward movement;
 - Imposition of horizontal forces on the footing from lateral flow or lateral spreading of the soil;
 - Settlements of the soil as pore water pressures in the liquefied layers dissipate.
- C Most liquefaction-related damage during past earthquakes has been related to lateral flow or spreading of the soil. In these cases ground movements could be 900 mm or more. If the spread footing foundation is located above the water table, as is often the case, it will be very difficult to prevent the footing from being displaced with the moving ground. This could result in severe column distortion and eventual loss of supporting capacity.
- C In some underwater locations, it is possible that the lateral flow could move past the footing without causing excessive loading; however, these cases will be limited.
- C If liquefaction with no lateral flow occurs for Seismic Design Category D, then the only additional design requirements are those reinforcement requirements specified for the piles. Additional analyses are not required although for essential or critical bridges additional analyses may be considered in order to assess the impact on the substructures above the foundation.
- C If liquefaction and lateral flow are predicted to occur for Seismic Design Category D, a detailed evaluation of the effects of lateral flow on the foundation should be performed. Lateral flow is one of the more difficult issues to address because of the uncertainty in the movements that may occur.
- C Ultimate plastic rotation of the piles is permitted. This plastic rotation does imply that the piles and possibly other parts of the bridge will need to be replaced if these levels of deformation do occur. Design options range from (a) an acceptance of the movements with significant damage to the piles and columns if the movements are large, to (b) designing the piles to resist the forces generated by lateral spreading. Between these options are a range of mitigation measures to limit the amount of movement to tolerable levels for the desired performance objective. Pile group effects are not significant for liquefied soil.

8.5.5. Resistance Factors

8.5.5.1. Service Limit States

Resistance factors for the service limit states shall be taken as 1.0, except as provided for overall stability in Article [9.6.2.3](#).

A resistance factor of 1.0 shall be used to assess the ability of the foundation to meet the specified deflection criteria after scour due to the design flood.

8.5.5.2. Strength Limit States

1. General

Resistance factors for different types of foundation systems at the strength limit state shall be taken as specified in Articles [8.5.5.2.2](#), [8.5.5.2.3](#), and [8.5.5.2.4](#), unless regionally specific values or substantial successful experience is available to justify higher values.

- C Regionally specific values should be determined based on substantial statistical data combined with calibration or substantial successful experience to justify higher values. Smaller resistance factors should be used if site or material variability is anticipated to be unusually high or if design assumptions are required that increase design uncertainty that have not been mitigated through conservative selection of design parameters.
- C Certain resistance factors in Articles [8.5.5.2.2](#), [8.5.5.2.3](#), [8.5.5.2.4](#), and [8.5.5.2.5](#) are presented as a function of soil type, e.g., sand or clay. Naturally occurring soils do not fall neatly into these two classifications. In general, the terms “sand” and “cohesionless soil” may be connoted to mean drained conditions during loading, while “clay” or “cohesive soil” implies undrained conditions. For other or intermediate soil classifications, such as silts or gravels, the designer should choose, depending on the load case under consideration, whether the resistance provided by the soil will be a drained or undrained strength, and select the method of computing resistance and associated resistance factor accordingly.

- C In general, resistance factors for bridge and other structure design have been derived to achieve a reliability index, β , of 3.5, an approximate probability of failure, P_f , of 1 in 5,000. However, past geotechnical design practice has resulted in an effective reliability index, β , of 3.0, or an approximate probability of a failure of 1 in 1,000, for foundations in general, and for highly redundant systems, such as pile groups, an approximate reliability index, β , of 2.3, an approximate probability of failure of 1 in 100 (Zhang et al., 2001; Paikowsky et al., 2004; Allen, 2005). If the resistance factors provided in this Article are adjusted to account for regional practices using statistical data and calibration, they should be developed using the β values provided above, with consideration given to the redundancy in the foundation system.
- C For bearing resistance, lateral resistance, and uplift calculations, the focus of the calculation is on the individual foundation element, e.g., a single pile or drilled shaft. Since these foundation elements are usually part of a foundation unit that contains multiple elements, failure of one of these foundation elements usually does not cause the entire foundation unit to reach failure, i.e., due to load sharing and overall redundancy. Therefore, the reliability of the foundation unit is usually more, and in many cases considerably more, than the reliability of the individual foundation element. Hence, a lower reliability can be successfully used for redundant foundations than is typically the case for the superstructure.
- C Note that not all of the resistance factors provided in this Article have been derived using statistical data from which a specific β value can be estimated, since such data were not always available. In those cases, where data were not available, resistance factors were estimated through calibration by fitting to past allowable stress design safety factors, e.g., the AASHTO Standard Specifications for Highway Bridges (2002).
- C Additional discussion regarding the basis for the resistance factors for each foundation type and limit state is provided in Articles 8.5.5.2.2, 8.5.5.2.3, 8.5.5.2.4, and 8.5.5.2.5. Additional, more detailed information on the development of the resistance factors for foundations provided in this Article, and a comparison of those resistance factors to previous Allowable Stress Design practice, e.g., AASHTO (2002), is provided in Allen (2005).

The foundation resistance after scour due to the design flood shall provide adequate foundation resistance using the resistance factors given in this Article.

- C Scour design for the design flood must satisfy the requirement that the factored foundation resistance after scour is greater than the factored load determined with the scoured soil removed. The resistance factors will be those used in the Strength Limit State, without scour.

2. Spread Footings

The resistance factors provided in Table 8.14 shall be used for strength limit state design of spread footings, with the exception of the deviations allowed for local practices and site specific considerations in Article 8.5.5.2.

- C The resistance factors in Table 8.14 were developed using both reliability theory and calibration by fitting to Allowable Stress Design (ASD). In general, ASD safety factors for footing bearing capacity range from 2.5 to 3.0, corresponding to a resistance factor of approximately 0.55 to 0.45, respectively, and for sliding, an ASD safety factor of 1.5, corresponding to a resistance factor of approximately 0.9. Calibration by fitting to ASD controlled the selection of the resistance factor in cases where statistical data were limited in quality or quantity. The resistance factor for sliding of cast-in-place concrete on sand is slightly lower than the other sliding resistance factors based on reliability theory analysis (Barker et al., 1991). The higher interface friction coefficient used for sliding of cast-in-place concrete on sand relative to that used for precast concrete on sand causes the cast-in-place concrete sliding analysis to be less conservative, resulting in the need for the lower resistance factor. A more detailed explanation of the development of the resistance factors provided in Table 8.14 is provided in Allen (2005).
- C The resistance factors for plate load tests and passive resistance were based on engineering judgment and past ASD practice.

Table 8.14: Resistance Factors for Geotechnical Resistance of Shallow Foundations at the Strength Limit State.

Method/Soil/Condition			Resistance Factor
Bearing Resistance	ϕ_b	Theoretical method (Munfakh et al., 2001), in clay	0.50
		Theoretical method (Munfakh et al., 2001), in sand, using CPT	0.50
		Theoretical method (Munfakh et al., 2001), in sand, using SPT	0.45
		Semi-empirical methods (Meyerhof, 1957), all soils	0.45
		Footings on rock	0.45
		Plate Load Test	0.55
Sliding	ϕ_r	Precast concrete placed on sand	0.90
		Cast-in-Place Concrete on sand	0.80
		Cast-in-Place or precast Concrete on Clay	0.85
		Soil on soil	0.90
	ϕ_{ep}	Passive earth pressure component of sliding resistance	0.50

3. Driven Piles

Resistance factors shall be selected from Table 8.15 based on the method used for determining the nominal axial pile resistance. If the resistance factors provided in Table 8.15 are to be applied to non-redundant pile groups, i.e., less than five piles in the group, the resistance factor values in the Table should be reduced by 20 percent to reflect a higher target β value. Greater reductions than this should be considered when a single pile supports an entire bridge pier, i.e., an additional 20 percent reduction in the resistance factor to achieve a β value of approximately 3.5. If the resistance factor is decreased in this manner, the η_R factor provided in Article 1.3.4 should not be increased to address the lack of foundation redundancy.

If pile resistance is verified in the field using a dynamic method such as a driving formula, or dynamic measurements combined with signal matching, the resistance factor for the field verification method should be used to determine the number of piles of a given nominal resistance needed to resist the factored loads in the strength limit state.

Regarding load tests, and dynamic tests with signal matching, the number of tests to be conducted to justify the resistance factors provided in Table 8.15, Table 8.16 and Table 8.17 should be based on the variability in the properties and geologic stratification of the site to which the test results are to be applied. A site shall be defined as a project site, or a portion of it, where the subsurface conditions can be characterized as geologically similar in terms of subsurface stratification, i.e., sequence, thickness, and geologic history of strata, the engineering properties of the strata, and groundwater conditions.

Note that a site as defined herein may be only a portion of the area in which the structure (or structures) is located. For sites where conditions are highly variable, a site could even be limited to a single pier.

To be consistent with the calibration conducted to determine the resistance factors in Table 8.15, Table 8.16 and Table 8.17, the signal matching analysis (Rausche et al., 1972) of the dynamic test data should be conducted as described in Hannigan et al. (2005).

Table 8.15: Resistance Factors for Driven Piles.

Condition/Resistance Determination Method			Resistance Factor ϕ
Nominal Resistance of Single Pile in Axial Compression— Dynamic Analysis and Static Load Test Methods, ϕ_{dyn}	Driving criteria established by static load test(s) in combination with dynamic testing or wave equation analyses.		Values in Table 8.16
	Driving criteria established by dynamic test with signal matching at beginning of redrive (BOR) conditions only of at least one production pile per pier, but no less than the number of tests per site provided in Table 8.17 . Quality control of remaining piles by calibrated wave equation and/or dynamic testing.		0.65
	Wave equation analysis, without pile dynamic measurements or load test, at end of drive conditions only		0.40
	FHWA-modified Gates dynamic pile formula (End of Drive condition only)		0.40
	Engineering News Record (as defined in Article 8.7.3.8.5) dynamic pile formula (End of Drive condition only)		0.10
Nominal Resistance of Single Pile in Axial Compression— Static Analysis Methods, ϕ_{stat}	Skin Friction and End Bearing: Clay and Mixed Soils		
	α -method (Tomlinson, 1987 ; Skempton, 1951)		0.35
	β -method (Esrig & Kirby, 1979 ; Skempton, 1951)		0.25
	γ -method (Vijayvergiya & Focht, 1972 ; Skempton, 1951)		0.40
	Skin Friction and End Bearing: Sand		
	Nordlund/Thurman Method (Hannigan et al., 2005)		0.45
	SPT-method (Meyerhof)		0.30
	CPT-method (Schmertmann)		0.50
	End bearing in rock (Canadian Geotech. Society, 1985)		0.45
Block Failure, ϕ_{bl}	Clay		0.60
Uplift Resistance of Single Piles, ϕ_{up}	α -method	See Article 8.7.3.8.6	0.25
	β -method	See Article 8.7.3.8.6	0.20
	λ -method	See Article 8.7.3.8.6	0.30
	Nordlund Method	See Article 8.7.3.8.6	0.35
	SPT-method	See Article 8.7.3.8.6	0.25
	CPT-method	See Article 8.7.3.8.6	0.40
	Load test	See Article 8.7.3.8.6	0.60
Uplift Resistance of Piles in Group, ϕ_{ug}	Sand and clay		0.50
Horizontal Geotechnical Resistance of Single Pile or Pile Group	All soils and rock		1.0
Structural Limit State	Steel piles	See the provisions of Article 6.5.4.2	
	Concrete piles	See the provisions of Article 5.5.4.2.1	
Pile Drivability Analysis, ϕ_{da}	Steel piles	See the provisions of Article 6.5.4.2	
	Concrete piles	See the provisions of Article 5.5.4.2.1	
In all three Articles identified above, use ϕ identified as “resistance during pile driving”			

Table 8.16: Relationship between Number of Static Load Tests Conducted per Site and ϕ (after Paikowsky et al., 2004).

Number of Static Load Tests per Site	Resistance Factor, ϕ		
	Site Variability		
	Low ^a	Medium ^a	High ^a
1	0.80	0.70	0.55
2	0.90	0.75	0.65
3	0.90	0.85	0.75
> 4	0.90	0.90	0.80

(a) See [Appendix B8](#)

Table 8.17: Number of Dynamic Tests with Signal Matching Analysis per Site to Be Conducted During Production Pile Driving (after Paikowsky et al., 2004).

Site Variability	Low ^a	Medium ^a	High ^a
Number of Piles Located Within Site	Number of Piles with Dynamic Tests and Signal Matching Analysis Required (BOR)		
<15	3	4	6
16–25	3	5	8
26–50	4	6	9
51–100	4	7	10
101–500	4	7	12
>500	4	7	12

(a) See [Appendix B8](#)

C For more information see [Appendix B8](#) in Article [8.12](#)

4. Drilled Shafts

Resistance factors shall be selected based on the method used for determining the nominal shaft resistance. When selecting a resistance factor for shafts in clays or other easily disturbed formations, local experience with the geologic formations and with typical shaft construction practices shall be considered.

Where the resistance factors provided in [Table 8.18](#) are to be applied to a non-redundant foundation such as a single shaft supporting a bridge pier, the resistance factor values in the Table should be reduced by 20 percent to reflect a higher target β value of 3.5, an approximate probability of failure of 1 in 5,000, to be consistent with what has been used generally for design of the superstructure. Where the resistance factor is decreased in this manner, the η_R factor provided in Article [1.3.4](#) shall not be increased to address the lack of foundation redundancy.

C The number of static load tests to be conducted to justify the resistance factors provided in [Table 8.18](#) and [Table 8.16](#) shall be based on the variability in the properties and geologic stratification of the site to which the test results are to be applied. A site, for the purpose of assessing variability shall be defined in accordance with Article [8.5.5.2.3](#).

C For more information see [Appendix C8](#).

Table 8.18: Resistance Factors for Geotechnical Resistance of Drilled Shafts.

Condition / Soil		Method	Resistance Factor
Nominal Axial Compressive Resistance of Single-Drilled Shafts, ϕ_{stat}	Side resistance in clay	α -method (O'Neill and Reese, 1999)	0.45
	Tip resistance in clay	Total Stress (O'Neill and Reese, 1999)	0.40
	Side resistance in sand	β -method (O'Neill and Reese, 1999)	0.55
	Tip resistance in sand	O'Neill and Reese (1999)	0.50
	Side resistance in IGM's ⁽³⁾	O'Neill and Reese (1999)	0.60
	Tip resistance in IGM's	O'Neill and Reese (1999)	0.55
	Side resistance in rock	Horvath and Kenney (1979) O'Neill and Reese (1999)	0.55
	Side resistance in rock	Carter and Kulhawy (1988)	0.50
	Tip resistance in rock	Canadian Geotechnical Society (1985) Pressuremeter Method (Canadian Geotechnical Society, 1985) O'Neill and Reese (1999)	0.50
Block Failure, ϕ_{bl}	Clay		0.55
Uplift Resistance of Single-Drilled Shafts, ϕ_{up}	Clay	α -method (O'Neill and Reese, 1999)	0.35
	Sand	β -method (O'Neill and Reese, 1999)	0.45
	Rock	Horvath and Kenney (1979) Carter and Kulhawy (1988)	0.40
Group Uplift Resistance, ϕ_{ug}	Sand and clay		0.45
Horizontal Geotechnical Resistance of Single Shaft or Shaft Group	All materials		1.0
Static Load Test (compression), ϕ_{load}	All Materials		Values in Table 8.16, but no greater than 0.70
Static Load Test (uplift), ϕ_{upload}	All Materials		0.60 ⁽⁴⁾

⁽³⁾ IGM's (Intermediate Geo Materials) are materials that are transitional between soil and rock in terms of their strength and compressibility, such as residual soils, glacial tills, or very weak rock.

⁽⁴⁾ As failure in uplift can be more abrupt than failure in compression. Hence, a resistance factor of 0.60 for the use of uplift load test results is recommended.

5. Micropiles

Resistance factors shall be selected from [Table 8.19](#) based on the method used for determining the nominal axial pile resistance. If the resistance factors provided in [Table 8.19](#) are to be applied to piles in potentially creeping soils, highly plastic soils, weak rock, or other marginal ground type, the resistance factor values in the Table should be reduced by 20 percent to reflect greater design uncertainty.

- C The resistance factors in [Table 8.19](#) are calibrated by fitting to ASD procedures tempered with engineering judgment. The resistance factors in [Table 8.20](#) for structural resistance were calibrated by fitting to ASD procedures and are equal to or slightly more conservative than corresponding resistance factors from [Section 5](#) of these Specifications for reinforced concrete column design.

Table 8.19: Resistance Factors for Geotechnical Resistance of Axially Loaded Micropiles

Limit state	Method/Ground Condition	Resistance Factor
Compression Resistance of Single Micropile, ϕ_{state}	Side Resistance(Bond Resistance): Presumptive Values	0.55 ⁽¹⁾
	Tip Resistance on rock O'Neill and Reese (1999)	0.50
	Side Resistance and Tip Resistance Load Test	Values in Table 8.15 , but no greater than 0.70
Block Failure, ϕ_{bl}	Clay	0.6
Uplift Resistance of Single Micropile, ϕ_{up}	Presumptive Values	0.55 ⁽¹⁾
	Tension Load Test	Values in Table 8.15 , but no greater than 0.70
Group Uplift Resistance, ϕ_{ug}	Sand and Clay	0.50

⁽¹⁾ Apply to presumptive grout-to-ground bond values for preliminary design only.

Table 8.20: Resistance Factors for Structural Resistance of Axially Loaded Micropiles

Section/Loading Condition		Resistance Factor
Pile Cased Length	Tension, ϕ_{TC}	0.80
	Compression, ϕ_{CC}	0.75
Pile Uncased Length	Tension, ϕ_{TU}	0.80
	Compression, ϕ_{CU}	0.75

8.5.5.3. Extreme Limit States

1. General

Design of foundations at extreme limit states shall be consistent with the expectation that structure collapse is prevented and that life safety is protected.

2. Scour

The foundation shall be designed so that the nominal resistance remaining after the scour resulting from the check flood (see Article [2.7.4.4.2](#)) provides adequate foundation resistance to support the unfactored Strength Limit States loads with a resistance factor of 1.0. For uplift resistance of piles and shafts, the resistance factor shall be taken as 0.80 or less.

The foundation shall resist not only the loads applied from the structure but also any debris loads occurring during the flood event.

- C The axial nominal strength after scour due to the check flood must be greater than the unfactored pile or shaft load for the Strength Limit State loads. The specified resistance factors should be used provided that the method used to compute the nominal resistance does not exhibit bias that is unconservative. See Paikowsky et al. (2004) regarding bias values for pile resistance prediction methods.
- C Design for scour is discussed in Hannigan et al. (2005).

3. Other Extreme Limit States

Resistance factors for extreme limit state, including the design of foundations to resist earthquake, ice, vehicle or vessel impact loads, shall be taken as 1.0. For uplift resistance of piles and shafts, the resistance factor shall be taken as 0.80 or less.

The difference between compression skin friction and tension skin friction should be taken into account through the resistance factor, to be consistent with how this is done for the strength limit state (see commentary in Article [8.5.5.2.2](#)).

8.6. SPREAD FOOTINGS

8.6.1. General Considerations

8.6.1.1. General

Provisions of this Article shall apply to design of isolated, continuous strip and combined footings for use in support of columns, walls and other substructure and superstructure elements. Special attention shall be given to footings on fill, to make sure that the quality of the fill placed below the footing is well controlled and of adequate quality in terms of shear strength and compressibility to support the footing loads.

- C Problems with insufficient bearing and/or excessive settlements in fill can be significant, particularly if poor, e.g., soft, wet, frozen, or nondurable, material is used, or if the material is not properly compacted.

Spread footings shall be proportioned and designed such that the supporting soil or rock provides adequate nominal resistance, considering both the potential for adequate bearing strength and the potential for settlement, under all applicable limit states in accordance with the provisions of this Section.

- C Spread footings should not be used on soil or rock conditions that are determined to be too soft or weak to support the design loads without excessive movement or loss of stability. Alternatively, the unsuitable material can be removed and replaced with suitable and properly compacted engineered fill material, or improved in place, at reasonable cost as compared to other foundation support alternatives.

Spread footings shall be proportioned and located to maintain stability under all applicable limit states, considering the potential for, but not necessarily limited to, overturning (eccentricity), sliding, uplift, overall stability and loss of lateral support.

- C Footings should be proportioned so that the stress under the footing is as nearly uniform as practicable at the service limit state. The distribution of soil stress should be consistent with properties of the soil or rock and the structure and with established principles of soil and rock mechanics.

8.6.1.2. Bearing Depth

Where the potential for scour, erosion or undermining exists, spread footings shall be located to bear below the maximum anticipated depth of scour, erosion, or undermining as specified in Article [2.7.4.4](#).

- C Consideration should be given to the use of either a geotextile or graded granular filter material to reduce the susceptibility of fine grained material piping into rip rap or open-graded granular foundation material.
- C For spread footings founded on excavated or blasted rock, attention should be paid to the effect of excavation and/or blasting. Blasting of highly resistant competent rock formations may result in overbreak and fracturing of the rock to some depth below the bearing elevation. Blasting may reduce the resistance to scour within the zone of overbreak or fracturing.
- C Evaluation of seepage forces and hydraulic gradients should be performed as part of the design of foundations that will extend below the groundwater table. Upward seepage forces in the bottom of excavations can result in piping loss of soil and/or heaving and loss of stability in the base of foundation excavations. Dewatering with wells or wellpoints can control these problems. Dewatering can result in settlement of adjacent ground or structures. If adjacent structures may be damaged by settlement induced by dewatering, seepage cut-off methods such as sheet piling or slurry walls may be necessary.

Spread footings shall be located below the depth of frost potential. Depth of frost potential shall be determined on the basis of local or regional frost penetration data.

- C Consideration may be given to over-excavation of frost susceptible material to below the frost depth and replacement with material that is not frost susceptible.

8.6.1.3. Effective Footing Dimensions

For eccentrically loaded footings, a reduced effective area, $B' \times L'$, within the confines of the physical footing, shall be used in geotechnical design for settlement or bearing resistance.

The point of load application shall be at the centroid of the reduced effective area.

The reduced dimensions for an eccentrically loaded rectangular footing shall be taken as:

$$\begin{aligned} B' &= B - 2e_B \\ L' &= L - 2e_L \end{aligned} \tag{8.9}$$

where:

e_B = eccentricity parallel to dimension B (mm)

e_L = Eccentricity parallel to dimension L (mm)

Footings under eccentric loads shall be designed to ensure that the factored bearing resistance is not less than the effects of factored loads at all applicable limit states.

For footings that are not rectangular, similar procedures should be used based upon the principles specified above.

- C For footings that are not rectangular, such as the circular footing shown in [Figure 8.2](#), the reduced effective area is always concentrically loaded and can be estimated by approximation and judgment. Such an approximation could be made, assuming a reduced rectangular footing size having the same area and centroid as the shaded area of the circular footing shown in [Figure 8.2](#).

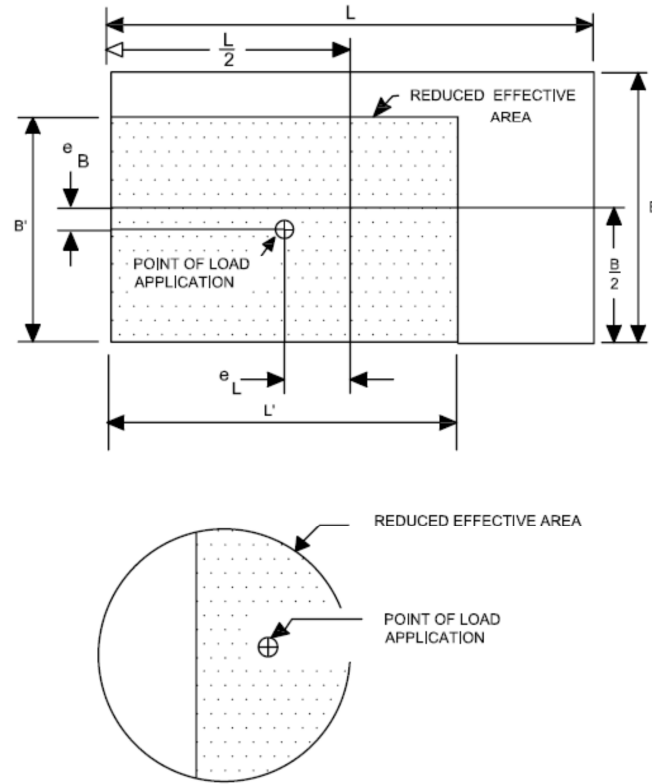


Figure 8.2 : Reduced Footing Dimensions.

8.6.1.4. Bearing Stress Distributions

When proportioning footing dimensions to meet settlement and bearing resistance requirements at all applicable limit states, the distribution of bearing stress on the effective area shall be assumed to be:

- uniform for footings on soils;
- linearly varying, i.e., triangular or trapezoidal as applicable, for footings on rock.

The distribution of bearing stress shall be determined as specified in Article [9.6.3.2](#).

Bearing stress distributions for structural design of the footing shall be as specified in Article [8.6.5](#).

8.6.1.5. Anchorage of Inclined Footings

Footings that are founded on inclined smooth solid rock surfaces and that are not restrained by an overburden of resistant material shall be effectively anchored by means of rock anchors, rock bolts, dowels, keys or other suitable means. Shallow keying of large footings shall be avoided where blasting is required for rock removal.

C Design of anchorages should include consideration of corrosion potential and protection.

8.6.1.6. Groundwater

Spread footings shall be designed in consideration of the highest anticipated groundwater table.

The influences of groundwater table on the bearing resistance of soils or rock and on the settlement of the structure shall be considered.

In cases where seepage forces are present, they should also be included in the analyses.

8.6.1.7. Uplift

Where spread footings are subjected to uplift forces, they shall be investigated both for resistance to uplift and for structural strength.

8.6.1.8. Nearby Structures

Where foundations are placed adjacent to existing structures, the influence of the existing structure on the behavior of the foundation and the effect of the foundation on the existing structures shall be investigated.

8.6.2. Service Limit State Design

8.6.2.1. General

Service limit state design of spread footings shall include evaluation of total and differential settlement and overall stability.

Overall stability of a footing shall be evaluated where one or more of the following conditions exist:

- horizontal or inclined loads are present,
 - the foundation is placed on embankment,
 - the footing is located on, near or within a slope,
 - the possibility of loss of foundation support through erosion or scour exists, or
 - bearing strata are significantly inclined.
- C The design of spread footings is frequently controlled by movement at the service limit state. It is therefore usually advantageous to proportion spread footings at the service limit state and check for adequate design at the strength and extreme limit states.

8.6.2.2. Tolerable Movements

The requirements of Article [8.5.2.1](#) shall apply.

8.6.2.3. Loads

Immediate settlement shall be determined using load combination Service-I, as specified in [Table 3.1](#). Time-dependent settlements in cohesive soils should be determined using only the permanent loads, i.e., transient loads should not be considered.

- C The type of load or the load characteristics may have a significant effect on spread footing deformation. The following factors should be considered in the estimation of footing deformation:
- the ratio of sustained load to total load,
 - the duration of sustained loads, and
 - the time interval over which settlement of lateral displacement occurs.

- C The consolidation settlements in cohesive soils are time-dependent; consequently, transient loads have negligible effect. However, in cohesionless soils where the permeability is sufficiently high, elastic deformation of the supporting soil due to transient load can take place. Because deformation in cohesionless soils often takes place during construction while the loads are being applied, it can be accommodated by the structure to an extent, depending on the type of structure and construction method.
- C Deformation in cohesionless, or granular, soils often occurs as soon as loads are applied. As a consequence, settlements due to transient loads may be significant in cohesionless soils, and they should be included in settlement analyses.

8.6.2.4. Settlement Analyses

1. General

Foundation settlements should be estimated using computational methods based on the results of laboratory or in-situ testing, or both. The soil parameters used in the computations should be chosen to reflect the loading history of the ground, the construction sequence, and the effects of soil layering.

Both total and differential settlements, including time dependant effects, shall be considered.

Total settlement, including elastic, consolidation, and secondary components may be taken as:

$$S_t = S_e + S_c + S_s \quad (8.10)$$

where:

- S_e = elastic settlement (mm)
- S_c = primary consolidation settlement (mm)
- S_s = secondary settlement (mm)

- C Elastic, or immediate, settlement is the instantaneous deformation of the soil mass that occurs as the soil is loaded. The magnitude of elastic settlement is estimated as a function of the applied stress beneath a footing or embankment.
- C Elastic settlement is usually small and neglected in design, but where settlement is critical, it is the most important deformation consideration in cohesionless soil deposits and for footings bearing on rock. For footings located on overconsolidated clays, the magnitude of elastic settlement is not necessarily small and should be checked.
- C In a nearly saturated or saturated cohesive soil, the pore water pressure initially carries the applied stress. As pore water is forced from the voids in the soil by the applied load, the load is transferred to the soil skeleton. Consolidation settlement is the gradual compression of the soil skeleton as the pore water is forced from the voids in the soil. Consolidation settlement is the most important deformation consideration in cohesive soil deposits that possess sufficient strength to safely support a spread footing. While consolidation settlement can occur in saturated cohesionless soils, the consolidation occurs quickly and is normally not distinguishable from the elastic settlement.
- C Secondary settlement, or creep, occurs as a result of the plastic deformation of the soil skeleton under a constant effective stress. Secondary settlement is of principal concern in highly plastic or organic soil deposits. Such deposits are normally so obviously weak and soft as to preclude consideration of bearing a spread footing on such materials.
- C The principal deformation component for footings on rock is elastic settlement, unless the rock or included discontinuities exhibit noticeable time-dependent behavior.

The effects of the zone of stress influence, or vertical stress distribution, beneath a footing shall be considered in estimating the settlement of the footing.

- C For guidance on vertical stress distribution for complex footing geometries, see [Poulos and Davis \(1974\)](#) or [Lambe and Whitman \(1969\)](#).

Spread footings bearing on a layered profile consisting of a combination of cohesive soil, cohesionless soil and/or rock shall be evaluated using an appropriate settlement estimation procedure for each layer within the zone of influence of induced stress beneath the footing.

The distribution of vertical stress increase below circular or square and long rectangular footings, i.e., where $L > 5B$, may be estimated using [Figure 8.3](#).

- C Some methods used for estimating settlement of footings on sand include an integral method to account for the effects of vertical stress increase variations. For guidance regarding application of these procedures, see [Gifford et al. \(1987\)](#).

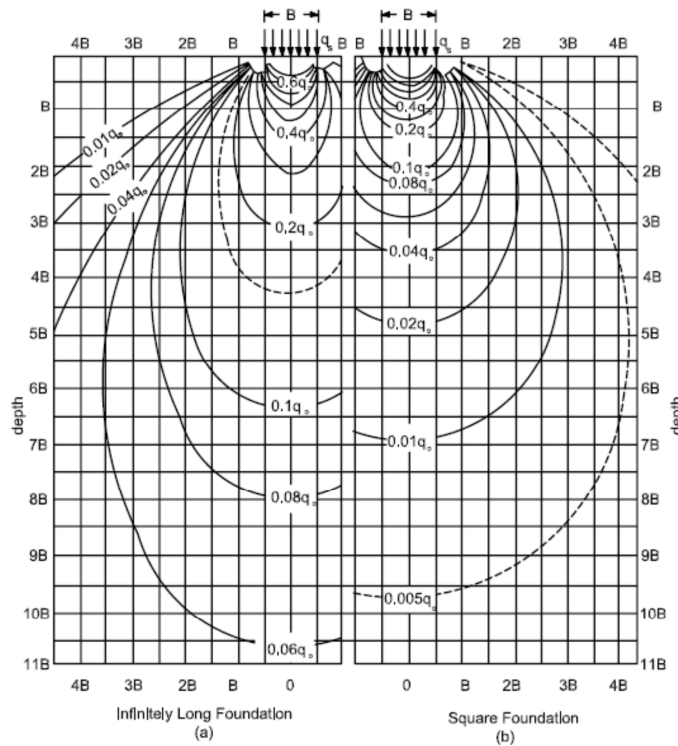


Figure 8.3: Boussinesq Vertical Stress Contours for Continuous and Square Footings Modified after [Sowers \(1979\)](#).

2. Settlement of Footings on Cohesionless Soils

The settlement of spread footings bearing on cohesionless soil deposits shall be estimated as a function of effective footing width and shall consider the effects of footing geometry and soil and rock layering with depth.

- C Although methods are recommended for the determination of settlement of cohesionless soils, experience has indicated that settlements can vary considerably in a construction site, and this variation may not be predicted by conventional calculations.
- C Settlements of cohesionless soils occur rapidly, essentially as soon as the foundation is loaded. Therefore, the total settlement under the service loads may not be as important as the incremental settlement between intermediate load stages. For example, the total and differential settlement due to loads applied by columns and cross beams is generally less important than the total and differential settlements due to girder placement and casting of continuous concrete decks.

Settlements of footings on cohesionless soils shall be estimated using elastic theory or empirical procedures.

- C Generally conservative settlement estimates may be obtained using the elastic half-space procedure or the empirical method by Hough. Additional information regarding the accuracy of the methods described herein is provided in [Gifford et al. \(1987\)](#) and [Kimmerling \(2002\)](#). This information, in combination with local experience and engineering judgment, should be used when determining the estimated settlement for a structure foundation, as there may be cases, such as attempting to build a structure grade high to account for the estimated settlement, when overestimating the settlement magnitude could be problematic.
- C Details of other procedures can be found in textbooks and engineering manuals, including:
- Terzaghi and Peck, 1967
 - Sowers, 1979
 - US. Department of the Navy, 1982
 - D'Appolonia (Gifford et al., 1987)-This method includes consideration for overconsolidated sands.
 - Tomlinson (1986)
 - Gifford et al. (1987)

The elastic half-space method assumes the footing is flexible and is supported on a homogeneous soil of infinite depth. The elastic settlement of spread footings, in mm, by the elastic half-space method shall be estimated as:

$$S_e = \frac{[q_o (1 - \nu^2) \sqrt{A'}]}{E_s \beta_z} \quad (8.11)$$

where:

- q_o = applied vertical stress (MPa)
- A' = effective area of footing (mm²)
- E_s = Young's modulus of soil taken as specified in Article [8.4.6.3](#) if direct measurements of E_s are not available from the results of in situ or laboratory tests (MPa)
- β_z = shape factor taken as specified in [Table 8.21](#) (dim.)
- ν = Poisson's Ratio, taken as specified in Article [8.4.6.3](#) if direct measurements of ν are not available from the results of in situ or laboratory tests (dim.)

- C For general guidance regarding the estimation of elastic settlement of footings on sand, see [Gifford et al. \(1987\)](#) and [Kimmerling \(2002\)](#).
- C The stress distributions used to calculate elastic settlement assume the footing is flexible and supported on a homogeneous soil of infinite depth. The settlement below a flexible footing varies from a maximum near the center to a minimum at the edge equal to about 50 percent and 64 percent of the maximum for rectangular and circular footings, respectively. The settlement profile for rigid footings is assumed to be uniform across the width of the footing.
- C Spread footings of the dimensions normally used for bridges are generally assumed to be rigid, although the actual performance will be somewhere between perfectly rigid and perfectly flexible, even for relatively thick concrete footings, due to stress redistribution and concrete creep.

Unless E_s varies significantly with depth, E_s should be determined at a depth of about 1/2 to 2/3 of B below the footing, where B is the footing width. If the soil modulus varies significantly with depth, a weighted average value of E_s should be used.

- C For footings with eccentric loads, the area, A' , should be computed based on reduced footing dimensions as specified in Article [8.6.1.3](#).

Table 8.21 Elastic Shape and Rigidity Factors, [EPRI \(1983\)](#).

L/B	Flexible, β_z (average)	Rigid, β_z
Circular	1.04	1.13
1	1.06	1.08
2	1.09	1.10
3	1.13	1.15
5	1.22	1.24
10	1.41	1.41

Estimation of spread footing settlement on cohesionless soils by the empirical Hough method shall be determined using Eqs. (8.11) and (8.13). *SPT* blow counts shall be corrected as specified in Article 8.4.6.2.4 for depth, i.e. overburden stress, before correlating the *SPT* blow counts to the bearing capacity index, C' .

$$S_e = \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta H_i \quad (8.12)$$

in which:

$$\Delta H_i = H_c \frac{1}{C'} \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_o + \Delta \sigma_v}{\sigma'_o} \right) \quad (8.13)$$

where:

- n = number of soil layers within zone of stress influence of the footing
- ΔH_i = elastic settlement of layer i (mm)
- H_c = initial height of layer i (mm)
- C' = bearing capacity index from Figure 8.4 (dim.)

In Figure 8.4, N' shall be taken as N_{160} , Standard Penetration Resistance, N (blows/300 mm), corrected for overburden pressure as specified in Article 8.4.6.2.4.

- σ'_o = initial vertical effective stress at the midpoint of layer i (MPa)
- $\Delta \sigma_v$ = increase in vertical stress at the midpoint of layer i (MPa)

- C The Hough method was developed for normally consolidated cohesionless soils.
- C The Hough method has several advantages over other methods used to estimate settlement in cohesionless soil deposits, including express consideration of soil layering and the zone of stress influence beneath a footing of finite size.
- C The subsurface soil profile should be subdivided into layers based on stratigraphy to a depth of about three times the footing width. The maximum layer thickness should be about 3000 mm
- C While Cheney and Chassie (2000), and Hough (1959), did not specifically state that the *SPT* N values should be corrected for hammer energy in addition to overburden pressure, due to the vintage of the original work, hammers that typically have an efficiency of approximately 60 percent were in general used to develop the empirical correlations contained in the method. If using *SPT* hammers with efficiencies that differ significantly from this 60 percent value, the N values should also be corrected for hammer energy, in effect requiring that N_{60} be used.
- C The Hough method is applicable to cohesionless soil deposits. The "Inorganic Silt" curve should generally not be applied to soils that exhibit plasticity. The settlement characteristics of cohesive soils that exhibit plasticity should be investigated using undisturbed samples and laboratory consolidation tests as prescribed in Article 8.6.2.4.3.

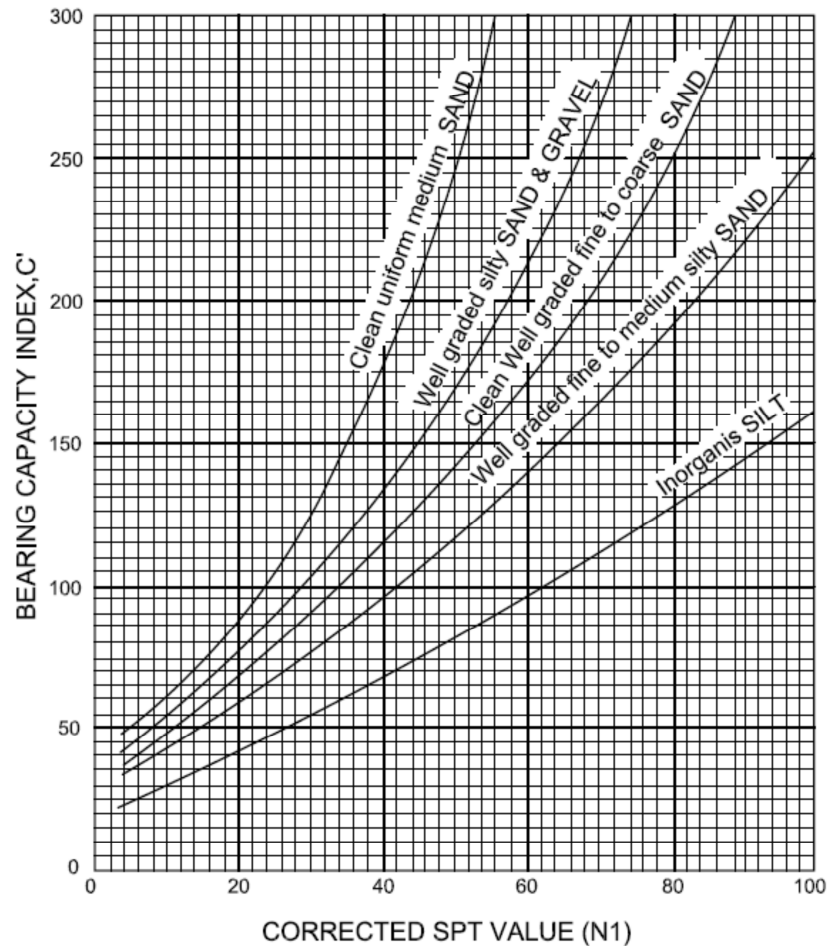


Figure 8.4: Bearing Capacity Index versus Corrected SPT (modified from [Cheney and Chassie, 2000](#), after [Hough, 1959](#)).

3. Settlement of Footings on Cohesive Soils

Spread footings in which cohesive soils are located within the zone of stress influence shall be investigated for consolidation settlement.

- C In practice, footings on cohesive soils are most likely founded on overconsolidated clays, and settlements can be estimated using elastic theory ([Baguelin et al., 1978](#)), or the tangent modulus method ([Janbu, 1963, 1967](#)). Settlements of footings on overconsolidated clay usually occur at approximately one order of magnitude faster than soils without preconsolidation, and it is reasonable to assume that they take place as rapidly as the loads are applied. Infrequently, a layer of cohesive soil may exhibit a preconsolidation stress less than the calculated existing overburden stress. The soil is then said to be underconsolidated because a state of equilibrium has not yet been reached under the applied overburden stress. Such a condition may have been caused by a recent lowering of the groundwater table. In this case, consolidation settlement will occur due to the additional load of the structure and the settlement that is occurring to reach a state of equilibrium. The total consolidation settlement due to these two components can be estimated by Eq. [\(8.16\)](#) or Eq. [\(8.19\)](#).
- C Normally consolidated and underconsolidated soils should be considered unsuitable for direct support of spread footings due to the magnitude of potential settlement, the time required for settlement, for low shear strength concerns, or any combination of these design considerations. Preloading or vertical drains may be considered to mitigate these concerns.

Elastic and secondary settlement shall also be investigated in consideration of the timing and sequence of construction loading and the tolerance of the structure to total and differential movements.

Where laboratory test results are expressed in terms of void ratio, e , the consolidation settlement of footings shall be taken as:

- For overconsolidated soils where $\sigma'_p > \sigma'_o$, see [Figure 8.5](#):

$$S_c = \left[\frac{H_c}{1 + e_o} \right] \left[C_r \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_p}{\sigma'_o} \right) + C_c \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_f}{\sigma'_p} \right) \right] \quad (8.14)$$

- For normally consolidated soils where $\sigma'_p = \sigma'_o$:

$$S_c = \left[\frac{H_c}{1 + e_o} \right] \left[C_c \log \frac{\sigma'_f}{\sigma'_p} \right] \quad (8.15)$$

- For underconsolidated soils where $\sigma'_p < \sigma'_o$:

$$S_c = \left[\frac{H_c}{1 + e_o} \right] \left[C_c \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_f}{\sigma'_{pc}} \right) \right] \quad (8.16)$$

Where laboratory test results are expressed in terms of vertical strain, ε_v , the consolidation settlement of footings shall be taken as:

- For overconsolidated soils where $\sigma'_p > \sigma'_o$, see [Figure 8.6](#):

$$S_c = H_c \left[C_{r\varepsilon} \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_p}{\sigma'_o} \right) + C_{c\varepsilon} \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_f}{\sigma'_p} \right) \right] \quad (8.17)$$

- For normally consolidated soils where $\sigma'_p = \sigma'_o$:

$$S_c = H_c C_{c\varepsilon} \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_f}{\sigma'_p} \right) \quad (8.18)$$

- For underconsolidated soils where $\sigma'_p < \sigma'_o$:

$$S_c = H_c C_{c\varepsilon} \log \left(\frac{\sigma'_f}{\sigma'_{pc}} \right) \quad (8.19)$$

where:

- H_c = initial height of compressible soil layer (mm)
- e_o = void ratio at initial vertical effective stress (dim.)
- C_r = recompression index (dim.)
- C_c = compression index (dim.)
- $C_{r\varepsilon}$ = recompression ratio (dim.)
- $C_{c\varepsilon}$ = compression ratio (dim.)

- σ'_p = maximum past vertical effective stress in soil at midpoint of soil layer under consideration (MPa)
- σ'_o = initial vertical effective stress in soil at midpoint of soil layer under consideration (MPa)
- σ'_f = final vertical effective stress in soil at midpoint of soil layer under consideration (MPa)
- σ'_{pc} = current vertical effective stress in soil, not including the additional stress due to the footing loads, at midpoint of soil layer under consideration (MPa)

- C To account for the decreasing stress with increased depth below a footing and variations in soil compressibility with depth, the compressible layer should be divided into vertical increments, i.e., typically 1500 to 3000 mm for most normal width footings for highway applications, and the consolidation settlement of each increment analyzed separately. The total value of S_c is the summation of S_c for each increment.
- C The magnitude of consolidation settlement depends on the consolidation properties of the soil. These properties include the compression and recompression constants, C_c and C_r or C_{ce} and C_{re} ; the preconsolidation stress, σ'_p ; the current, initial vertical effective stress, σ'_o ; and the final vertical effective stress after application of additional loading, σ'_f . An overconsolidated soil has been subjected to larger stresses in the past than at present. This could be a result of preloading by previously overlying strata, desiccation, groundwater lowering, glacial overriding or an engineered preload. If $\sigma'_o = \sigma'_p$, the soil is normally consolidated. Because the recompression constant is typically about an order of magnitude smaller than the compression constant, an accurate determination of the preconsolidation stress, σ'_p , is needed to make reliable estimates of consolidation settlement.
- C The reliability of consolidation settlement estimates is also affected by the quality of the consolidation test sample and by the accuracy with which changes in σ'_p with depth are known or estimated. As shown in [Figure 8.7](#), the slope of the e or ϵ_v versus $\log \sigma'_v$ curve and the location of σ'_p can be strongly affected by the quality of samples used for the laboratory consolidation tests. In general, the use of poor quality samples will result in an overestimate of consolidation settlement. Typically, the value of σ'_p will vary with depth as shown in [Figure 8.8](#). If the variation of σ'_p with depth is unknown, e.g., only one consolidation test was conducted in the soil profile, actual settlements could be higher or lower than the computed value based on a single value of σ'_p .
- C The cone penetrometer test may be used to improve understanding of both soil layering and variation of σ'_p with depth by correlation to laboratory tests from discrete locations.

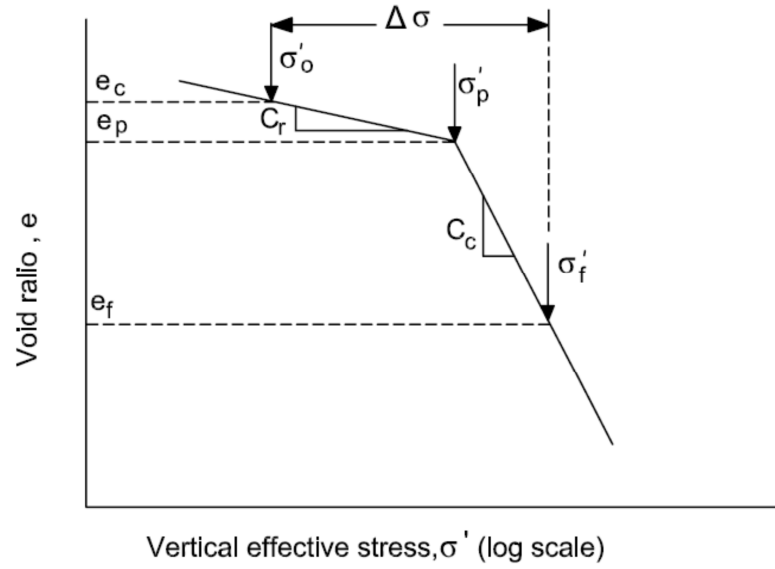


Figure 8.5: Typical Consolidation Compression Curve for Overconsolidated Soil: Void Ratio versus Vertical Effective Stress, EPRI (1983).

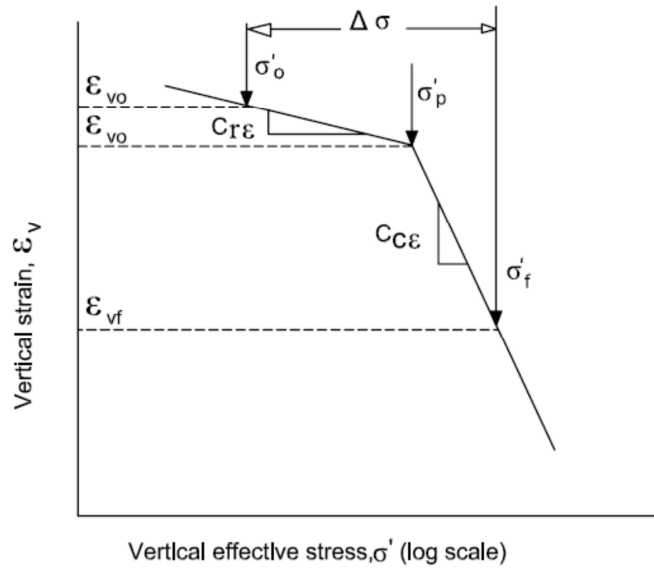


Figure 8.6: Typical Consolidation Compression Curve for Overconsolidated Soil: Vertical Strain versus Vertical Effective Stress, EPRI (1983).

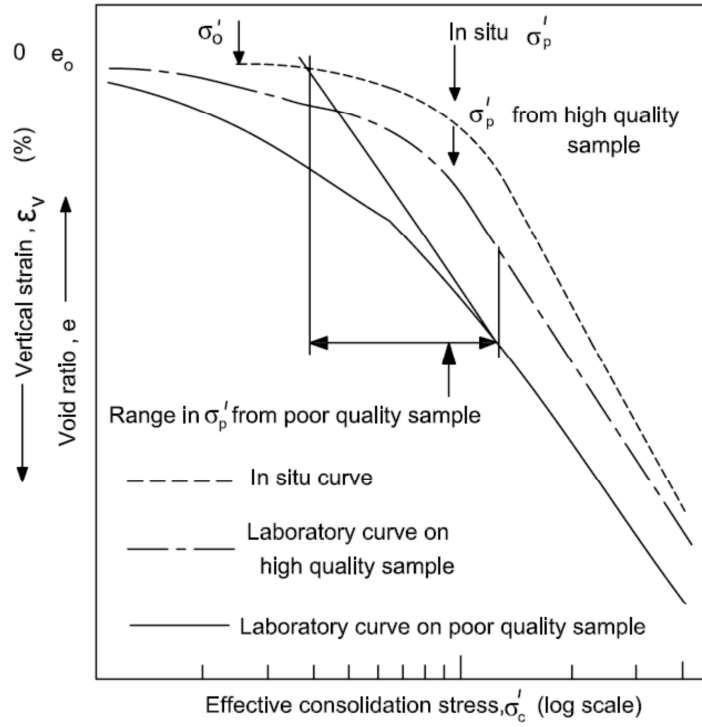


Figure 8.7: Effects of Sample Quality on Consolidation Test Results, [Holtz and Kovacs \(1981\)](#).

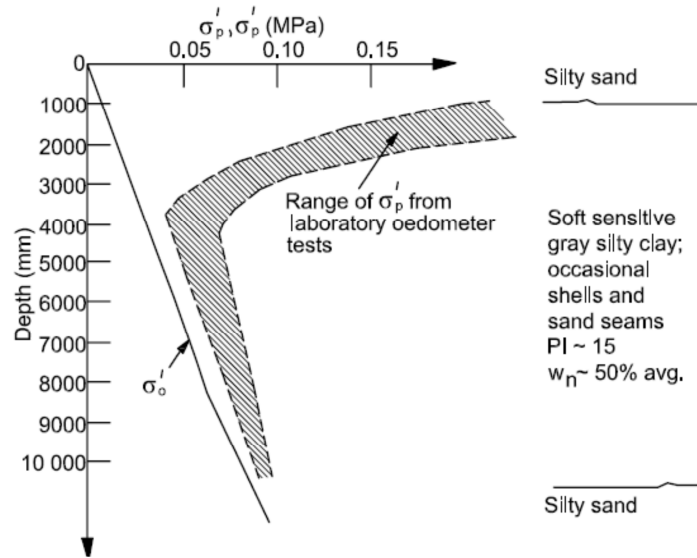


Figure 8.8: Typical Variation of Pre-consolidation Stress with Depth

If the footing width, B , is small relative to the thickness of the compressible soil, H_c , the effect of three-dimensional loading shall be considered and shall be taken as:

$$S_{c(3-D)} = \mu_c S_{c(1-D)} \quad (8.20)$$

where:

μ_c = reduction factor taken as specified in [Figure 8.9](#) (dim.)

$S_{c(1-D)}$ = single dimensional consolidation settlement (mm)

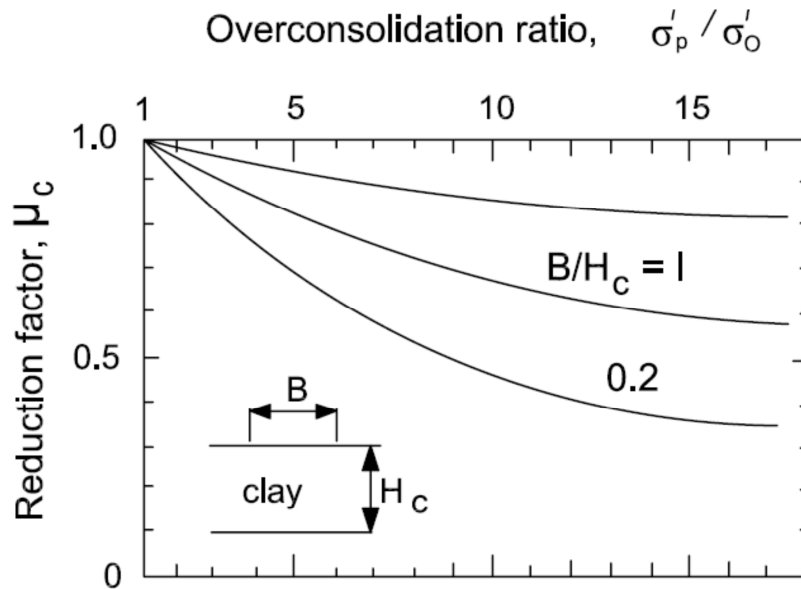


Figure 8.9: Reduction Factor to Account for Effects of Three-Dimensional Consolidation Settlement.

The time, t , to achieve a given percentage of the total estimated one-dimensional consolidation settlement shall be taken as:

$$t = \frac{TH_d^2}{c_v} \quad (8.21)$$

where:

T = time factor taken as specified in [Figure 8.10](#) for the excess pore pressure distributions shown in the Figure (dim.)

H_d = length of longest drainage path in compressible layer under consideration (mm)

c_v = coefficient of consolidation ($\text{mm}^2/\text{yr.}$)

- C Consolidation occurs when a saturated compressible layer of soil is loaded and water is squeezed out of the layer. The time required for the (primary) consolidation process to end will depend on the permeability of the soil. Because the time factor, T , is defined as logarithmic, the consolidation process theoretically never ends. The practical assumption is usually made that the additional consolidation past 90 percent or 95 percent consolidation is negligible, or is taken into consideration as part of the total long term settlement.
- C Refer to [Winterkom and Fang \(1975\)](#) for values of T for excess pore pressure distributions other than indicated in [Figure 8.10](#).
- C The length of the drainage path is the longest distance from any point in a compressible layer to a drainage boundary at the top or bottom of the compressible soil unit. Where a compressible layer is located between two drainage boundaries, H_d equals one-half the actual height of the layer. Where a compressible layer is adjacent to an impermeable boundary (usually below), H_d equals the full height of the layer.

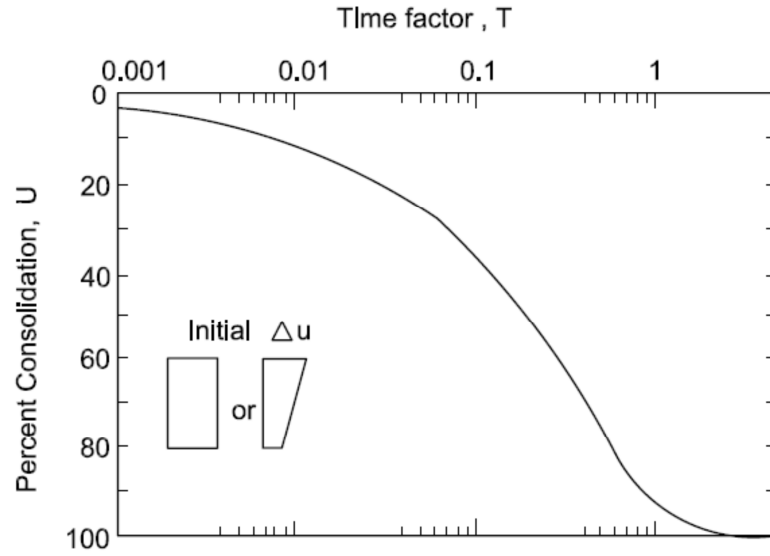


Figure 8.10: Percentage of Consolidation as a Function of Time Factor, T

- C Computations to predict the time rate of consolidation based on the result of laboratory tests generally tend to over-estimate the actual time required for consolidation in the field. This over-estimation is principally due to:
 - C The presence of thin drainage layers within the compressible layer that are not observed from the subsurface exploration nor considered in the settlement computations,
 - C The effects of three-dimensional dissipation of pore water pressures in the field, rather than the one-dimensional dissipation that is imposed by laboratory odometer tests and assumed in the computations, and
 - C The effects of sample disturbance, which tend to reduce the permeability of the laboratory tested samples.
- C If the total consolidation settlement is within the serviceability limits for the structure, the time rate of consolidation is usually of lesser concern for spread footings. If the total consolidation settlement exceeds the serviceability limitations, superstructure damage will occur unless provisions are made for timing of closure pours as a friction of settlement, simple support of spans and/or periodic jacking of bearing supports.

Where laboratory test results are expressed in terms of void ratio, e , the secondary settlement of footings on cohesive soil shall be taken as:

$$S_s = \frac{C_\alpha}{1 + e_o} H_c \log \left(\frac{t_2}{t_1} \right) \quad (8.22)$$

Where laboratory test results are expressed in terms of vertical strain, ϵ_v , and the secondary settlement of footings on cohesive soils shall be taken as:

$$S_s = C_{\alpha\epsilon} H_c \log \left(\frac{t_2}{t_1} \right) \quad (8.23)$$

where:

S_s = secondary settlement of footings on cohesive soils (mm)

H_c = initial height of compressible soil layer (mm)

e_o = void ratio at initial vertical effective stress (dim.)

- t_1 = time when secondary settlement begins, i.e., typically at a time equivalent to 90 percent average degree of primary consolidation (yr.)
- t_2 = arbitrary time that could represent the service life of the structure (yr.)
- C_α = secondary compression index estimated from the results of laboratory consolidation testing of undisturbed soil samples (dim.)
- $C_{\alpha s}$ = modified secondary compression index estimated from the results of laboratory consolidation testing of undisturbed soil samples (dim.)
- C Secondary compression component of settlement results from compression of bonds between individual clay particles and domains, as well as other effects on the microscale that are not yet clearly understood (Holtz and Kovacs, 1981). Secondary settlement is most important for highly plastic clays and organic and micaceous soils. Accordingly, secondary settlement predictions should be considered as approximate estimates only.
- C If secondary compression is estimated to exceed serviceability limitations, either deep foundations or ground improvement should be considered to mitigate the effects of secondary compression. Experience indicates preloading and surcharging may not be effective in eliminating secondary compression.

4. Settlement of Footings on Rock

For footings bearing on fair to very good rock, according to the Geomechanics Classification system, as defined in Article 8.4.6.4, and designed in accordance with the provisions of this Section, elastic settlements may generally be assumed to be less than 15 mm. When elastic settlements of this magnitude are unacceptable or when the rock is not competent, an analysis of settlement based on rock mass characteristics shall be made.

- C In most cases, it is sufficient to determine settlement using the average bearing stress under the footing.
- C Where the foundations are subjected to a very large load or where settlement tolerance may be small, settlements of footings on rock may be estimated using elastic theory. The stiffness of the rock mass should be used in such analyses.
- C The accuracy with which settlements can be estimated by using elastic theory is dependent on the accuracy of the estimated rock mass modulus, E_m . In some cases, the value of E_m can be estimated through empirical correlation with the value of the modulus of elasticity for the intact rock between joints. For unusual or poor rock mass conditions, it may be necessary to determine the modulus from in-situ tests, such as plate loading and pressuremeter tests.

Where rock is broken or jointed, the rock joint condition is poor or the criteria for fair to excellent rock are not met, a settlement analysis should be conducted, and the influence of rock type, condition of discontinuities, and degree of weathering shall be considered in the settlement analysis.

Table 8.22: Rock Quality Designation

Rock Mass Quality	RQD
Very poor	0-25
Poor	25-50
Fair	50-75
Good	75-90
Excellent	90-100

The RQD can be calculated according to core run as per Eq.(8.24)

$$RQD = \frac{\sum \text{Length of Core Pieces} > 100 \text{ mm length}}{\text{Total length of core run}} \times 100 \quad (8.24)$$

where the terms in Eq.(8.24) are illustrated in Figure 8.11.

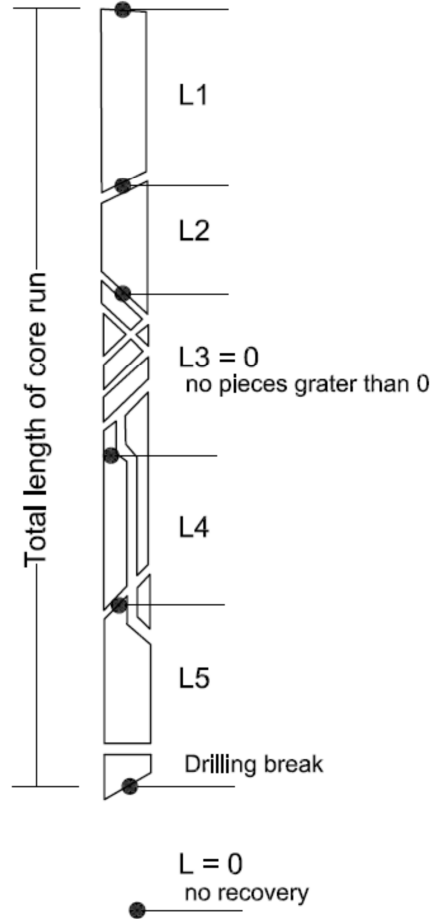


Figure 8.11: Core run.

The elastic settlement of footings on broken or jointed rock, in mm, should be taken as:

- For circular (or square) footings;

$$S_e = q_o (1 - \nu^2) \frac{r I_p}{E_m} \quad (8.25)$$

in which:

$$I_p = \frac{(\sqrt{\pi})}{\beta_z} \quad (8.26)$$

- For rectangular footings;

$$S_e = q_o (1 - \nu^2) \frac{BI_p}{E_m} \quad (8.27)$$

in which:

$$I_p = \frac{(L/B)^{0.5}}{\beta_z} \quad (8.28)$$

where:

- S_e = elastic settlement of footings on broken or jointed rock (mm)
- q_o = applied vertical stress at base of loaded area (MPa)
- ν = Poisson's ratio (dim.)
- r = radius of circular footing or B/2 for square footing (mm)
- B = width of rectangular footing (mm)
- L = length of rectangular footing (mm)
- I_p = influence coefficient to account for rigidity and dimensions of footing (dim.)
- E_m = rock mass modulus (MPa)
- β_z = factor to account for footing shape and rigidity specified in [Table 8.21](#) (dim.)

Values of I_p should be computed using the β_z values presented in [Table 8.21](#) for rigid footings.

Where the results of laboratory testing are not available, values of Poisson's ratio, ν , for typical rock types may be taken as specified in [Table 8.13](#).

Determination of the rock mass modulus, E_m , should be based on the methods described in Article [8.4.6.5](#).

The magnitude of consolidation and secondary settlements in rock masses containing soft seams or other material with time-dependent settlement characteristics should be estimated by applying procedures specified in Article [8.6.2.4.3](#).

8.6.2.5. Overall Stability

Overall stability of spread footings shall be investigated using Service I Load Combination and the provisions of Articles [3.4.1](#), [8.5.2.3](#), and [9.6.3.4](#).

8.6.2.6. Bearing Resistance at the Service Limit State

1. Presumptive Values for Bearing Resistance

The use of presumptive values shall be based on knowledge of geological conditions at or near the structure site.

- C Unless more appropriate regional data are available, the presumptive values given in [Table 8.23](#) may be used. These bearing resistances are settlement limited, e.g., 25 mm, and apply only at the service limit state.

Table 8.23: Presumptive Bearing Resistance for Spread Footing Foundations at the Service Limit State Modified after [U.S. Department of the Navy \(1982\)](#).

Type of Bearing Material	Consistency in Place	Bearing Resistance (MPa)	
		Ordinary Range	Recommended Value of Use
Massive crystalline igneous and metamorphic rock: granite, diorite, basalt, gneiss, thoroughly cemented conglomerate (sound condition allows minor cracks)	Very hard, sound rock	5.7–9.6	7.7
Foliated metamorphic rock: slate, schist (sound condition allows minor cracks)	Hard sound rock	2.9–3.8	3.4
Sedimentary rock: hard cemented shales, siltstone, sandstone, limestone without cavities	Hard sound rock	1.4–2.4	1.9
Weathered or broken bedrock of any kind, except highly argillaceous rock (shale)	Medium hard rock	0.77–1.1	0.96
Compaction shale or other highly argillaceous rock in sound condition	Medium hard rock	0.77–1.1	0.96
Well-graded mixture of fine- and coarse-grained soil: glacial till, hardpan, boulder clay (GW-GC, GC, SC)	Very dense	0.77–1.1	0.96
Gravel, gravel-sand mixture, boulder-gravel mixtures (GW, GP, SW, SP)	Very dense	0.57–0.96	0.67
	Medium dense to dense	0.38–0.67	0.48
	Loose	0.19–0.57	0.29
Coarse to medium sand, and with little gravel (SW, SP)	Very dense	0.38–0.57	0.38
	Medium dense to dense	0.19–0.38	0.29
	Loose	0.096–0.29	0.14
Fine to medium sand, silty or clayey medium to coarse sand (SW, SM, SC)	Very dense	0.29–0.18	0.29
	Medium dense to dense	0.19–0.38	0.24
	Loose	0.096–0.19	0.14
Fine sand, silty or clayey medium to fine sand (SP, SM, SC)	Very dense	0.29–0.18	0.29
	Medium dense to dense	0.19–0.38	0.24
	Loose	0.096–0.19	0.14
Homogeneous inorganic clay, sandy or silty clay (CL, CH)	Very dense	0.29–0.57	0.38
	Medium dense to dense	0.096–0.29	0.19
	Loose	0.048–0.096	0.048
Inorganic silt, sandy or clayey silt, varved silt-clay-fine sand (ML, MH)	Very stiff to hard	0.19–0.38	0.29
	Medium stiff to stiff	0.096–0.29	0.14
	Soft	0.048–0.096	0.048

2. Semi-empirical Procedures for Bearing Resistance

Bearing resistance on rock shall be determined using empirical correlation to the Geomechanic Rock Mass Rating System, RMR, as specified in Article [8.4.6.4](#). Local experience should be considered in the use of these semi-empirical procedures.

If the recommended value of presumptive bearing resistance exceeds either the unconfined compressive strength of the rock or the nominal resistance of the concrete, the presumptive bearing resistance shall be taken as the lesser of the unconfined compressive strength of the rock or the nominal resistance of the concrete. The nominal resistance of concrete shall be taken as $0.3 f'_c$.

8.6.3. Strength Limit State Design

8.6.3.1. Bearing Resistance of Soil

1. General

Bearing resistance of spread footings shall be determined based on the highest anticipated position of groundwater level at the footing location.

The factored resistance, q_R , at the strength limit state shall be taken as:

$$q_R = \phi_b q_n \quad (8.29)$$

where:

ϕ_b = resistance factor specified in Article [8.5.5.2.2](#)

q_n = nominal bearing resistance (MPa)

- C The bearing resistance of footings on soil should be evaluated using soil shear strength parameters that are representative of the soil shear strength under the loading conditions being analyzed. The bearing resistance of footings supported on granular soils should be evaluated for both permanent dead loading conditions and short -duration live loading conditions using effective stress methods of analysis and drained soil shear strength parameters. The bearing resistance of footings supported on cohesive soils should be evaluated for short-duration live loading conditions using total stress methods of analysis and undrained soil shear strength parameters. In addition, the bearing resistance of footings supported on cohesive soils, which could soften and lose strength with time, should be evaluated for permanent dead loading conditions using effective stress methods of analysis and drained soil shear strength parameters.
- C The position of the groundwater table can significantly influence the bearing resistance of soils through its effect on shear strength and unit weight of the foundation soils. In general, the submergence of soils will reduce the effective shear strength of cohesionless (or granular) materials, as well as the long-term (or drained) shear strength of cohesive (clayey) soils. Moreover, the effective unit weights of submerged soils are about half of those for the same soils under dry conditions. Thus, submergence may lead to a significant reduction in the bearing resistance provided by the foundation soils, and it is essential that the bearing resistance analyses be carried out under the assumption of the highest groundwater table expected within the service life of the structure.
- C Footings with inclined bases should be avoided wherever possible. Where use of an inclined footing base cannot be avoided, the nominal bearing resistance determined in accordance with the provisions herein should be further reduced using accepted corrections for inclined footing bases in [Munfakh, et al \(2001\)](#).
- C Because the effective dimensions will vary slightly for each limit state under consideration, strict adherence to this provision will require re-computation of the nominal bearing resistance at each limit state.

Where loads are eccentric, the effective footing dimensions, L' and B' , as specified in Article [8.6.1.3](#), shall be used instead of the overall dimensions L and B in all equations, tables, and figures pertaining to bearing resistance.

- C Further, some of the equations for the bearing resistance modification factors based on L and B were not necessarily or specifically developed with the intention that effective dimensions be used. The designer should ensure that appropriate values of L and B are used, and that effective footing dimensions L' and B' are used appropriately.
- C Consideration should be given to the relative change in the computed nominal resistance based on effective versus gross footing dimensions for the size of footings typically used for bridges. Judgment should be used in deciding whether the use of gross footing dimensions for computing nominal bearing resistance at the strength limit state would result in a conservative design.

2. Theoretical Estimation

a. Basic Formulation

The nominal bearing resistance shall be estimated using accepted soil mechanics theories and should be based on measured soil parameters. The soil parameters used in the analyses shall be representative of the soil shear strength under the considered loading and subsurface conditions.

The nominal bearing resistance of spread footings on cohesionless soils shall be evaluated using effective stress analyses and drained soil strength parameters.

The nominal bearing resistance of spread footings on cohesive soils shall be evaluated for total stress analyses and undrained soil strength parameters. In cases where the cohesive soils may soften and lose strength with time, the bearing resistance of these soils shall also be evaluated for permanent loading conditions using effective stress analyses and drained soil strength parameters.

For spread footings bearing on compacted soils, the nominal bearing resistance shall be evaluated using the more critical of either total or effective stress analyses.

Except as noted below, the nominal bearing resistance of a soil layer, in MPa, should be taken as:

$$q_n = cN_{cm} + (g \rho D_f N_{qm} C_{wq} \times 10^{-9}) + (0.5g \rho B N_{\gamma m} C_{w\gamma} \times 10^{-9}) \quad (8.30)$$

where:

$$N_{cm} = N_c s_c i_c \quad (8.31)$$

$$N_{qm} = N_q s_q d_q i_q \quad (8.32)$$

$$N_{\gamma m} = N_\gamma s_\gamma i_\gamma \quad (8.33)$$

- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec.²)
- c = cohesion, taken as undrained shear strength (MPa)
- N_c = cohesion term (undrained loading) bearing capacity factor as specified in [Table 8.24](#) or [Table 8.25](#) (dim.)
- N_q = surcharge (embedment) term (drained or undrained loading) bearing capacity factor as specified in [Table 8.24](#) or [Table 8.25](#) (dim.)
- N_γ = unit density (footing width) term (drained loading) bearing capacity factor as specified in [Table 8.24](#) or [Table 8.25](#) (dim.)
- ρ = total (moist) density of soil above or below the bearing depth of the footing (kg/m³)
- D_f = footing embedment depth (mm)
- B = footing width (mm)
- $C_{wq}, C_{w\gamma}$ = correction factors to account for the location of the groundwater table as specified in [Table 8.26](#) (dim.)
- s_c, s_γ, s_q = footing shape correction factors as specified in [Table 8.27](#) (dim.)
- d_q = correction factor to account for the shearing resistance along the failure surface passing through cohesionless material above the bearing elevation as specified in [Table 8.28](#) (dim.)

i_c, i_γ, i_q = load inclination factors determined from Eqs. (8.35) or (8.36), and (8.37) and (8.38) (dim.)

For $\phi_f = 0$:

$$i_c = 1 - \frac{nH}{cBLN_c} \quad (8.34)$$

For $\phi_f > 0$:

$$i_c = i_q - \frac{(1 - i_q)}{(N_q - 1)} \quad (8.35)$$

in which:

$$i_q = \left[1 - \frac{H}{(V + cBL \cot \phi_f)} \right]^n \quad (8.36)$$

$$i_\gamma = \left[1 - \frac{H}{(V + cBL \cot \phi_f)} \right]^{n+1} \quad (8.37)$$

$$n = \left[\frac{(2 + L/B)}{(1 + L/B)} \right] \cos^2 \theta + \left[\frac{(2 + L/B)}{(1 + L/B)} \right] \sin^2 \theta \quad (8.38)$$

where:

- c = cohesion, taken as undrained shear strength (MPa)
- B = footing width (mm)
- L = footing length (mm)
- H = unfactored horizontal load (N)
- V = unfactored vertical load (N)
- θ = projected direction of load in the plane of the footing, measured from the side of length L (deg.)

- C The bearing resistance formulation provided in Eqs. (8.30) through (8.33) is the complete formulation as described in the [Munfakh, et al. \(2001\)](#). However, in practice, not all of the factors included in these equations have been routinely used.
- C Most geotechnical engineers nationwide have not used the load inclination factors. This is due, in part, to the lack of knowledge of the vertical and horizontal loads at the time of geotechnical explorations and preparation of bearing resistance recommendations. Furthermore, the basis of the load inclination factors computed by Eqs. (8.34) to (8.37) is a combination of bearing resistance theory and small scale load tests on 25 mm wide plates on London Clay and Ham River Sand ([Meyerhof 1953](#)). Therefore, the factors do not take into consideration the effects of depth of embedment. Meyerhof further showed that for footings with a depth of embedment ratio of $D_f/B = 1$, the effects of load inclination on bearing resistance are relatively small. The theoretical formulation of load inclination factors were further examined by [Brinch-Hansen \(1970\)](#), with additional modification by [Vesic \(1973\)](#) into the form provided in Eqs. (8.34) to (8.37).
- C It should further be noted that the resistance factors provided in Article [8.5.5.2.2](#) were derived for vertical loads. The applicability of these resistance factors to design of footings resisting inclined load

combinations is not currently known. The combination of the resistance factors and the load inclination factors may be overly conservative for footings with an embedment of approximately $D_f/B = 1$ or deeper because the load inclination factors were derived for footings without embedment.

- C In practice, therefore, for footings with modest embedment, consideration may be given to omission of the load inclination factors.
- C [Figure 8.12](#) shows the convention for determining the θ angle in Eq. [\(8.38\)](#)

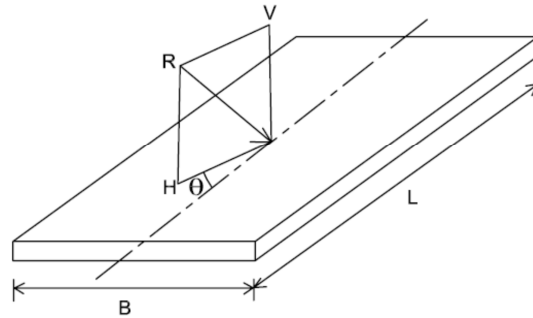


Figure 8.12: Inclined Loading Conventions.

The values of N_c , N_q , N_γ could be determined from [Table 8.24](#) or [Table 8.25](#).

Table 8.24: Determination of N_c , N_q , N_γ

N_c Proposed by Meyerhof (1963)	N_q Proposed by Meyerhof (1963)	N_γ Proposed by Vesic (1973, 1975)
$N_q = e^{\pi \tan \phi} \tan^2 \left(45 + \frac{\phi_f}{2} \right)$	$N_c = (N_q - 1) \cot \phi_f$	$N_\gamma = 2(N_q + 1) \tan \phi_f$

Table 8.25: Bearing Capacity Factors N_c (**Meyerhof, 1963**), N_q (**Meyerhof, 1963**), and N_γ (**Vesic, 1975**).

ϕ_f	N_c	N_q	N_γ	ϕ_f	N_c	N_q	N_γ
0	5.14	1.0	0.0	23	18.1	8.7	8.2
1	5.4	1.1	0.1	24	19.3	9.6	9.4
2	5.6	1.2	0.2	25	20.7	10.7	10.9
3	5.9	1.3	0.2	26	22.3	11.9	12.5
4	6.2	1.4	0.3	27	23.9	13.2	14.5
5	6.5	1.6	0.5	28	25.8	14.7	16.7
6	6.8	1.7	0.6	29	27.9	16.4	19.3
7	7.2	1.9	0.7	30	30.1	18.4	22.4
8	7.5	2.1	0.9	31	32.7	20.6	26.0
9	7.9	2.3	1.0	32	35.5	23.2	30.2
10	8.4	2.5	1.2	33	38.6	26.1	35.2
11	8.8	2.7	1.4	34	42.2	29.4	41.1
12	9.3	3.0	1.7	35	46.1	33.3	48.0
13	9.8	3.3	2.0	36	50.6	37.8	56.3
14	10.4	3.6	2.3	37	55.6	42.9	66.2

15	11.0	3.9	2.7	38	61.4	48.9	78.0
16	11.6	4.3	3.1	39	67.9	56.0	92.3
17	12.3	4.8	3.5	40	75.3	64.2	109.4
18	13.1	5.3	4.1	41	83.9	73.9	130.2
19	13.9	5.8	4.7	42	93.7	85.4	155.6
20	14.8	6.4	5.4	43	105.1	99.0	186.5
21	15.8	7.1	6.2	44	118.4	115.3	224.6
22	16.9	7.8	7.1	45	133.9	134.9	271.8

Table 8.26: Coefficients C_{wq} and C_{wy} for Various Groundwater Depths.

D_w	C_{wq}	C_{wy}
0.0	0.5	0.5
D_f	1.0	0.5
$>1.5B + D_f$	1.0	0 1.0

- C Where the position of groundwater is at a depth less than 1.5 times the footing width below the footing base, the bearing resistance is affected. The highest anticipated groundwater level should be used in design.

Table 8.27: Shape Correction Factors s_c , s_γ , s_q .

Friction Angle	Cohesion Term (s_c)	Unit Weight Term (s_γ)	Surcharge Term (s_q)
$\phi_f = 0$	$1 + \left(\frac{B}{5L}\right)$	1.0	1.0
$\phi_f > 0$	$1 + \left(\frac{B}{L}\right)\left(\frac{N_q}{N_c}\right)$	$1 - 0.4\left(\frac{B}{L}\right)$	$1 + \left(\frac{B}{L} \tan \phi_f\right)$

Table 8.28: Depth Correction Factor d_q .

Friction Angle, ϕ_f (deg.)	D_f/B	d_q
32	1	1.20
	2	1.30
	4	1.35
	8	1.40
37	1	1.20
	2	1.25
	4	1.30
	8	1.35
42	1	1.15
	2	1.20
	4	1.25
	8	1.30

- C The parent information from which [Table 8.28](#) was developed covered the indicated range of friction angle, ϕ . Information beyond the range indicated is not available at this time.

The depth correction factor should be used only when the soils above the footing bearing elevation are as competent as the soils beneath the footing level; otherwise, the depth correction factor should be taken as 1.0.

Linear interpolations may be made for friction angles in between those values shown in [Table 8.28](#).

b. Considerations for Punching Shear

If local or punching shear failure is possible, the nominal bearing resistance shall be estimated using reduced shear strength parameters c^* and ϕ^* in Eqs. [\(8.39\)](#) and [\(8.40\)](#). The reduced shear parameters may be taken as:

$$c^* = 0.67c \quad (8.39)$$

$$\phi^* = \tan^{-1} (0.67 \tan \phi) \quad (8.40)$$

where:

c^* = reduced effective stress soil cohesion for punching shear (MPa)

ϕ^* = reduced effective stress soil friction angle for punching shear (deg.)

- C Local shear failure is characterized by a failure surface that is similar to that of a general shear failure but that does not extend to the ground surface, ending somewhere in the soil below the footing. Local shear failure is accompanied by vertical compression of soil below the footing and visible bulging of soil adjacent to the footing but not by sudden rotation or tilting of the footing. Local shear failure is a transitional condition between general and punching shear failure. Punching shear failure is characterized by vertical shear around the perimeter of the footing and is accompanied by a vertical movement of the footing and compression of the soil immediately below the footing but does not affect the soil outside the loaded area. Punching shear failure occurs in loose or compressible soils, in weak soils under slow (drained) loading, and in dense sands for deep footings subjected to high loads.

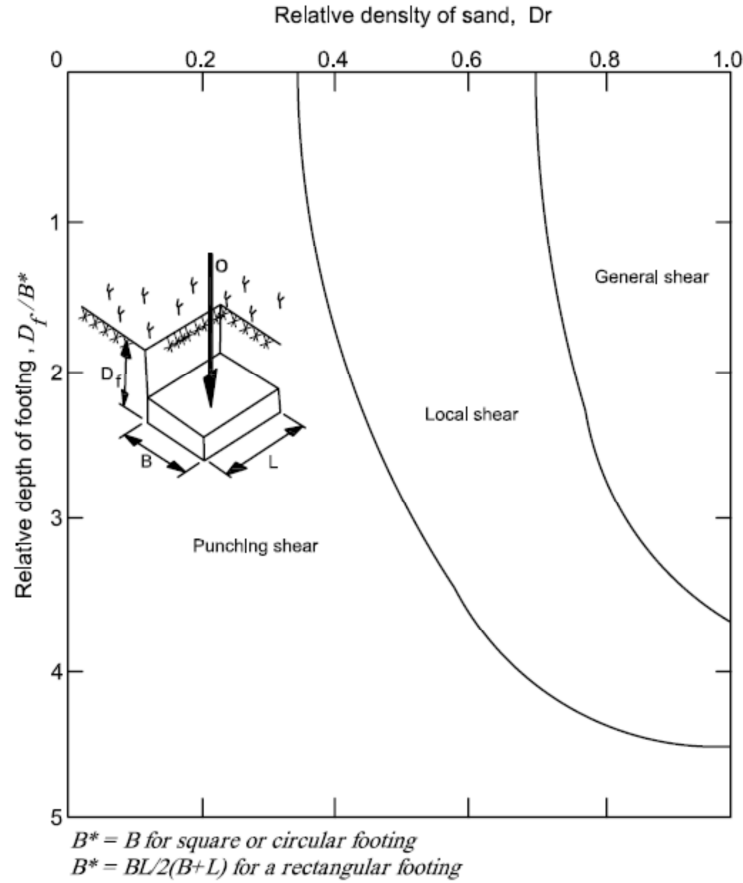


Figure 8.13: Modes of Bearing Capacity Failure for Footings in Sand.

c. Considerations for Footings on Slopes

For footings bearing on or near slopes:

$$N_q = 0.0 \quad (8.41)$$

In Eq. (8.30), N_c and N_γ shall be replaced with N_{cq} and $N_{\gamma q}$, respectively, from Figure 8.14 and Figure 8.15 for footings bearing on or near slopes.

- C A rational numerical approach for determining a modified bearing capacity factor, N_{cq} , for footings on or near a slope is given in Bowles (1988).

In Figure 8.14, the slope stability factor, N_s , shall be taken as:

- For $B < H_s$:

$$N_s = 0 \quad (8.42)$$

- For $B \geq H_s$:

$$N_s = \frac{g\gamma H_s}{c} \times 10^{-9} \quad (8.43)$$

where:

B = footing width (mm)

H_s = height of sloping ground mass (mm)

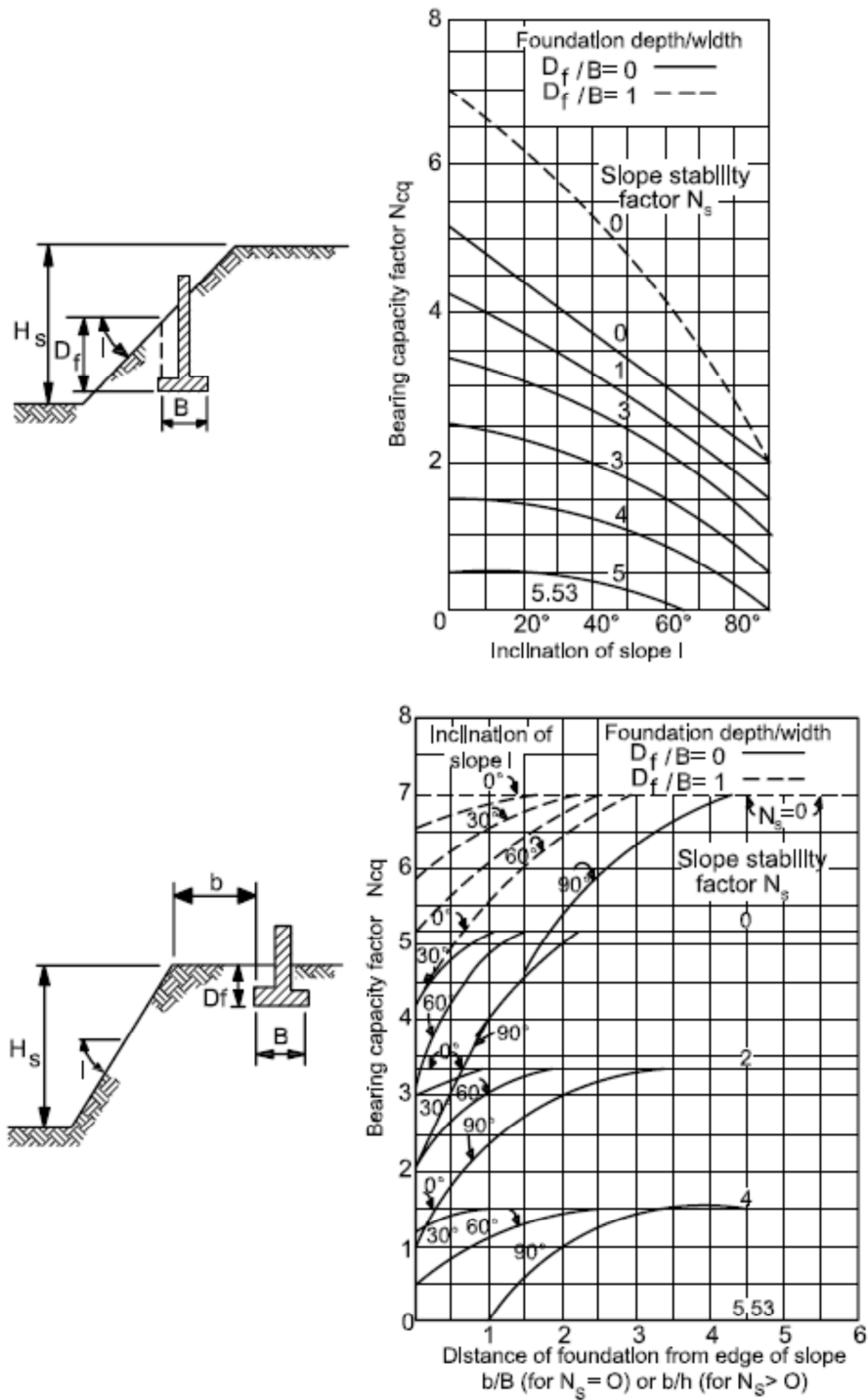


Figure 8.14: Modified Bearing Capacity Factors for Footing in Cohesive Soils and on or Adjacent to Sloping Ground after Meyerhof (1957).

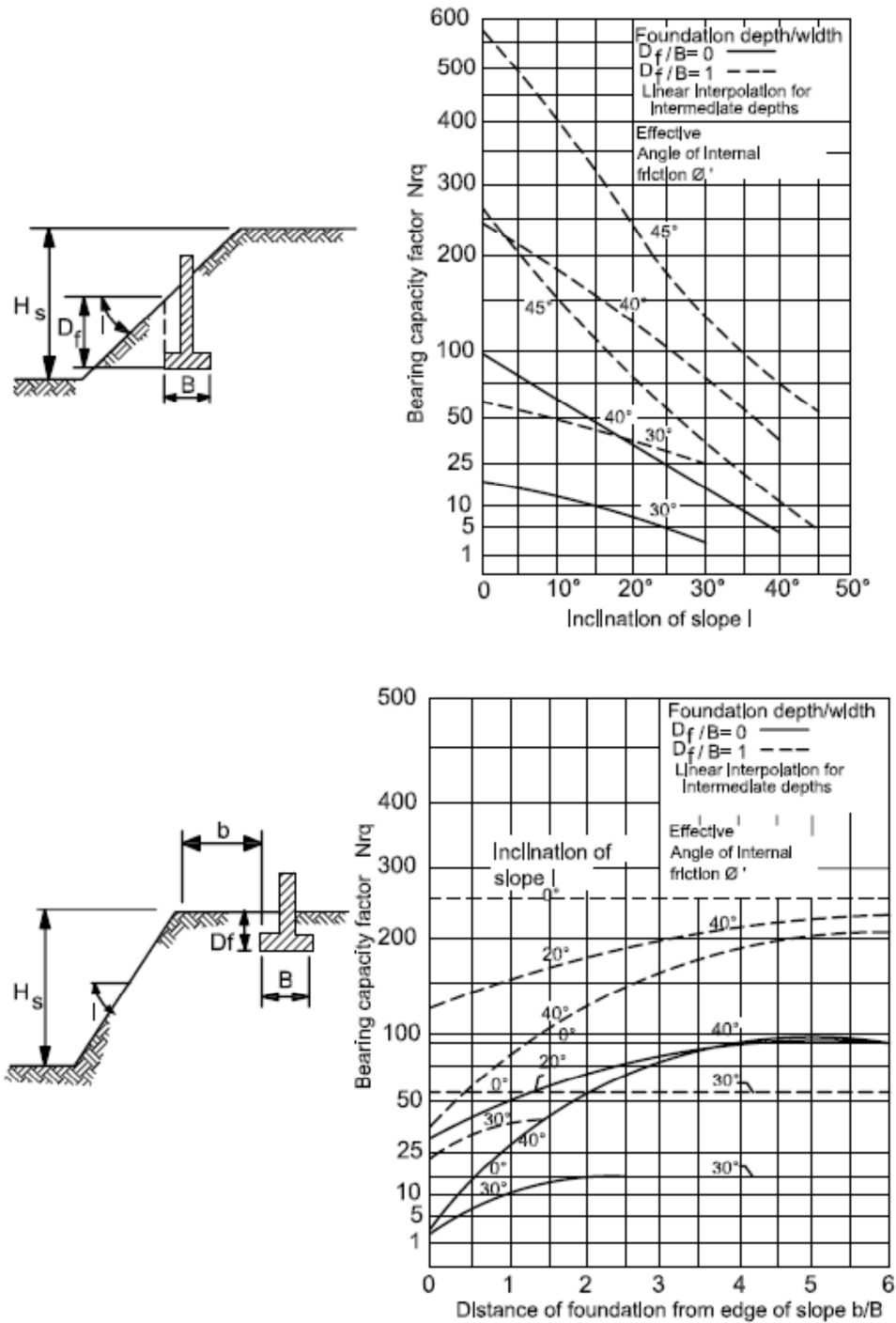


Figure 8.15: Modified Bearing Capacity Factors for Footings in Cohesionless Soils and on or Adjacent to Sloping Ground after Meyerhof (1957).

d. Considerations for Two-Layer Soil Systems—Critical Depth

Where the soil profile contains a second layer of soil with different properties affecting shear strength within a distance below the footing less than H_{crit} , the bearing resistance of the layered soil profile shall be determined using the provisions for two-layered soil systems herein. The distance H_{crit} , in mm, may be taken as:

$$H_{crit} = \left(\frac{3}{2} B \right) \ln \left(\frac{q_1}{q_2} \right) \left/ \left(1 + \frac{B}{L} \right) \right. \quad (8.44)$$

where:

q_1 = nominal bearing resistance of footing supported in the upper layer of a two-layer system, assuming the upper layer is infinitely thick (MPa)

q_2 = nominal bearing resistance of a fictitious footing of the same size and shape as the actual footing but supported on surface of the second (lower) layer of a two-layer system (MPa)

B = footing width (mm)

L = footing length (mm)

e. Two-layered Soil System in Undrained Loading

Where a footing is supported on a two-layered soil system subjected to undrained loading, the nominal bearing resistance may be determined using Eq. (8.30) with the following modifications:

c_1 = undrained shear strength of the top layer of soil as depicted in Figure 8.17 (MPa)

N_{cm} = N_m , a bearing capacity factor as specified below (dim.)

N_{qm} = 1.0 (dim.)

Where the bearing stratum overlies a stiffer cohesive soil, N_m , may be taken as specified in Figure 8.16.

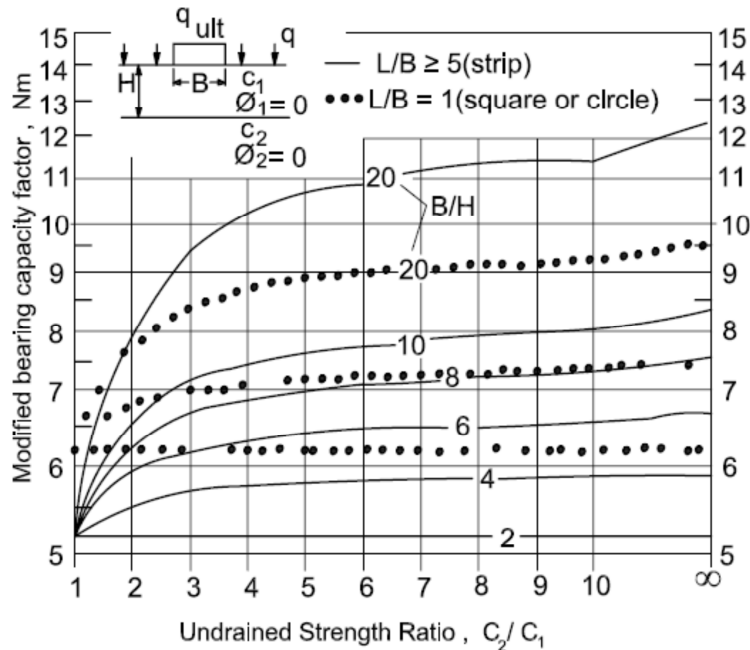


Figure 8.16: Modified Bearing Factor for Two-Layer Cohesive Soil with Weaker Soil Overlying Stronger Soil (EPRI, 1983).

Where the bearing stratum overlies a softer cohesive soil, N_m may be taken as:

$$N_m = \left(\frac{1}{\beta_m} + \kappa s_c N_c \right) \leq s_c N_c \quad (8.45)$$

in which:

$$\beta_m = \frac{BL}{2(B + L)H_{s2}} \quad (8.46)$$

$$\kappa = \frac{c_2}{c_1} \quad (8.47)$$

where:

- β_m = the punching index (dim.)
- c_1 = undrained shear strength of upper soil layer (MPa)
- c_2 = undrained shear strength of lower soil layer (MPa)
- H_{s2} = distance from bottom of footing to top of the second soil layer (mm)
- s_c = shape correction factor determined from [Table 8.27](#)
- N_c = bearing capacity factor determined herein (dim.)
- N_{qm} = bearing capacity factor determined herein (dim.)

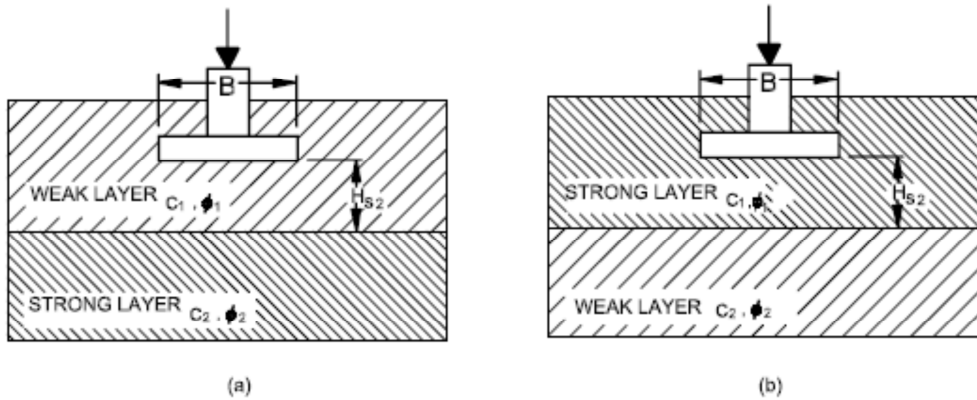


Figure 8.17: Two-Layer Soil Profiles.

f. Two-layered Soil System in Drained Loading

Where a footing supported on a two-layered soil system is subjected to a drained loading, the nominal bearing resistance, in MPa, may be taken as:

$$q_n = \left[q_2 + \left(\frac{1}{K} \right) c'_1 \cot \phi'_1 \right] e^\beta - \left(\frac{1}{K} \right) c'_1 \cot \phi'_1 \quad (8.48)$$

in which:

$$\beta = 2 \left[1 + \left(\frac{B}{L} \right) \right] K \tan \phi'_1 \left(\frac{H}{B} \right) \quad (8.49)$$

$$K = \frac{1 - \sin^2 \phi'_1}{1 + \sin^2 \phi'_1} \quad (8.50)$$

where:

c'_1 = drained shear strength of the top layer of soil as depicted in [Figure 8.17](#) (MPa)

q_2 = nominal bearing resistance of a fictitious footing of the same size and shape as the actual footing but supported on surface of the second (lower) layer of a two-layer system (MPa)

ϕ'_1 = effective stress angle of internal friction of the top layer of soil (deg.)

C If the upper layer is a cohesionless soil and ϕ' equals 25° to 50°, Eq. [\(8.48\)](#) reduces to:

$$q_n = q_2 e^{0.67 \left[1 + \left(\frac{B}{L} \right) \right] \frac{H}{B}} \quad (8.51)$$

3. Semi-empirical Procedures

The nominal bearing resistance of foundation soils may be estimated from the results of in-situ tests or by observed resistance of similar soils. The use of a particular in-situ test and the interpretation of test results should take local experience into consideration.

The following in-situ tests may be used:

- Standard Penetration Test
- Cone Penetration Test

C In application of these empirical methods, the use of average *SPT* blow counts and *CPT* tip resistances is specified. The resistance factors recommended for bearing resistance included in [Table 8.14](#) assume the use of average values for these parameters. The use of lower bound values may result in an overly conservative design. However, depending on the availability of soil property data and the variability of the geologic strata under consideration, it may not be possible to reliably estimate the average value of the properties needed for design. In such cases, the Engineer may have no choice but to use a more conservative selection of design input parameters to mitigate the additional risks created by potential variability or the paucity of relevant data.

The nominal bearing resistance in sand, in MPa, based on *SPT* results may be taken as:

$$q_n = (3.2 \times 10^{-5}) \bar{N}_{160} B \left(C_{wq} \frac{D_f}{B} + C_{w\gamma} \right) \quad (8.52)$$

where:

$\bar{N}_{160}$ = average *SPT* blow counts corrected for both overburden and hammer efficiency effects (blows/300 mm) as specified in Article [8.4.6.2.4](#). Average the blow count over a depth range from the bottom of the footing to 1.5B below the bottom of the footing.

B = footing width (mm)

- C_{wq} , $C_{w\gamma}$ = correction factors to account for the location of the groundwater table as specified in [Table 8.26](#) (dim.)
 D_f = footing embedment depth taken to the bottom of the footing (mm)

The nominal bearing resistance, in MPa, for footings on cohesionless soils based on *CPT* results may be taken as:

$$q_n = (8.2 \times 10^{-5}) \bar{q}_c B \left(C_{wq} \frac{D_f}{B} + C_{w\gamma} \right) \quad (8.53)$$

where:

- $\bar{q}_c$ = average cone tip resistance within a depth range B below the bottom of the footing (MPa)
 B = footing width (mm)
 C_{wq} , $C_{w\gamma}$ = correction factors to account for the location of the groundwater table as specified in [Table 8.26](#) (dim.)
 D_f = footing embedment depth taken to the bottom of the footing (mm)

C The original derivation of Eqs. [\(8.52\)](#) and [\(8.53\)](#) did not include inclination factors ([Meyerhof 1956](#)).

4. Plate Load Tests

The nominal bearing resistance may be determined by plate load tests, provided that adequate subsurface explorations have been made to determine the soil profile below the foundation. Where plate load tests are conducted, they should be conducted in accordance with [AASHTO T 235](#) and [ASTM D 1194](#).

C Plate load tests have a limited depth of influence and furthermore may not disclose the potential for long-term consolidation of foundation soils.

The nominal bearing resistance determined from a plate load test may be extrapolated to adjacent footings where the subsurface profile is confirmed by subsurface exploration to be similar.

C Scale effects should be addressed when extrapolating the results to performance of full scale footings. Extrapolation of the plate load test data to a full scale footing should be based on the design procedures provided herein for settlement (service limit state) and bearing resistance (strength and extreme event limit state), with consideration to the effect of the stratification, i.e., layer thicknesses, depths, and properties. Plate load test results should be applied only within a sub-area of the project site for which the subsurface conditions, i.e., stratification, geologic history, and properties, are relatively uniform.

8.6.3.2. Bearing Resistance of Rock

1. General

The methods used for design of footings on rock shall consider the presence, orientation, and condition of discontinuities, weathering profiles, and other similar profiles as they apply at a particular site.

C The design of spread footings bearing on rock is frequently controlled by either overall stability, i.e., the orientation and conditions of discontinuities, or load eccentricity considerations.

For footings on competent rock, reliance on simple and direct analyses based on uniaxial compressive rock strengths and *RQD* may be applicable.

For footings on less competent rock, more detailed investigations and analyses shall be performed to account for the effects of weathering and the presence and condition of discontinuities.

The designer shall judge the competency of a rock mass by taking into consideration both the nature of the intact rock and the orientation and condition of discontinuities of the overall rock mass. Where engineering judgment does not verify the presence of competent rock, the competency of the rock mass should be verified using the procedures for *RMR* rating in Article [8.4.6.4](#).

- C The designer should verify adequate overall stability at the service limit state and size the footing based on eccentricity requirements at the strength limit state before checking nominal bearing resistance at both the service and strength limit states.

2. Semi-empirical Procedures

The nominal bearing resistance of rock should be determined using empirical correlation with the Geomechanics Rock Mass Rating system. Local experience shall be considered in the use of these semi-empirical procedures.

The factored bearing stress of the foundation shall not be taken to be greater than the factored compressive resistance of the footing concrete.

- C The bearing resistance of jointed or broken rock may be estimated using the semi-empirical procedure developed by [Carter and Kulhawy \(1988\)](#). This procedure is based on the unconfined compressive strength of the intact rock core sample. Depending on rock mass quality measured in terms of *RMR* system, the nominal bearing resistance of a rock mass varies from a small fraction to six times the unconfined compressive strength of intact rock core samples.

3. Analytic Method

The nominal bearing resistance of foundations on rock shall be determined using established rock mechanics principles based on the rock mass strength parameters. The influence of discontinuities on the failure mode shall also be considered.

- C Depending upon the relative spacing of joints and rock layering, bearing capacity failures for foundations on rock may take several forms. Except for the case of a rock mass with closed joints, the failure modes are different from those in soil. Procedures for estimating bearing resistance for each of the failure modes can be found in [Kulhawy and Goodman \(1987\)](#), [Goodman \(1989\)](#), and [Sowers \(1979\)](#).

4. Load Test

Where appropriate, load tests may be performed to determine the nominal bearing resistance of foundations on rock.

8.6.3.3. Eccentric Load Limitations

The eccentricity of loading at the strength limit state, evaluated based on factored loads shall not exceed:

- One-fourth of the corresponding footing dimension, B or L , for footings on soils,
 - Three-eighths of the corresponding footing dimensions B or L , for footings on rock.
- C A comprehensive parametric study was conducted for cantilevered retaining walls of various heights and soil conditions. The base widths obtained using the LRFD load factors and eccentricity of $B/4$ were comparable to those of ASD with an eccentricity of $B/6$.

8.6.3.4. Failure by Sliding

Failure by sliding shall be investigated for footings that support horizontal or inclined load and/or are founded on slopes.

For foundations on clay soils, the possible presence of a shrinkage gap between the soil and the foundation shall be considered. If passive resistance is included as part of the shear resistance required for resisting sliding, consideration shall also be given to possible future removal of the soil in front of the foundation.

- C Sliding failure occurs if the force effects due to the horizontal component of loads exceed the more critical of either the factored shear resistance of the soils or the factored shear resistance at the interface between the soil and the foundation.
- C For footings on cohesionless soils, sliding resistance depends on the roughness of the interface between the foundation and the soil.
- C The magnitudes of active earth load and passive resistance depend on the type of backfill material, the wall movement, and the compactive effort. Their magnitude can be estimated using procedures described in [Section 3](#) and [Section 9](#).
- C In most cases, the movement of the structure and its foundation will be small. Consequently, if passive resistance is included in the resistance, its magnitude is commonly taken as 50 percent of the maximum passive resistance. This is the basis for the resistance factor, ϕ_{ep} , in [Table 8.14](#).

The factored resistance against failure by sliding, in N, shall be taken as:

$$R_R = \phi R_n = \phi_\tau R_\tau = \phi_{ep} R_{ep} \quad (8.54)$$

where:

R_n = nominal sliding resistance against failure by sliding (N)

ϕ_τ = resistance factor for shear resistance between soil and foundation specified in [Table 8.14](#)

R_τ = nominal sliding resistance between soil and foundation (N)

ϕ_{ep} = resistance factor for passive resistance specified in [Table 8.14](#)

R_{ep} = nominal passive resistance of soil available throughout the design life of the structure (N).

- C The units for R_R , R_n , R_τ and R_{ep} are shown in N. For elements designed on a unit length basis, these quantities will have the units of N per unit length

If the soil beneath the footing is cohesionless, the nominal sliding resistance between soil and foundation shall be taken as:

$$R_\tau = V \tan \delta \quad (8.55)$$

for which:

$\tan \delta$ = $\tan \phi_f$ for concrete cast against soil
 = $0.8 \tan \phi_f$ for precast concrete footing

where:

ϕ_f = internal friction angle of drained soil (deg.)

V = total vertical force (N)

- C Rough footing bases usually occur where footings are cast in-situ. Precast concrete footings may have smooth bases.

For footings that rest on clay, the sliding resistance may be taken as the lesser of:

- The cohesion of the clay, or

- Where footings are supported on at least 150 mm of compacted granular material, one-half the normal stress on the interface between the footing and soil, as shown in [Figure 8.18](#) for retaining walls.

The following notation shall be taken to apply to [Figure 8.18](#):

- q_s = unit shear resistance, equal to S_u or $0.5 \sigma'_v$, whichever is less.
- Q_τ = nominal sliding resistance between soil and foundation (N) expressed as the shaded area under the q_s diagram.
- S_u = undrained shear strength (MPa).
- σ'_v = vertical effective stress (MPa)

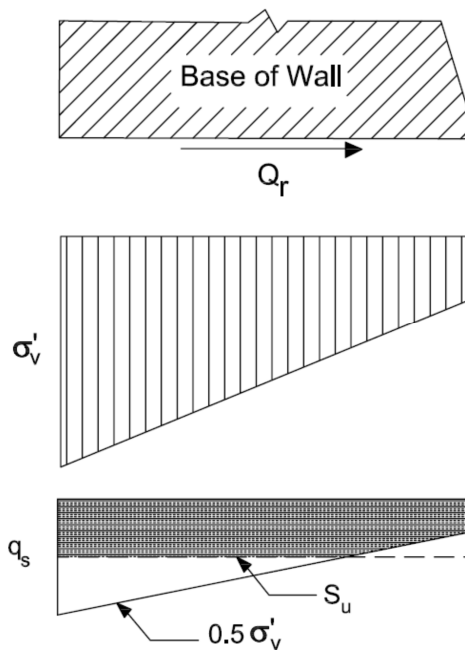


Figure 8.18: Procedure for Estimating Nominal Sliding Resistance for Walls on Clay.

8.6.4. Extreme Event Limit State Design

8.6.4.1. General

Extreme limit state design checks for spread footings shall include, but not necessarily be limited, to:

- bearing resistance,
- eccentric load limitations (overturning),
- sliding, and
- overall stability.

Resistance factors shall be as specified in Article [8.5.5.3](#).

8.6.4.2. Eccentric Load Limitations

For footings, whether on soil or on rock, the eccentricity of loading for extreme limit states shall not exceed the limits provided in [9.6.5](#).

If live loads act to reduce the eccentricity for the Extreme I limit state, γ_{EQ} shall be taken as 0.0.

8.6.5. Structural Design

The structural design of footings shall comply with the requirements given in [Section 5](#).

For structural design of an eccentrically loaded foundation, a triangular or trapezoidal contact stress distribution based on factored loads shall be used for footings bearing on all soil and rock conditions.

- C For purposes of structural design, it is usually assumed that the bearing stress varies linearly across the bottom of the footing. This assumption results in the slightly conservative triangular or trapezoidal contact stress distribution.

8.7. DRIVEN PILES

8.7.1. General

8.7.1.1. Application

Piling should be considered when spread footings cannot be founded on rock, or on competent soils at a reasonable cost. At locations where soil conditions would normally permit the use of spread footings but the potential exists for scour, liquefaction or lateral spreading, piles bearing on suitable materials below susceptible soils should be considered for use as a protection against these problems. Piles should also be considered where right-of way or other space limitations would not allow the use spread footings, or where removal of existing soil that is contaminated by hazardous materials for construction of shallow foundations is not desirable.

Piles should also be considered where an unacceptable amount of settlement of spread footings may occur.

8.7.1.2. Minimum Pile Spacing, Clearance, and Embedment into Cap

Center-to-center pile spacing should not be less than 750 mm or 2.5 pile diameters. The distance from the side of any pile to the nearest edge of the pile cap shall not be less than 225 mm.

The tops of piles shall project at least 300 mm into the pile cap after all damaged material has been removed. If the pile is attached to the cap by embedded bars or strands, the pile shall extend no less than 150 mm into the cap.

Where a reinforced concrete beam is cast-in-place and used as a bent cap supported by piles, the concrete cover on the sides of the piles shall not be less than 150 mm, plus an allowance for permissible pile misalignment. Where pile reinforcement is anchored in the cap satisfying the requirements of Article [5.17.4.1](#), the projection may be less than 150 mm.

8.7.1.3. Piles through Embankment Fill

Piles to be driven through embankments should penetrate a minimum of 3000 mm through original ground unless refusal on bedrock or competent bearing strata occurs at a lesser penetration.

- C If refusal occurs at a depth of less than 3000 mm, other foundation types, e.g., footings or shafts, may be more effective.

Fill used for embankment construction should be a select material, which does not obstruct pile penetration to the required depth.

- C To minimize the potential for obstruction of the piles, the maximum size of any rock particles in the fill should not exceed 150 mm. Pre-drilling or spudding pile locations should be considered in situations where obstructions in the embankment fill cannot be avoided, particularly for displacement piles. Note that pre-drilling or spudding may reduce the pile skin friction and lateral resistance, depending on how the pre-drilling or spudding is conducted. The diameter of the predrilled or spudded hole, and the potential for caving of the hole before the pile is installed will need to be considered to assess the effect this will have on skin friction and lateral resistance.
- C If compressible soils are located beneath the embankment, piles should be driven after embankment settlement is complete, if possible, to minimize or eliminate downdrag forces.

8.7.1.4. Batter Piles

When the lateral resistance of the soil surrounding the piles is inadequate to counteract the horizontal forces transmitted to the foundation, or when increased rigidity of the entire structure is required, batter piles should be considered for use in the foundation. Where negative skin friction (downdrag) loads are expected, batter piles should be avoided. If batter piles are used in areas of significant seismic loading, the design of the pile foundation shall recognize the increased foundation stiffness that results.

- C In some cases, it may be desirable to use batter piles. From a general viewpoint, batter piles provide a much stiffer resistance to horizontal loads than would be possible with vertical piles. They can be very effective in resisting static horizontal loads.
- C Due to increased foundation stiffness, batter piles may not be desirable in resisting horizontal dynamic loads if the structure is located in an area where seismic loads are potentially high.

8.7.1.5. Pile Design Requirements

Pile design shall address the following issues as appropriate:

- Nominal axial resistance to be specified in the contract documents, type of pile, and size of pile group required to provide adequate support, with consideration of how nominal axial pile resistance will be determined in the field.
- Group interaction.
- Pile quantity estimation from estimated pile penetration required to meet nominal axial resistance and other design requirements.
- Minimum pile penetration necessary to satisfy the requirements caused by uplift, scour, downdrag, settlement, liquefaction, lateral loads, and seismic conditions.
- Foundation deflection to meet the established movement and associated structure performance criteria.
- Pile foundation nominal structural resistance.

- Verification of pile drivability to confirm that acceptable driving stresses and blow counts can be achieved with an available driving system to meet all contract acceptance criteria.
- Long-term durability of the pile in service, i.e. corrosion and deterioration.

C The driven pile design process is discussed in detail in [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#).

8.7.1.6. Determination of Pile Loads

1. General

The loads and load factors to be used in pile foundation design shall be as specified in [Section 3](#). Computational assumptions that shall be used in determining individual pile loads are described in [Section 4](#).

C The specification and determination of top of cap loads is discussed in [Section 3](#). The Engineer should select different levels of analysis, detail and accuracy as appropriate for the structure under consideration. Details are discussed in [Section 4](#).

2. Downdrag

Downdrag occurs when settlement of soils along the side of the piles results in downward movement of the soil relative to the pile. See commentary in Article [3.10.8](#).

The provisions of Article [3.10.8](#) shall apply for determination of load due to negative skin resistance.

Where piles are driven to end bearing on a dense stratum or rock and the design of the pile is structurally controlled, downdrag shall be considered at the strength and extreme limit states.

For friction piles that can experience settlement at the pile tip, downdrag shall be considered at the service, strength and extreme limit states. Determine pile and pile group settlement according to Article [8.7.2](#).

- C In the case of friction piles with limited tip resistance, the downdrag load can exceed the geotechnical resistance of the pile, causing the pile to move downward enough to allow service limit state criteria for the structure to be exceeded. Where pile settlement is not limited by pile bearing below the downdrag zone, service limit state tolerances will govern the geotechnical design of piles subjected to downdrag.
- C This design situation is not desirable and the preferred practice is to mitigate the downdrag induced foundation settlement through a properly designed surcharge and/or pre loading program, or by extending the piles deeper for higher resistance.

The nominal pile resistance available to support structure loads plus downdrag shall be estimated by considering only the positive skin and tip resistance below the lowest layer acting in negative skin resistance computed as specified in Article [3.10.8](#).

C The static analysis procedures in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#) may be used to estimate the available pile resistance to withstand the downdrag plus structure loads.

3. Uplift Due to Expansive Soils

Piles penetrating expansive soil shall extend to a depth into moisture-stable soils sufficient to provide adequate anchorage to resist uplift. Sufficient clearance should be provided between the ground surface and underside of caps or beams connecting piles to preclude the application of uplift loads at the pile/cap connection due to swelling ground conditions.

- C Evaluation of potential uplift loads on piles extending through expansive soils requires evaluation of the swell potential of the soil and the extent of the soil strata that may affect the pile. One reasonably reliable method for identifying swell potential is presented in [Table 8.5](#). Alternatively, [ASTM D 4829](#) may be used to evaluate swell potential. The thickness of the potentially expansive stratum must be identified by:

- examination of soil samples from borings for the presence of jointing, slickensiding, or a blocky structure and for changes in color, and
- laboratory testing for determination of soil moisture content profiles.

4. Nearby Structures

Where pile foundations are placed adjacent to existing structures, the influence of the existing structure on the behavior of the foundation, and the effect of the new foundation on the existing structures, including vibration effects due to pile installation, shall be investigated.

- C Vibration due to pile driving can cause settlement of existing foundations as well as structural damage to the adjacent facility. The combination of taking measures to mitigate the vibration levels through use of non-displacement piles, pre-drilling, etc., and a good vibration monitoring program should be considered.

8.7.2. Service Limit State Design

8.7.2.1. General

Service limit state design of driven pile foundations includes the evaluation of settlement due to static loads, and downdrag loads if present, overall stability, lateral squeeze, and lateral deformation.

Overall stability of a pile supported foundation shall be evaluated where:

- The foundation is placed through an embankment,
- The pile foundation is located on, near or within a slope,
- The possibility of loss of foundation support through erosion or scour exists, or
- Bearing strata are significantly inclined.

- C Lateral analysis of pile foundations is conducted to establish the load distribution between the superstructure and foundations for all limit states, and to estimate the deformation in the foundation that will occur due to those loads. This Article only addresses the evaluation of the lateral deformation of the foundation resulting from the distributed loads.

Unbalanced lateral forces caused by lack of overall stability or lateral squeeze should be mitigated through stabilization measures, if possible.

- C In general, it is not desirable to subject the pile foundation to unbalanced lateral loading caused by lack of overall stability or caused by lateral squeeze.

8.7.2.2. Tolerable Movements

The provisions of Article [8.5.2.1](#) shall apply (See commentary in Article [8.5.2.1](#).)

8.7.2.3. Settlement

1. Equivalent Footing Analogy

For purposes of calculating the settlements of pile groups, loads should be assumed to act on an equivalent footing based on the depth of embedment of the piles into the layer that provides support as shown in [Figure 8.19](#) and [Figure 8.20](#).

Pile group settlement shall be evaluated for pile foundations in cohesive soils, soils that include cohesive layers, and piles in loose granular soils. The load used in calculating settlement shall be the permanently applied load on the foundation.

In applying the equivalent footing analogy for pile foundation, the reduction to equivalent dimensions B' and L' as used for spread footing design does not apply.

- C Pile design should ensure that strength limit state considerations are satisfied before checking service limit state considerations.
- C For piles tipped adequately into dense granular soils such that the equivalent footing is located on or within the dense granular soil, and furthermore are not subjected to downdrag loads, a detailed assessment of the pile group settlement may be waived.
- C Methods for calculating settlement are discussed in [Hannigan et al., \(2005\)](#).

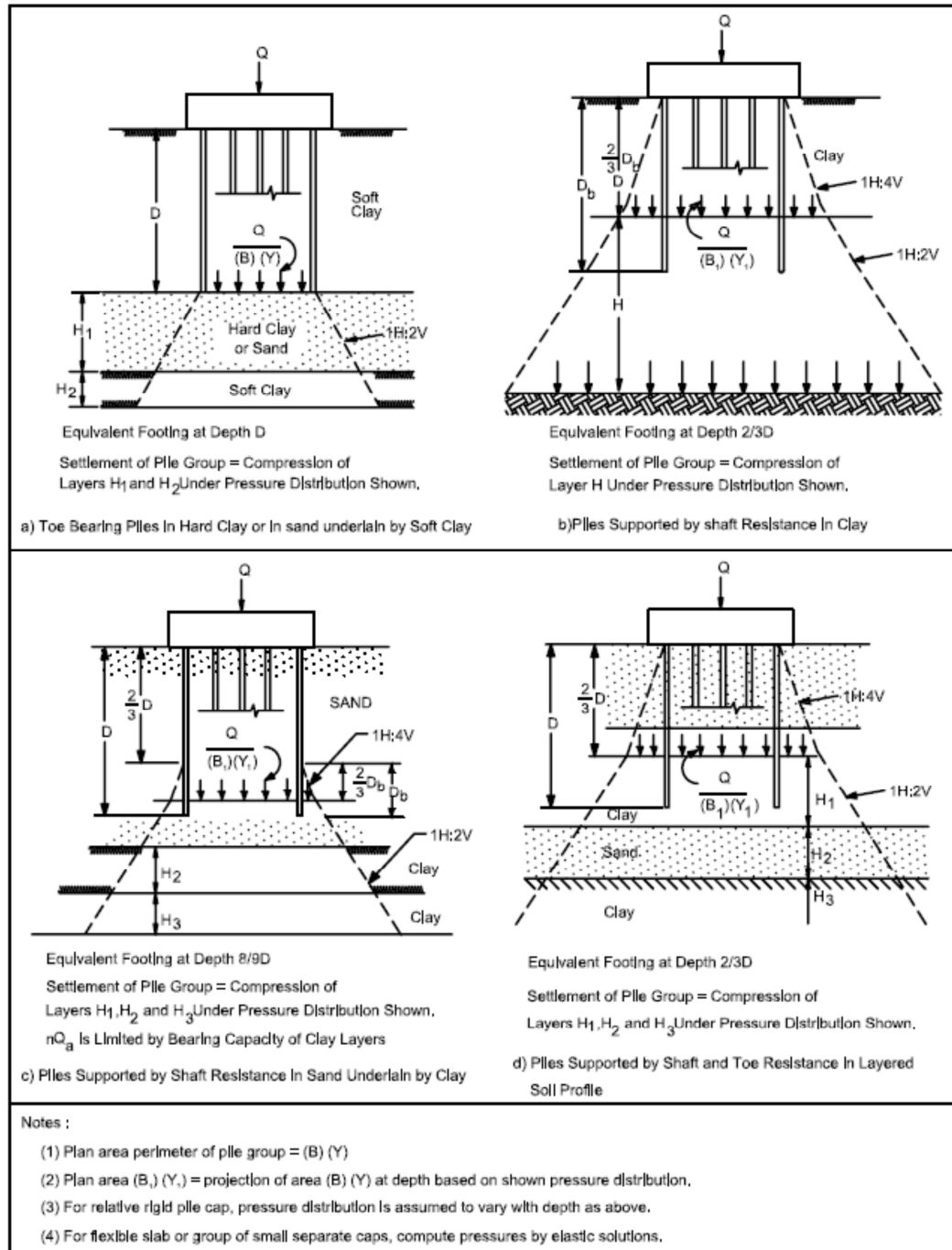


Figure 8.19: Stress Distribution below Equivalent Footing for Pile Group.

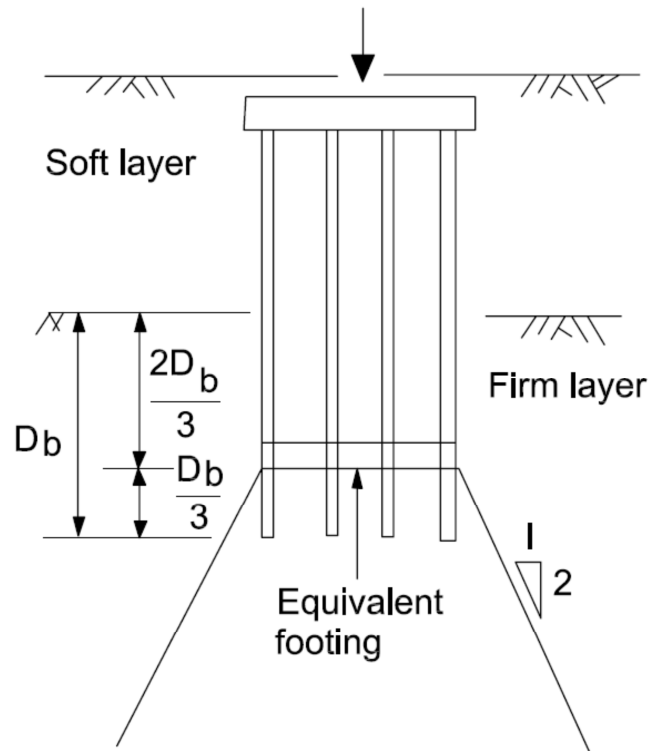


Figure 8.20: Location of Equivalent Footing.

2. Pile Groups in Cohesive Soil

Shallow foundation settlement estimation procedures shall be used to estimate the settlement of a pile group, using the equivalent footing location specified in [Figure 8.19](#) or [Figure 8.20](#).

The settlement of pile groups in cohesionless soils may be taken as:

Using *SPT*:

$$\rho = \frac{30qI\sqrt{B}}{N_{160}} \quad (8.56)$$

Using *CPT*:

$$\rho = \frac{qBI}{24q_c} \quad (8.57)$$

in which:

$$I = 1 - 0.125 \frac{D'}{B} \geq 0.5 \quad (8.58)$$

where:

ρ = settlement of pile group (mm)

- q = net foundation pressure applied at $2D_b/3$, as shown in [Figure 8.19](#); this pressure is equal to the applied load at the top of the group divided by the area of the equivalent footing and does not include the weight of the piles or the soil between the piles (MPa)
- B = width or smallest dimension of pile group (mm)
- I = influence factor of the effective group embedment (dim.)
- D' = effective depth taken as $2D_b/3$ (mm)
- D_b = depth of embedment of piles in layer that provides support, as specified in [Figure 8.19](#) (mm)
- NI_{60} = SPT blow counts corrected for both overburden and hammer efficiency effects (blows/300 mm) as specified in Article [8.4.6.2.4](#).
- q_c = static cone tip resistance (MPa)

- C The provisions are based upon the use of empirical correlations proposed by [Meyerhof \(1976\)](#). These are empirical correlations and the units of measure must match those specified for correct computations. This method may tend to over-predict settlements.

Alternatively, other methods for computing settlement in cohesionless soil, such as the Hough method as specified in Article [8.4.6.2.4](#) may also be used in connection with the equivalent footing approach.

The corrected *SPT* blow count or the static cone tip resistance should be averaged over a depth equal to the pile group width B below the equivalent footing.

The *SPT* and *CPT* methods (Eqs. [\(8.56\)](#) and [\(8.57\)](#)) shall only be considered applicable to the distributions shown in [Figure 8.19](#) and [Figure 8.20](#).

8.7.2.4. Horizontal Pile Foundation Movement

Horizontal movement induced by lateral loads shall be evaluated. The provisions of Article [8.5.2.1](#) shall apply regarding horizontal movement criteria.

- C Pile foundations are subjected to horizontal loads due to wind, traffic loads, bridge curvature, vessel or traffic impact and earthquake. Batter piles are sometimes used but they are somewhat more expensive than vertical piles, and vertical piles are more effective against dynamic loads.
- C Methods of analysis that use manual computation were developed by [Broms \(1964a and 1964b\)](#). They are discussed in detail by [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#). Reese developed analysis methods that model the horizontal soil resistance using P-y curves. This analysis has been well developed and software is available for analyzing single piles and pile groups ([Reese, 1986; Williams et al., 2003; and Hannigan et al., 2005](#)).
- C Deep foundation horizontal movement at the foundation design stage may be analyzed using computer applications that consider soil-structure interaction. Application formulations are available that consider the total structure including pile cap, pier and superstructure ([Williams et al., 2003](#)).

The horizontal movement of pile foundations shall be estimated using procedures that consider soil-structure interaction. Tolerable lateral movements of piles shall be established on the basis of confirming compatible movements of structural components, e.g., pile to column connections, for the loading condition under consideration.

The effects of the lateral resistance provided by an embedded cap may be considered in the evaluation of horizontal movement.

The orientation of non-symmetrical pile cross-sections shall be considered when computing the pile lateral stiffness.

Lateral resistance of single piles may be determined by static load test. If a static lateral load test is to be performed, it shall follow the procedures specified in [ASTM D 3966](#).

- C If a static load test is used to assess the site specific lateral resistance of a pile, information on the methods of analysis and interpretation of lateral load tests presented in the Handbook on Design of Piles and Drilled Shafts Under Lateral Load, [Reese \(1984\)](#) and Static Testing of Deep Foundations, [Kyfor et al. \(1992\)](#) should be used.

The effects of group interaction shall be taken into account when evaluating pile group horizontal movement. When the P - y method of analysis is used, the values of P shall be multiplied by P -multiplier values, P_m , to account for group effects. The values of P_m provided in [Table 8.29](#) should be used.

Table 8.29: Pile P -Multipliers, P_m , for Multiple Row Shading.

Pile CTC spacing (in the direction of loading)	P -Multipliers, $P_m^{(1)}$		
	Row 1	Row 2	Row 3 and higher
$3B$	0.7	0.5	0.35
$5B$	1.0	0.85	0.7

Loading direction and spacing shall be taken as defined in [Figure 8.21](#). If the loading direction for a single row of piles is perpendicular to the row (bottom detail in the Figure), a group reduction factor of less than 1.0 should only be used if the pile spacing is $5B$ or less, i.e., a P_m of 0.7 for a spacing of $3B$, as shown in [Figure 8.21](#).

- C Since many piles are installed in groups, the horizontal resistance of the group has been studied and it has been found that multiple rows of piles will have less resistance than the sum of the single pile resistance. The front piles "shade" rows that are further back.
- C The P -multipliers, P_m , in [Table 8.29](#) are a function of the center-to-center (CTC) spacing of piles in the group in the direction of loading expressed in multiples of the pile diameter, B . The values of P_m in [Table 8.29](#) were developed for vertical piles only.
- C Horizontal load tests have been performed on pile groups, and multipliers have been determined that can be used in the analysis for the various rows. Those multipliers have been found to depend on the pile spacing and the row number in the direction of loading. To establish values of P_m for other pile spacing values, interpolation between values should be conducted.
- C The multipliers on the pile rows are a topic of current research and may change in the future. Values from recent research have been tabulated by [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#). Averaged values are provided in [Table 8.29](#).
- C Note that these P - y methods generally apply to foundation elements that have some ability to bend and deflect. For large diameter, relatively short foundation elements, e.g., drilled shafts or relatively short stiff piles, the foundation element rotates rather than bends, in which case strain wedge theory ([Norris, 1986](#); [Ashour et al., 1998](#)) may be more applicable. When strain wedge theory is used to assess the lateral load response of groups of short, large diameter piles or shaft groups, group effects should be addressed through evaluation of the overlap between shear zones formed due to the passive wedge that develops in front of each shaft in the group as lateral deflection increases. Note that P_m in [Table 8.29](#) is not applicable if strain wedge theory is used.
- C Batter piles provide a much stiffer lateral response than vertical piles when loaded in the direction of the batter.

⁽¹⁾ The values of P_m were developed for vertical piles only.

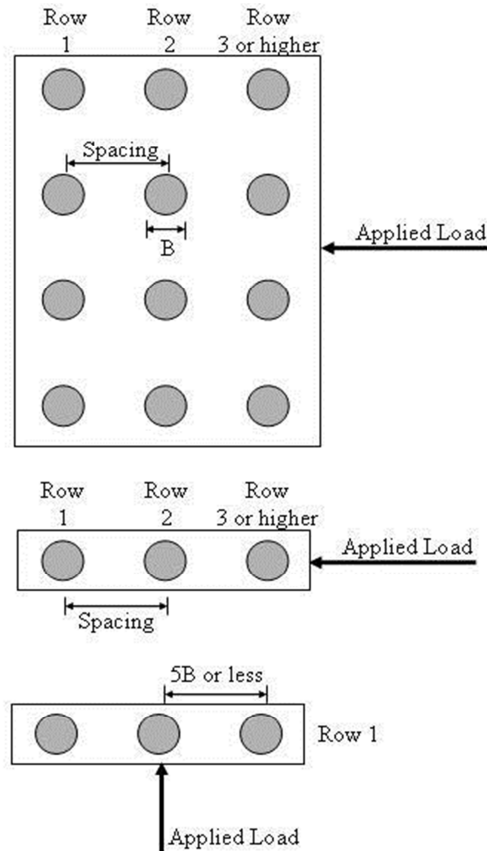


Figure 8.21: Definition of loading direction and spacing for group effects.

8.7.2.5. Settlement Due to Downdrag

The nominal pile resistance available to support structure loads plus downdrag shall be estimated by considering only the positive skin and tip resistance below the lowest layer contributing to the downdrag.

- C The static analysis procedures in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#) may be used to estimate the available pile resistance to withstand the downdrag plus structure loads.
- C Resistance may also be estimated using a dynamic method, e.g., dynamic measurements with signal matching analysis, pile driving formula, etc., per Article [8.7.3.8](#), provided the skin friction resistance within the zone contributing to downdrag is subtracted from the resistance determined from the dynamic method during pile installation. The skin friction resistance within the zone contributing to downdrag may be estimated using the static analysis methods specified in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#), from signal matching analysis, or from pile load test results. Note that the static analysis methods may have bias that, on average, over or under predicts the skin friction. The bias of the method selected to estimate the skin friction within the downdrag zone should be taken into account as described in Article [8.7.3.3](#).

In general, the available factored geotechnical resistance should be greater than the factored loads applied to the pile, including the downdrag, at the service limit state.

In the instance where it is not possible to obtain adequate geotechnical resistance below the lowest layer contributing to downdrag, e.g., friction piles, to fully resist the downdrag, the structure should be designed to tolerate the full amount of settlement resulting from the downdrag and the other applied loads.

If adequate geotechnical resistance is available to resist the downdrag plus structure loads in the service limit state, the amount of deformation needed to fully mobilize the geotechnical resistance should be estimated, and the structure designed to tolerate the anticipated movement.

C For the establishment of settlement tolerance limits, see Article [8.5.2.1](#).

8.7.2.6. Lateral Squeeze

Bridge abutments supported on pile foundations driven through soft soils that are subject to unbalanced embankment fill loading shall be evaluated for lateral squeeze.

C Guidance on evaluating the potential for lateral squeeze and potential mitigation methods are included in [Hannigan et al., \(2005\)](#).

8.7.3. Strength Limit State Design

8.7.3.1. General

For strength limit state design, the following shall be determined:

- Loads and performance requirements;
- Pile type, dimensions, and nominal axial pile resistance in compression;
- Size and configuration of the pile group to provide adequate foundation support;
- Estimated pile length to be used in the construction contract documents to provide a basis for bidding;
- A minimum pile penetration, if required, for the particular site conditions and loading, determined based on the maximum (deepest) depth needed to meet all of the applicable requirements identified in Article [8.7.6](#);
- The maximum driving resistance expected in order to reach the minimum pile penetration required, if applicable, including any soil/pile shaft resistance that will not contribute to the long-term nominal axial resistance of the pile, e.g., soil contributing to downdrag, or soil that will be removed by scour;
- The drivability of the selected pile to achieve the required nominal axial resistance or minimum penetration with acceptable driving stresses at a satisfactory blow count per unit length of penetration; and
- The nominal structural resistance of the pile and/or pile group.

C A minimum pile penetration should only be specified if needed to ensure that uplift, lateral stability, depth to resist downdrag, depth to resist scour, and depth for structural lateral resistance are met for the strength limit state, in addition to similar requirements for the service and extreme event limit states. See Article [8.7.6](#) for additional details. Assuming dynamic methods, e.g., wave equation calibrated to dynamic measurements with signal matching analysis, pile formulae, etc., are used during pile installation to establish when the bearing resistance has been met, a minimum pile penetration should not be used to ensure that the required nominal pile bearing, i.e., compression, resistance is obtained.

C A nominal resistance measured during driving exceeding the compressive nominal resistance required by the contract may be needed in order to reach a minimum pile penetration specified in the contract.

C The drivability analysis is performed to establish whether a hammer and driving system will likely install the pile in a satisfactory manner.

8.7.3.2. Point Bearing Piles on Rock

1. General

As applied to pile compressive resistance, this Article shall be considered applicable to soft rock, hard rock, and very strong soils such as very dense glacial tills that will provide high nominal axial resistance in compression with little penetration.

- C If pile penetration into rock is expected to be minimal, the prediction of the required pile length will usually be based on the depth to rock.
- C A definition of hard rock that relates to measurable rock characteristics has not been widely accepted. Local or regional experience with driving piles to rock provides the most reliable definition.
- C In general, it is not practical to drive piles into rock to obtain significant uplift or lateral resistance. If significant lateral or uplift foundation resistance is required, drilled shaft foundations should be considered. If it is still desired to use piles, a pile drivability study should be performed to verify the feasibility of obtaining the desired penetration into rock.

2. Piles Driven to Soft Rock

Soft rock that can be penetrated by pile driving shall be treated in the same manner as soil for the purpose of design for axial resistance, in accordance with Article [8.7.3.8](#).

- C Steel piles driven into soft rock may not require tip protection.

3. Piles Driven to Hard Rock

The nominal resistance of piles driven to point bearing on hard rock where pile penetration into the rock formation is minimal is controlled by the structural limit state.

The nominal axial resistance shall not exceed the values obtained from Article [6.9.4.1](#) with the resistance factors specified in Article [6.5.4.2](#) and Article [6.15](#) for severe driving conditions.

A pile-driving acceptance criteria shall be developed that will prevent pile damage. Pile dynamic measurements should be used to monitor for pile damage when nominal axial resistances exceed 2.5×10^6 N.

- C Care should be exercised in driving piles to hard rock to avoid tip damage. The tips of steel piles driven to hard rock should be protected by high strength, cast steel tip protection.
- C If the rock is reasonably flat, the installation with pile tip protection will usually be successful. In the case of sloping rock, greater difficulty can arise and the use of tip protection with teeth should be considered. The designer should also consider the following to minimize the risk of pile damage during installation:
 - Use a relatively small hammer. If a hydraulic hammer is used, it can be operated with a small stroke to seat the pile and then the axial resistance can be proven with a few larger hammer blows.
 - If a larger hammer is used, specify a limited number of hammer blows after the pile tip reaches the rock. An example of a limiting criteria is four blows per 10 mm.
 - Extensive dynamic testing can be used to verify axial resistance on a large percentage of the piles. This approach could be used to justify larger design nominal resistances.

8.7.3.3. Pile Length Estimates for Contract Documents

Subsurface geotechnical information combined with static analysis methods (Article [8.7.3.8.6](#)), preconstruction test pile programs (Article [8.7.9](#)), and/or pile load tests (Article [8.7.3.8.2](#)) shall be used to estimate the depth of penetration required to achieve

the desired nominal bearing for establishment of contract pile quantities. Local experience shall also be considered when making pile quantity estimates, both to select an estimation method and to assess the potential prediction bias for the method used to account for any tendency to over-predict or under-predict pile compressive resistance. If the depth of penetration required to obtain the desired nominal bearing, i.e., compressive, resistance is less than the depth required to meet the provisions of Article 8.7.6, the minimum penetration required per Article 8.7.6 should be used as the basis for estimating contract pile quantities.

- C The estimated pile length required to support the required nominal resistance is determined using a static analysis; knowledge of the site subsurface conditions, and/or results from a pile load test. The pile length used to estimate quantities for the contract should also consider requirements to satisfy other design considerations, including service and extreme event limit states, as well as minimum pile penetration requirements for lateral stability, uplift, downdrag, scour, group settlement, etc.
- C One solution to the problem of predicting pile length is the use of a preliminary test program at the site. Such a program can range from a very simple operation of driving a few piles to evaluate drivability, to an extensive program where different pile types are driven and static and dynamic testing is performed.
- C In lieu of local pile driving experience, if a static analysis method is used to estimate the pile length required to achieve the desired nominal resistance bearing for establishment of contract pile quantities, the factored resistance used to determine the number of piles required in the pile group may be conservatively equated to the factored resistance estimated using the static analysis method as follows:

$$\phi_{dyn} R_n = \phi_{stat} R_{nstat} \quad (8.59)$$

where:

- ϕ_{dyn} = the resistance factor for the dynamic method used to verify pile bearing resistance during driving specified in Table 8.15
- R_n = the nominal pile bearing resistance (N)
- ϕ_{stat} = the resistance factor for the static analysis method used to estimate the pile penetration depth required to achieve the desired bearing resistance specified in Table 8.15
- R_{nstat} = the predicted nominal resistance from the static analysis method used to estimate the penetration depth required (N)

- C Using Eq. (8.59) and solving for R_{nstat} , use the static analysis method to determine the penetration depth required to obtain R_{nstat} .
- C The resistance factor for the static analysis method inherently accounts for the bias and uncertainty in the static analysis method. However, local experience may dictate that the penetration depth estimated using this approach be adjusted to reflect that experience. Where piles are driven to a well defined firm bearing stratum, the location of the top of bearing stratum will dictate the pile length needed, and Eq. (8.59) is likely not applicable.
- C Note that R_n is considered to be nominal bearing resistance of the pile needed to resist the applied loads, and is used as the basis for determining the resistance to be achieved during pile driving, R_{ndr} (see Articles 8.7.6 and 8.7.7). R_{nstat} is only used in the static analysis method to estimate the pile penetration depth required.

8.7.3.4. Nominal Axial Resistance Change after Pile Driving

1. General

Consideration should be given to the potential for change in the nominal axial pile resistance after the end of pile driving. The effect of soil relaxation or setup should be considered in the determination of nominal axial pile resistance for soils that are likely to be subject to these phenomena.

- C Relaxation is not a common phenomenon but more serious than setup since it represents a reduction in the reliability of the foundation.
- C Pile setup is a common phenomenon that can provide the opportunity for using larger pile nominal resistances at no increase in cost. However, it is necessary that the resistance gain be adequately proven. This is usually accomplished by restrike testing with dynamic measurements (Komurka, et al, 2003).

2. Relaxation

If relaxation is possible in the soils at the site the pile shall be tested in re-strike after sufficient time has elapsed for relaxation to develop.

- C While relaxation typically occurs at the pile tip, it can also occur along the sides of the pile (Morgana and White, 2004). It can occur in dense sands or sandy silts and in some shales. Relaxation in the sands and silts will usually develop fairly quickly after the end of driving, perhaps in only a few minutes, as a result of the return of the reduced pore pressure induced by dilation of the dense sands during driving. In some shales, relaxation occurs during the driving of adjacent piles and that will be immediate. There are other shales where the pile penetrates the shale and relaxation requires perhaps as much as two weeks to develop. In some cases, the amount of relaxation can be large.

3. Setup

Setup in the nominal axial resistance may be used to support the applied load. Where increase in resistance due to setup is utilized, the existence of setup shall be verified after a specified length of time by re-striking the pile.

- C Setup is an increase in the nominal axial resistance that develops over time predominantly along the pile shaft. Pore pressures increase during pile driving due to a reduction of the soil volume, reducing the effective stress and the shear strength. Setup may occur rapidly in cohesionless soils and more slowly in finer grained soils as excess pore water pressures dissipate. In some clays, setup may continue to develop over a period of weeks and even months, and in large pile groups it can develop even more slowly.
- C Setup, sometimes called "pile freeze," can be used to carry applied load, providing the opportunity for using larger pile nominal axial resistances, if it can be proven. Signal matching analysis of dynamic pile measurements made at the end of driving and later in restrike can be an effective tool in evaluating and quantifying setup. (Komurka et al., 2003; Bogard and Matlock, 1990).
- C If a dynamic formula is used to evaluate pile axial resistance on re-strike, care should be used as these formulae may not be as effective at beginning of re-drive (BOR), and furthermore, the resistance factors provided in Table 8.15 for driving formulae were developed for end of driving conditions. See commentary in Article 8.5.5.2.3 for additional discussion on this issue. Higher degrees of confidence are provided by dynamic measurements of pile driving with signal matching analyses or static load tests.

8.7.3.5. Groundwater Effects and Buoyancy⁽¹⁾

Nominal axial resistance shall be determined using the groundwater level consistent with that used to calculate the effective stress along the pile sides and tip. The effect of hydrostatic pressure shall be considered in the design.

- C Unless the pile is bearing on rock, the tip resistance is primarily dependent on the effective surcharge that is directly influenced by the groundwater level. For drained loading conditions, the vertical

⁽¹⁾ Buoyancy is an upward pressure of force on a body which is wholly or partially immersed in a fluid.

effective stress is related to the ground water level and thus it affects pile axial resistance. Lateral resistance may also be affected.

- C Buoyant forces may also act on a hollow pile or unfilled casing if it is sealed so that water does not enter the pile. During pile installation, this may affect the driving resistance observed, especially in very soft soils.

8.7.3.6. Scour

The effect of scour shall be considered in selecting the pile penetration. The pile foundation shall be designed so that the pile penetration after the design scour event satisfies the required nominal axial and lateral resistance.

- C The resistance factors will be those used in the design without scour. The axial resistance of the material lost due to scour should be determined using a static analysis and it should not be factored, but consideration should be given to the bias of the static analysis method used to predict resistance. Method bias is discussed in Article [8.7.3.3](#).
- C The piles will need to be driven to the required nominal axial resistance plus the side resistance that will be lost due to scour. The resistance of the remaining soil is determined through field verification. The pile is driven to the required nominal axial resistance plus the magnitude of the skin friction lost as a result of scour, considering the prediction method bias.
- C Another approach that may be used takes advantage of dynamic measurements. In this case, the static analysis method is used to determine an estimated length. During the driving of test piles, the skin friction component of the axial resistance of pile in the scourable material may be determined by a signal matching analysis of the dynamic measurements obtained when the pile is tipped below the scour elevation. The material below the scour elevation must provide the required nominal resistance after scour occurs.

The pile foundation shall be designed to resist debris loads occurring during the flood event in addition to the loads applied from the structure.

- C In some cases, the flooding stream will carry debris that will induce horizontal loads on the piles.
- C Additional information regarding pile design for scour is provided in [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#).

8.7.3.7. Downdrag

The foundation should be designed so that the available factored geotechnical resistance is greater than the factored loads applied to the pile, including the downdrag, at the strength limit state. The nominal pile resistance available to support structure loads plus downdrag shall be estimated by considering only the positive skin and tip resistance below the lowest layer contributing to the downdrag. The pile foundation shall be designed to structurally resist the downdrag plus structure loads.

In the instance where it is not possible to obtain adequate geotechnical resistance below the lowest layer contributing to downdrag, e.g., friction piles, to fully resist the downdrag, or if it is anticipated that significant deformation will be required to mobilize the geotechnical resistance needed to resist the factored loads including the downdrag load, the structure should be designed to tolerate the settlement resulting from the downdrag and the other applied loads as specified in Article [8.7.2.5](#).

- C The static analysis procedures in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#) may be used to estimate the available pile resistance to withstand the downdrag plus structure loads.
- C Resistance may also be estimated using a dynamic method per Article [8.7.3.8](#), provided the skin friction resistance within the zone contributing to downdrag is subtracted from the resistance determined from the dynamic method during pile installation.
- C The skin friction resistance within the zone contributing to downdrag may be estimated using the static analysis methods specified in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#), from signal matching analysis, or from pile load test results. Note that the static analysis method may have a bias, on average over or under predicting the skin friction. The bias of the method selected to estimate the skin friction should be taken into account as described in Article [8.7.3.3](#).

C Pile design for downdrag is illustrated in [Figure 8.22](#).

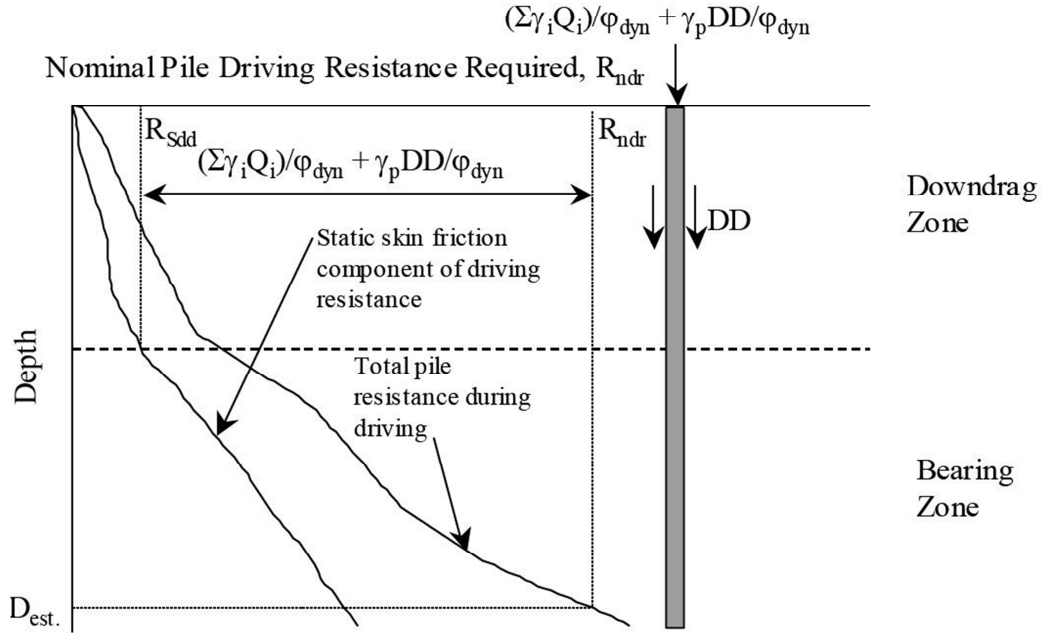


Figure 8.22: Design of Pile Foundations for Downdrag.

where:

R_{Sdd} = skin friction which must be overcome during driving through downdrag zone (N)

Q_p = $\Sigma \gamma_i Q_i$ factored load per pile, excluding downdrag load (N)

DD = downdrag load per pile (N)

D_{est} = estimated pile length needed to obtain desired nominal resistance per pile (mm)

ϕ_{dyn} = resistance factor, assuming that a dynamic method is used to estimate pile resistance during installation of the pile (if a static analysis method is used instead, use ϕ_{stat})

γ_p = load factor for downdrag.

C The summation of the factored loads ($\Sigma \gamma_i Q_i$) should be less than or equal to the factored resistance ($\phi_{dyn} R_n$). Therefore, the nominal resistance R_n should be greater than or equal to the sum of the factored loads divided by the resistance factor ϕ_{dyn} . The nominal bearing resistance (N) of the pile needed to resist the factored loads, including downdrag, is therefore taken as:

$$R_n = \frac{(\Sigma \gamma_i Q_i)}{\phi_{dyn}} + \frac{\gamma_p DD}{\phi_{dyn}} \quad (8.60)$$

C The total nominal driving resistance, R_{ndr} (N), needed to obtain R_n , accounting for the skin friction that must be overcome during pile driving that does not contribute to the design resistance of the pile, is taken as:

$$R_{ndr} = R_{Sdd} + R_n \quad (8.61)$$

where:

R_{ndr} = nominal pile driving resistance required (N)

C Note that R_{Sdd} remains unfactored in this analysis to determine R_{ndr} .

8.7.3.8. Determination of Nominal Axial Pile Resistance in Compression

1. General

Pile nominal axial resistance should be field verified during pile installation using load tests, dynamic tests, wave equation or dynamic formula. The resistance factor selected for design shall be based on the method used to verify pile axial resistance as specified in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#). The production piles shall be driven to the minimum blow count determined from the static load test, dynamic test, wave equation, or formula used unless a deeper penetration is required due to uplift, scour, lateral resistance, or other requirements as specified in Article [8.7.6](#). If it is determined that dynamic methods are unsuitable for field verification of nominal axial resistance, and a static analysis method is used without verification of axial resistance during pile driving by static load test, dynamic test or formula, the piles shall be driven to the tip elevation determined from the static analysis, and to meet other limit states as required in Article [8.7.6](#).

C This Article addresses the determination of the nominal bearing (compression) resistance needed to meet strength limit state requirements, using factored loads and factored resistance values. From this design step, the number of piles and pile resistance needed to resist the factored loads applied to the foundation are determined. Both the loads and resistance values are factored as specified in Articles [3.4.1](#) and [8.5.5.2.3](#), respectively, for this determination.

2. Static Load Test

If a static pile load test is used to determine the pile axial resistance, the test shall not be performed less than 5 days after the test pile was driven unless approved by the Engineer.

C The Quick Test Procedure is desirable because it avoids problems that frequently arise when performing a static test that cannot be started and completed within an eight-hour period. Tests that extend over a longer period are difficult to perform due to the limited number of experienced personnel that are usually available. The Quick Test has proven to be easily performed in the field and the results usually are satisfactory. However, if the formation in which the pile is installed may be subject to significant creep settlement, alternative procedures provided in [ASTM D 1143](#) should be considered.

The load test shall follow the procedures specified in [ASTM D 1143](#), and the loading procedure should follow the Quick Load Test Method, unless detailed longer-term load-settlement data is needed, in which case the standard loading procedure should be used.

Unless specified otherwise by the Engineer, the pile axial resistance shall be determined from the test data as:

- for piles 600 mm or less in diameter (length of side for square piles), the [Davisson Method](#);
- for piles larger than 900 mm in diameter (length of side for square piles), at a pile top movement, s_f (mm), as determined from Eq. [\(8.62\)](#); and

- for piles greater than 600 mm but less than 900 mm in diameter, a criteria to determine the pile axial resistance that is linearly interpolated between the criteria determined at diameters of 600 and 900 mm.

$$s_f = \frac{QL}{12AE} + \frac{B}{2.5} \quad (8.62)$$

where:

Q = test load (N)

L = pile length (mm)

A = pile cross-sectional area (mm²)

E = pile modulus (MPa)

B = pile diameter (length of side for square piles) (mm)

Driving criteria should be established in consideration of the static load test results.

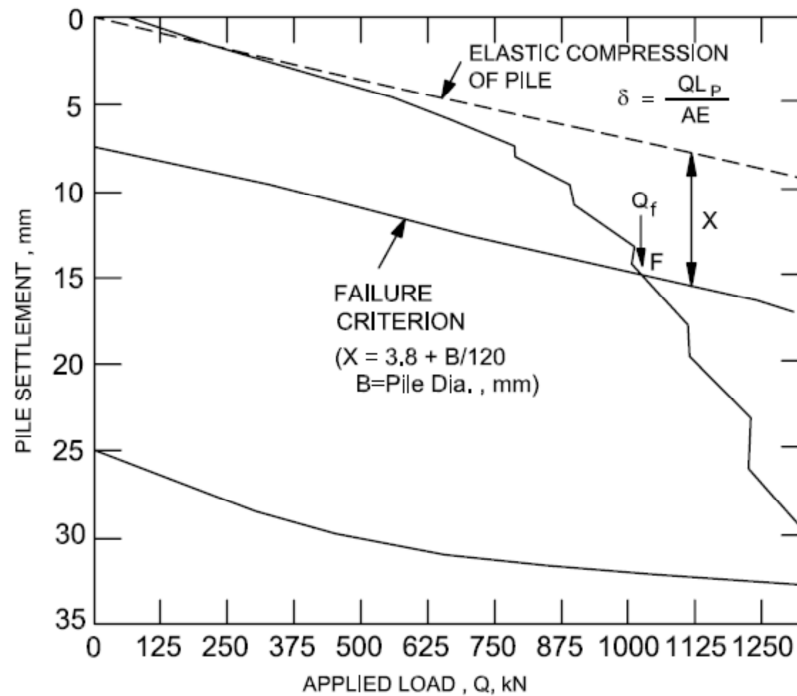


Figure 8.23: Alternate Method Load Test Interpretation (Cheney and Chassie, 2000, modified after Davisson, 1972)

- C The Davisson Method of axial resistance evaluation is performed by constructing a line on the load test curve that is parallel to the elastic compression line of the pile. The elastic compression line is calculated by assuming equal compressive forces are applied to the pile ends. The elastic compression line is offset by a specified amount of displacement. The Davisson Method is illustrated in Figure 8.22 and described in more detail in Hannigan et al. (2005).

Driving criteria should be established from the pile load test results using one of the following approaches:

1. Use dynamic measurements with signal matching analysis calibrated to match the pile load test results; a dynamic test shall be performed on the static test pile at the end of driving and again as soon as possible after completion of the static load test

by re-strike testing. The signal matching analysis of the re-strike dynamic test should then be used to produce a calibrated signal matching analysis that matches the static load test result. Perform additional production pile dynamic tests with calibrated signal matching analysis (see [Table 8.17](#) for the number of tests required) to develop the final driving criteria.

2. If dynamic test results are not available use the pile load test results to calibrate a wave equation analysis, matching the wave equation prediction to the measured pile load test resistance, in consideration of the hammer used to install the load test pile.
 3. For the case where the bearing stratum is well defined, relatively uniform in extent, and consistent in its strength, driving criteria may be developed directly from the pile load test result(s), and should include a minimum driving resistance combined with a minimum hammer delivered energy to obtain the required bearing resistance. In this case, the hammer used to drive the pile(s) that are load tested shall be used to drive the production piles.
 4. For the case where driving to a specified tip elevation without field verification using dynamic methods is acceptable and dynamic methods are determined to be unsuitable for field verification of nominal axial resistance as specified in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#), the load test results may be used to calibrate a static pile resistance analysis method as specified in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#). The calibrated static analysis method should then be used to determine the depth of penetration into the bearing zone needed to obtain the desired nominal pile resistance. In this case, the bearing zone shall be well defined based on subsurface test hole or probe data.
- C For piles with large cross-sections, i.e., greater than 600 mm, the Davisson Method will under predict the pile nominal axial resistance.
- C The specific application of the four driving criteria development approaches provided herein may be site specific, and may also depend on the degree of scatter in the pile load test and dynamic test results. If multiple load tests and dynamic tests with signal matching are conducted at a given site as defined in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#), the Engineer will need to decide how to "average" the results to establish the final driving criteria for the site, and if local experience is available, in consideration of that local experience. Furthermore, if one or more of the pile load tests yield significantly higher or lower nominal resistance values than the other load tests at a given project site, the reason for the differences should be thoroughly investigated before simply averaging the results together or treating the result(s) as anomalous.
- C Development of driving criteria in consideration of static load test results is described in [Hannigan et al. \(2006\)](#).

3. Dynamic Testing

Dynamic testing shall be performed according to the procedures given in [ASTM D 4945](#). If possible, the dynamic test should be performed as a re-strike test if the Engineer anticipates significant time dependent strength change. The pile nominal axial resistance shall be determined by a signal matching analysis of the dynamic pile test data if the dynamic test is used to establish the driving criteria.

- C The dynamic test may be used to establish the driving criteria at the beginning of production driving. The minimum number of piles that should be tested is as specified in [Table 8.17](#). A signal matching analysis ([Rausche et al., 1972](#)) of the dynamic test data should always be used to determine axial resistance if a static load test is not performed. See [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#) for a description of and procedures to conduct a signal matching analysis. Re-strike testing should be performed if setup or relaxation is anticipated.
- C For example, note that it may not be possible to adjust the dynamic measurements with signal matching analysis to match the static load test results if the driving resistance at the time the dynamic

measurement is taken is too large. i.e., the pile set per hammer blow is too small. In this case, adequate hammer energy is not reaching the pile tip to assess end bearing and produce an accurate match, though in such cases, the prediction will usually be very conservative. In general, a tip movement (pile set) of 2.5 to 4.0 mm is needed to provide an accurate signal matching analysis. See [Hannigan, et al. \(2006\)](#) for additional guidance on this issue.

- C In cases where a significant amount of soil setup occurs and the set at the beginning of redrive (BOR) is less than 2.5 mm per blow, a more accurate nominal resistance may be obtained by combining the end bearing determined using the signal matching analysis obtained for the end of driving (EOD) with the signal matching analysis for the shaft resistance at the beginning of redrive.
- C Dynamic testing and interpretation of the test data should only be performed by certified, experienced testers.

4. Wave Equation Analysis

A wave equation analysis may be used to establish the driving criteria. In this case, the wave equation analysis shall be performed based on the hammer and pile driving system to be used for pile installation. To avoid pile damage, driving stresses shall not exceed the values obtained in Article [8.7.8](#), using the resistance factors specified or referred to in [Table 8.15](#). Furthermore, the blow count needed to obtain the maximum driving resistance anticipated shall be less than the maximum value established based on the provisions in Article [8.7.8](#).

A wave equation analysis should also be used to evaluate pile drivability.

- C Note that without dynamic test results with signal matching analysis and/or pile load test data (see Articles [8.7.3.8.2](#) and [8.7.3.8.3](#)), considerable judgment is required to use the wave equation to predict the pile bearing resistance. Key soil input values that affect the predicted resistance include the soil damping and quake values, the skin friction distribution, e.g., such as could be obtained from a pile bearing static analysis, and the anticipated amount of soil setup or relaxation. Furthermore, the actual hammer performance is a variable that can only be accurately assessed through dynamic measurements, though "standard" input values are available. The resistance factor of 0.40 provided in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#) for the wave equation was developed from calibrations performed by [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#), in which default wave equation hammer and soil input values were used. Therefore, their wave equation calibrations did not consider the potential improved pile resistance prediction reliability that could result from measurement of at least some of these key input values. It is for these reasons that the resistance factor specified in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#) is relatively low (see [Paikowsky et al., 2004](#), for additional information regarding the development of the resistance factor for the wave equation). If additional local experience or site-specific test results are available to allow the wave equation soil or hammer input values to be refined and made more accurate, a higher resistance factor may be used.
- C The wave equation may be used in combination with dynamic test results with signal matching analysis and/or pile load test data to provide the most accurate wave equation pile resistance prediction. Such data are used to calibrate the wave equation, allowing the resistance factor for dynamic testing and signal matching specified in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#) to be used.

5. Dynamic Formula

If a dynamic formula is used to establish the driving criterion, the [FHWA](#) Gates Formula Eq.[\(8.63\)](#) should be used.

The nominal pile resistance as measured during driving using this method shall be taken as:

$$R_{ndr} = 211\sqrt{E_d} \log_{10}(10N_b) - (4.45 \times 10^5) \quad (8.63)$$

where:

R_{ndr} = nominal pile resistance measured during pile driving (N)

E_d = developed hammer energy. This is the kinetic energy in the ram at impact for a given blow. If ram velocity is not measured, it may be assumed equal to the potential energy of the ram at the height of the stroke, taken as the ram weight times the stroke (mm-N).

N_b = number of hammer blows for 25 mm of pile permanent set (blows/25 mm)

- C Two dynamic formulas are provided here for the Engineer. If a dynamic formula is used, the **FHWA Modified Gates Formula** is preferred over the Engineering News Formula. It is discussed further in the Design and Construction of Driven Pile Foundations ([Hannigan et al., 2005](#)). Note that the units in the FHWA Gates formula are not consistent. The specified units in Eq. [\(8.63\)](#) must be used.

The Engineering News Record Formula (ENR), modified to predict a nominal bearing resistance, may be used. The nominal pile resistance using this method shall be taken as:

$$R_{ndr} = \frac{12E_d}{(s + 2.5)} \quad (8.64)$$

where:

R_{ndr} = nominal pile resistance measured during driving (N)

E_d = developed hammer energy. This is the kinetic energy in the ram at impact for a given blow. If ram velocity is not measured, it may be assumed equal to the potential energy of the ram at the height of the stroke, taken as the ram weight times the stroke (N-mm)

s = pile permanent set, (mm)

- C The Engineering News Formula in its traditional form was intended to contain a factor of safety of 6.0. For LRFD applications, to produce a nominal resistance, the factor of safety has been removed. As is true of the FHWA Gates formula, the units specified in Eq. [\(8.64\)](#) must be used for the ENR formula. See [Allen \(2005\)](#) for additional discussion on the development of the ENR formula and its modification to produce a nominal resistance.

If a dynamic formula other than those provided herein is used, it shall be calibrated based on measured load test results to obtain an appropriate resistance factor, consistent with Article [8.5.5.2.2](#).

If a drivability analysis is not conducted, for steel piles, design stresses shall be limited as specified in Article [6.15.2](#).

- C Evaluation of pile drivability, including the specific evaluation of driving stresses and the adequacy of the pile to resist those stresses without damage, is strongly recommended. When drivability is not checked it is necessary that the pile design stresses be limited to values that will assure that the pile can be driven without damage. For steel piles, guidance is provided in Article [6.15.2](#) for the case where risk of pile damage is relatively high. If pile drivability is not checked, it should be assumed that the risk of pile damage is relatively high. For concrete piles, no specific guidance is available in [Section 5](#), regarding safe design stresses to reduce the risk of pile damage. In past practice (see [AASHTO, 2002](#)), the required nominal axial resistance has been limited to $0.6 f'_c$ for concrete piles if pile drivability is not evaluated.

Dynamic formulas should not be used when the required nominal resistance exceeds 2.7×10^6 N.

- C See commentary in Article [8.5.5.2.1](#) for guidance on using load tests to develop resistance factors.
- C As the required nominal axial compression resistance increases, the reliability of dynamic formulae tends to decrease. The **FHWA Gates Formula** tends to underpredict pile nominal resistance at higher

resistances. The Engineering News Formula tends to become unconservative as the nominal pile resistance increases. If other driving formulae are used, the limitation on the maximum driving resistance to be used should be based upon the limits for which the data is considered reliable, and any tendency of the formula to over or under predict pile nominal resistance.

6. Static Analysis

a. General

Where a static analysis prediction method is used to determine pile installation criteria, i.e., for bearing resistance, the nominal pile resistance shall be factored at the strength limit state using the resistance factors in [Table 8.15](#) associated with the method used to compute the nominal bearing resistance of the pile.

The factored bearing resistance of piles, R_R , may be taken as:

$$R_R = \phi R_n \quad (8.65)$$

or

$$R_R = \phi R_n = \phi_{stat} R_p + \phi_{stat} R_s \quad (8.66)$$

in which:

$$R_p = q_p A_p \quad (8.67)$$

$$R_s = q_s A_s \quad (8.68)$$

where:

ϕ_{stat} = resistance factor for the bearing resistance of a single pile specified in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#)

R_n = nominal resistance of pile (N)

R_p = pile tip resistance (N)

R_s = pile side resistance (N)

q_p = unit tip resistance of pile (MPa)

q_s = unit side resistance of pile (MPa)

A_s = surface area of pile side (mm²)

A_p = area of pile tip (mm²)

C While the most common use of static analysis methods is solely for estimating pile quantities, a static analysis may be used to establish pile installation criteria if dynamic methods are determined to be unsuitable for field verification of nominal axial resistance. This is applicable on projects where pile quantities are relatively small, pile loads are relatively low, and/or where the setup time is long so that re-strike testing would require an impractical wait-period by the Contractor on the site, e.g., soft silts or clays where a large amount of setup is anticipated.

C For use of static analysis methods for contract pile quantity estimation, see Article [8.7.3.2.3](#).

Both total stress and effective stress methods may be used, provided the appropriate soil strength parameters are available. The resistance factors for the skin friction and tip resistance, estimated using these methods, shall be as specified in [Table 8.15](#). The limitations of each method as described in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#) should be applied in the use of these static analysis methods.

b. α -Method

The α -method, based on total stress, may be used to relate the adhesion between the pile and clay to the undrained strength of the clay. For this method, the nominal unit skin friction, in MPa, shall be taken as:

$$q_s = \alpha S_u \quad (8.69)$$

where:

S_u = undrained shear strength (MPa)

α = adhesion factor applied to S_u (dim.)

The adhesion factor for this method, α , shall be assumed to vary with the value of the undrained strength, S_u , as shown in [Figure 8.24](#).

- C The α -method has been used for many years and gives reasonable results for both displacement and non-displacement piles in clay.
- C In general, this method assumes that a mean value of S_u will be used. It may not always be possible to establish a mean value, as in many cases, data are too limited to reliably establish the mean value. The Engineer should apply engineering judgment and local experience as needed to establish an appropriate value for design (see Article [8.4.6](#)).
- C For H-piles, the perimeter or "box" area should generally be used to compute the surface area of the pile side.

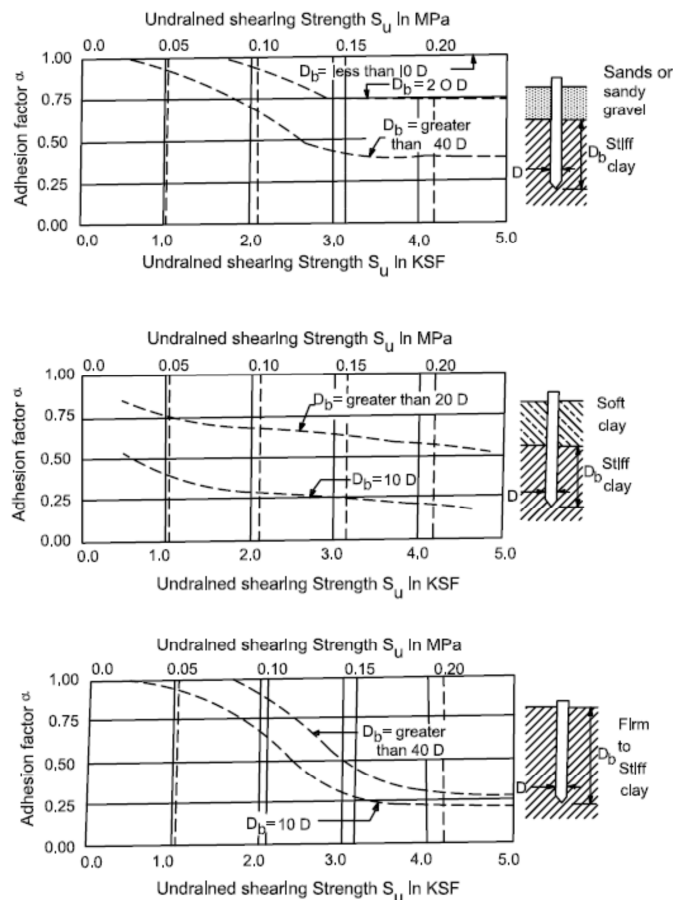


Figure 8.24: Design Curves for Adhesion Factors for Piles Driven into Clay Soils after Tomlinson (1980).

c. β -Method

The β -method, based on effective stress, may be used for predicting skin friction of prismatic piles. The nominal unit skin friction for this method, in MPa, shall be related to the effective stresses in the ground as:

$$q_s = \beta \sigma'_v \quad (8.70)$$

where:

q_s = nominal unit skin friction for β -method (MPa)

σ'_v = vertical effective stress (MPa)

β = a factor taken from Figure 8.25

- C The β -method has been found to work best for piles in normally consolidated and lightly overconsolidated clays. The method tends to overestimate skin friction of piles in heavily overconsolidated soils. Esrig and Kirby (1979) suggested that for heavily overconsolidated clays, the value of β should not exceed 2.

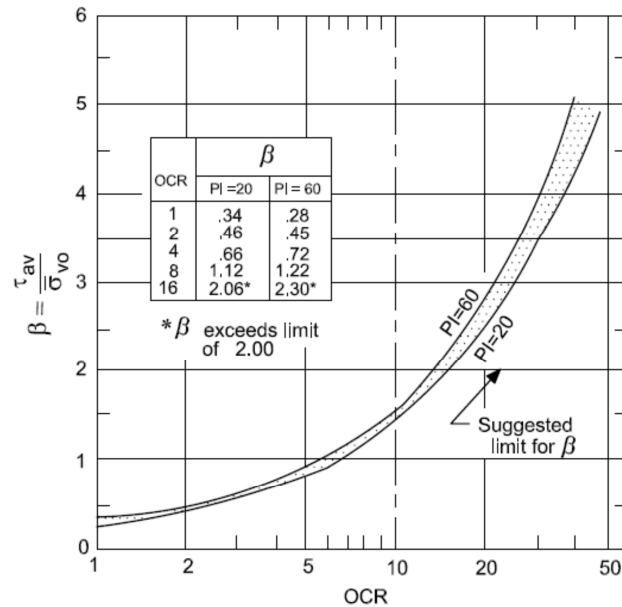


Figure 8.25: β versus OCR for Displacement Piles after Esrig and Kirby (1979)

d. λ -Method

The λ -method, based on effective stress (though it does contain a total stress parameter), may be used to relate the unit skin friction, in MPa, to passive earth pressure. For this method, the unit skin friction shall be taken as:

$$q_s = \lambda (\sigma'_v + 2S_u) \quad (8.71)$$

where:

$\sigma'_v + 2S_u$ = passive lateral earth pressure (MPa)

σ'_v = the effective vertical stress at midpoint of soil layer under consideration (MPa)

λ = an empirical coefficient taken from [Figure 8.26](#) (dim.).

- C The value of λ decreases with pile length and was found empirically by examining the results of load tests on steel pipe piles.

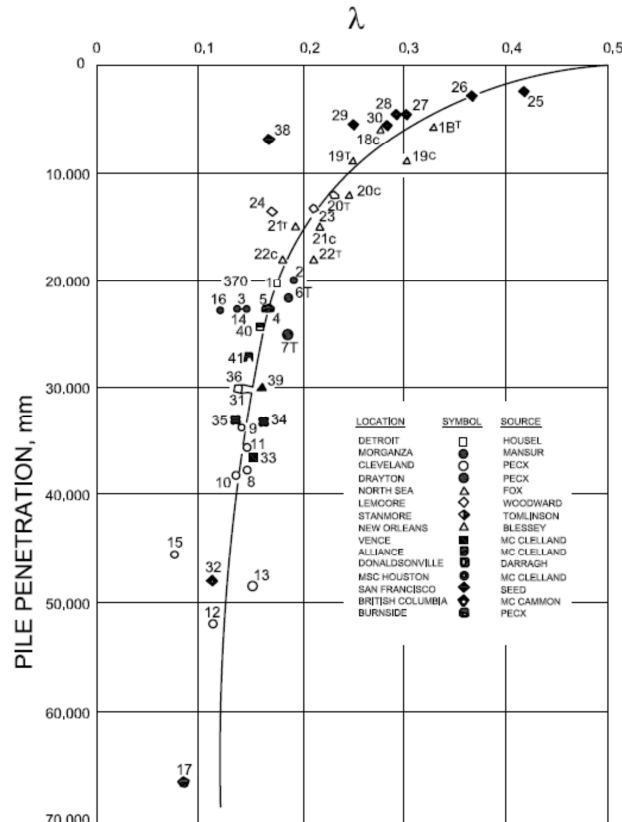


Figure 8.26: λ Coefficient for Driven Pipe Piles after [Vijayvergiya and Focht \(1972\)](#).

e. Tip Resistance in Cohesive Soils

The nominal unit tip resistance of piles in saturated clay, in MPa, shall be taken as:

$$q_p = 9S_u \quad (8.72)$$

where S_u is the undrained shear strength of the clay near the pile base (MPa)

f. Nordlund/Thurman Method in Cohesionless Soils

This effective stress method should be applied only to sands and non-plastic silts. The nominal unit side resistance, q_s , for this method, in MPa, shall be taken as:

$$q_s = K_\delta C_F \sigma'_v \frac{\sin(\delta + \omega)}{\cos \omega} \quad (8.73)$$

where:

K_δ = coefficient of lateral earth pressure at mid-point of soil layer under consideration from [Figure 8.27](#) through [Figure 8.30](#) (dim.)

C_F = correction factor for K_δ when $\delta \neq \phi_f$, from [Figure 8.31](#)

σ'_v = effective overburden stress at midpoint of soil layer under consideration (MPa)

δ = friction angle between pile and soil obtained from [Figure 8.32](#) (deg.)

ω = angle of pile taper from vertical (deg.)

- C Detailed design procedures for the Nordlund/Thurman method are provided in [Hannigan et al., \(2005\)](#). This method was derived based on load test data for piles in sand. In practice, it has been used for gravelly soils as well.
- C The effective overburden stress is not limited in Eq. [\(8.73\)](#).
- C For H-piles, the perimeter or “box” area should generally be used to compute the surface area of the pile side.

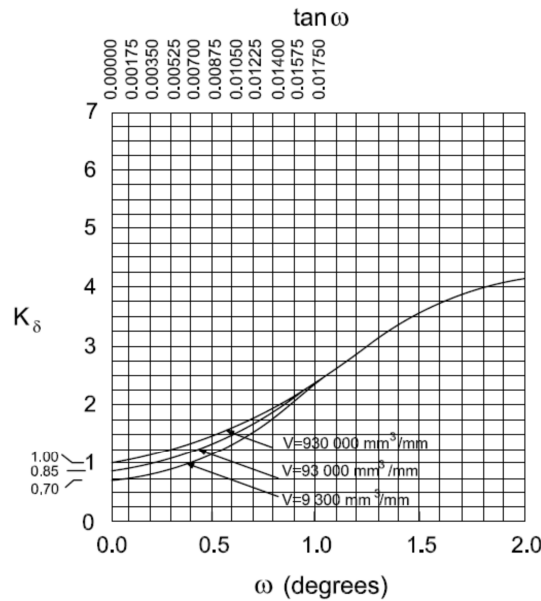


Figure 8.27: Design Curve for Evaluating K_δ for Piles where $\phi_f = 25^\circ$ ([Hannigan et al., 2005](#) after [Nordlund, 1979](#)).

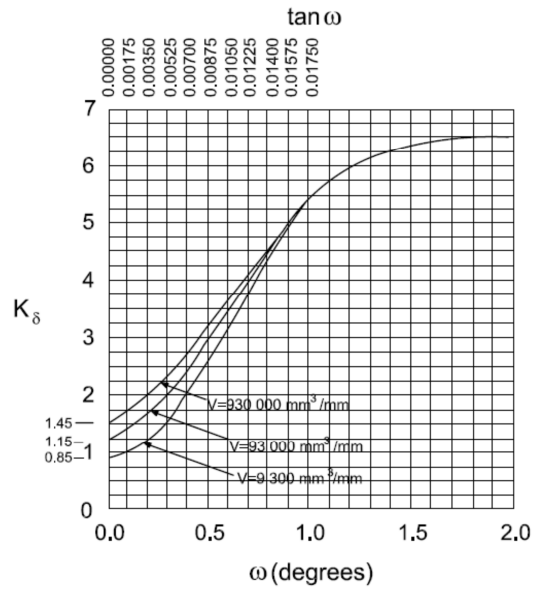


Figure 8.28: Design Curve for Evaluating K_δ for Piles where $\phi_f = 30^\circ$ (Hannigan et al., 2005 after Nordlund, 1979).

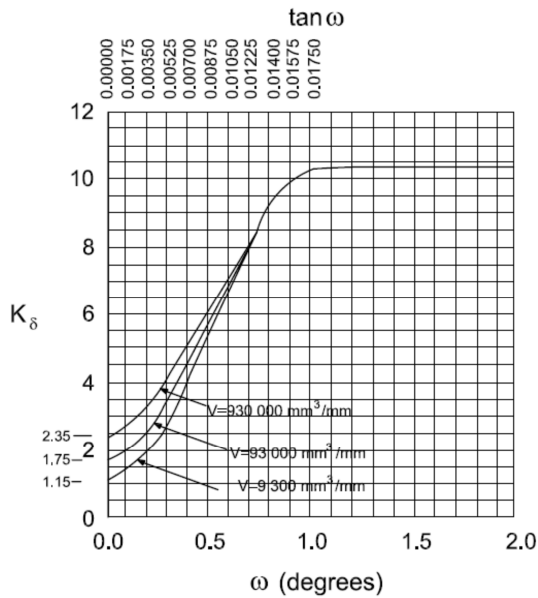


Figure 8.29: Design Curve for Evaluating K_δ for Piles where $\phi_f = 35^\circ$ (Hannigan et al., 2005 after Nordlund, 1979).

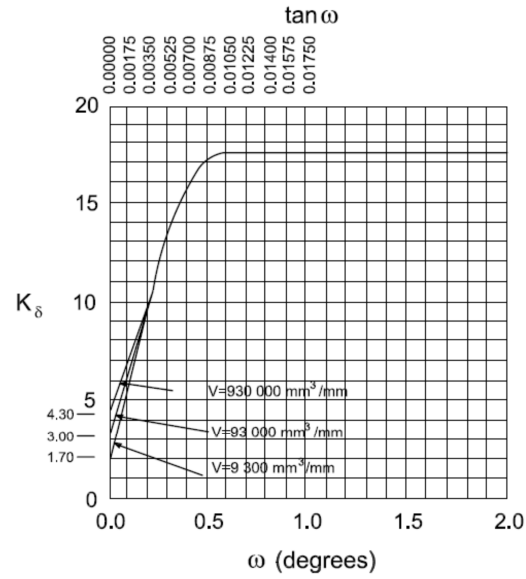


Figure 8.30: Design Curve for Evaluating K_δ for Piles where $\phi_f = 40^\circ$ (Hannigan et al., 2005 after Nordlund, 1979).

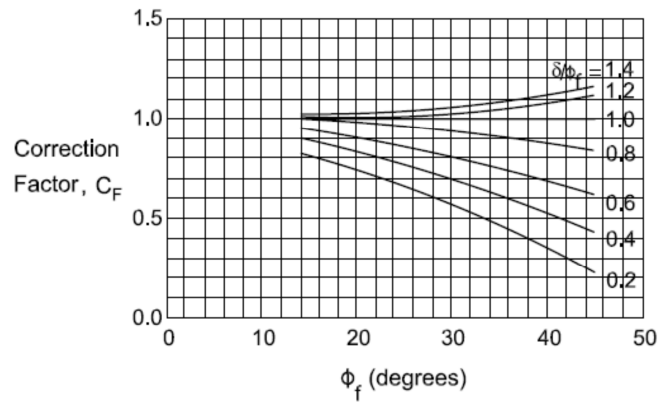


Figure 8.31: Correction Factor for K_δ where $\delta \neq \phi_f$ (Hannigan et al., 2005 after Nordlund, 1979).

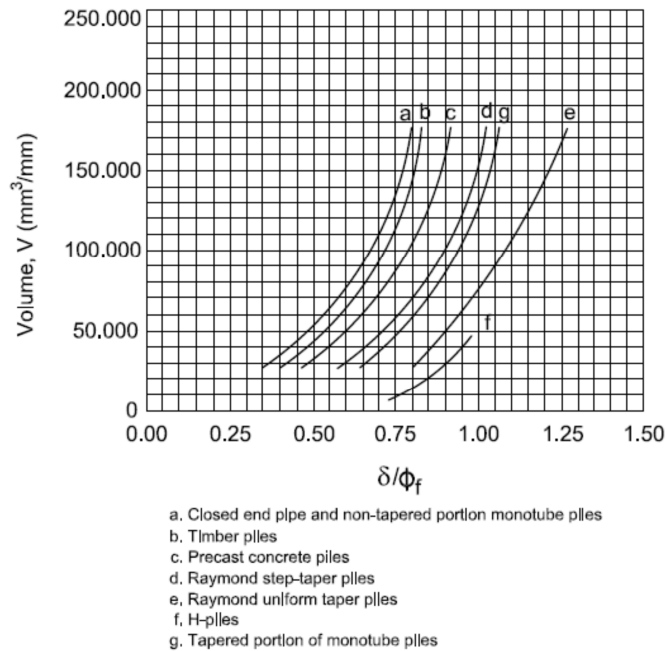


Figure 8.32: Relation of δ/ϕ_f and Pile Displacement, V , for Various Types of Piles (Hannigan et al., 2005 after Nordlund, 1979).

The nominal unit tip resistance, q_p , in MPa by the Nordlund/Thurman method shall be taken as:

$$q_p = \alpha_t N'_q \sigma'_v \leq q_L \quad (8.74)$$

where:

- α_t = coefficient from [Figure 8.33](#) (dim.)
- N'_q = bearing capacity factor from [Figure 8.34](#)
- σ'_v = effective overburden stress at pile tip (MPa) ≤ 0.15 MPa
- q_L = limiting unit tip resistance from [Figure 8.35](#)

- C If the friction angle, ϕ_f , is estimated from average, corrected *SPT* blow counts, N_{160} , the N_{160} values should be averaged over the zone from the pile tip to 2 diameters below the pile tip.

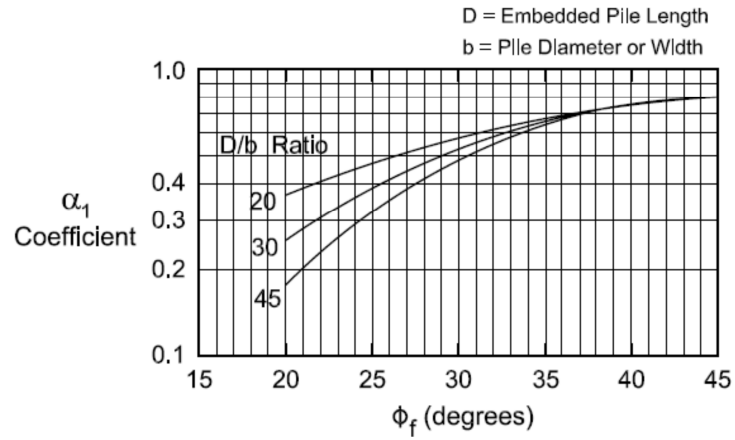


Figure 8.33: α_1 Coefficient (Hannigan et al., 2005 modified after Bowles, 1977).

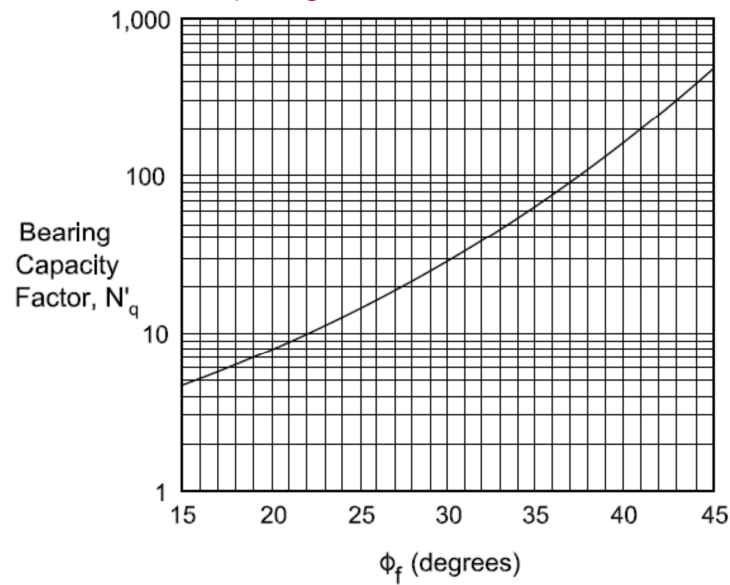


Figure 8.34: Bearing Capacity Factor, N'_q , (Hannigan et al., 2005 modified after Bowles, 1977).

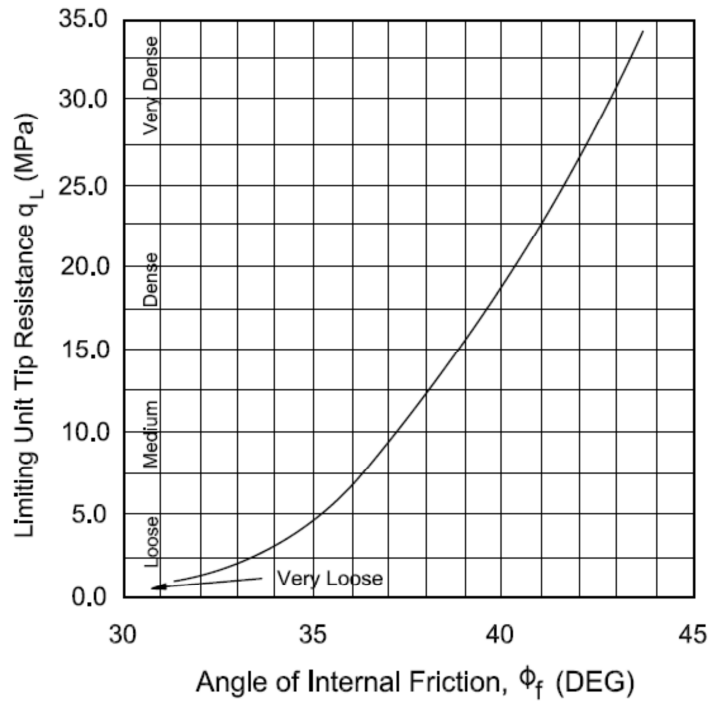


Figure 8.35: Limiting Unit Pile Tip Resistance (Hannigan et al., 2005 after Meyerhof, 1976).

g. Using *SPT* or *CPT* in Cohesionless Soils

These methods shall be applied only to sands and non-plastic silts.

- C In-situ tests are widely used in cohesionless soils because obtaining good quality samples of cohesionless soils is very difficult. In-situ test parameters may be used to estimate the tip resistance and skin friction of piles.

The nominal unit tip resistance for the Meyerhof method (*SPT* method), in MPa, for piles driven to a depth D_b into a cohesionless soil stratum shall be taken as:

$$q_p = \frac{0.038 (N1_{60}) D_b}{D} \leq q_\ell \quad (8.75)$$

where:

- $N1_{60}$ = representative *SPT* blow count near the pile tip corrected for overburden pressure as specified in Article 8.4.6.2.4 (blows/300 mm)
- D = pile width or diameter (mm)
- D_b = depth of penetration in bearing strata (mm)
- q_ℓ = limiting tip resistance taken as eight times the value of $0.4N1_{60}$ for sands and six times the value of $0.3N1_{60}$ for non-plastic silt (MPa)

- C Two frequently used in-situ test methods for predicting pile axial resistance are the standard penetration test (*SPT*) method (Meyerhof, 1976) and the cone penetration test (*CPT*) method (Nottingham and Schmertmann, 1975).

The nominal skin friction of piles in cohesionless soils for the Meyerhof method, in MPa, shall be taken as:

- For driven displacement piles:

$$q_s = 0.0019 \bar{N}_{160} \quad (8.76)$$

- For non-displacement piles, e.g., steel H-piles:

$$q_s = 0.00096 N_{160} \quad (8.77)$$

where:

q_s = unit skin friction for driven piles (MPa)

$\bar{N}_{160}$ = average corrected *SPT*-blow count along the pile side (blows/300 mm)

- C Displacement piles, which have solid sections or hollow sections with a closed end, displace a relatively large volume of soil during penetration. Non-displacement piles usually have relatively small cross-sectional areas, e.g., steel H-piles and open-ended pipe piles that have not yet plugged. Plugging occurs when the soil between the flanges in a steel H-pile or the soil in the cylinder of an open-ended steel pipe pile adheres fully to the pile and moves down with the pile as it is driven.
- C CPT may be used to determine:
- The cone penetration resistance, q_c , which may be used to determine the tip resistance of piles, and
 - Sleeve friction, f_s which may be used to determine the skin friction resistance.

Tip resistance, q_p , for the Nottingham and Schmertmann method (*CPT* method), in MPa, shall be determined as shown in [Figure 8.36](#).

In which:

$$q_b = \frac{q_{c1} + q_{c2}}{2} \quad (8.78)$$

where:

q_{c1} = average q_c over a distance of yD below the pile tip (path a-b-c); sum q_c values in both the downward (path a-b) and upward (path b-c) directions; use actual q_c values along path a-b and the minimum path rule along path b-c; compute q_{c1} for y -values from 0.7 to 4.0 and use the minimum q_{c1} value obtained (MPa)

q_{c2} = average q_c over a distance of $8D$ above the pile tip (path c-e); use the minimum path rule as for path b-c in the q_{c1} , computations; ignore any minor “x” peak depressions if in sand but include in minimum path if in clay (MPa)

The minimum average cone resistance between 0.7 and 4 pile diameters below the elevation of the pile tip shall be obtained by a trial and error process, with the use of the minimum-path rule.

- C This process is described in [Nottingham and Schmertmann \(1975\)](#).

The minimum-path rule shall also be used to find the value of cone resistance for the soil for a distance of eight pile diameters above the tip. The two results shall be averaged to determine the pile tip resistance.

The nominal skin friction resistance of piles for this method, in N, shall be taken as:

$$R_s = K_{s,c} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \left(\frac{L_i}{8D_i} \right) f_{si} a_{si} h_i + \sum_{i=1}^{N_2} f_{si} a_{si} h_i \right] \quad (8.79)$$

C For a pile of constant cross-section (non- tapered), Eq. (8.79) can be written as:

$$R_s = K_{s,c} \left[\frac{a_s}{8D} \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} L_i f_{si} h_i + a_s \sum_{i=1}^{N_2} f_{si} h_i \right] \quad (8.80)$$

where:

- $K_{s,c}$ = correction factors: K_c for clays and K_s for sands from Figure 8.37 (dim.)
- L_i = depth to middle of length interval at the point considered (mm)
- D_i = pile width or diameter at the point considered (mm)
- f_{si} = unit local sleeve friction resistance from CPT at the point considered (MPa)
- a_{si} = pile perimeter at the point considered (mm)
- h_i = length interval at the point considered (mm)
- N_1 = number of intervals between the ground surface and a point $8D$ below the ground surface
- N_2 = number of intervals between $8D$ below the ground surface and the tip of the pile

C If, in addition to the pile being prismatic, f_s is approximately constant at depths below $8D$, Eq. (8.80) can be simplified to:

$$R_s = K_{s,c} \left[a_s f_s (Z - 4D) \right] \quad (8.81)$$

where Z is the total embedded pile length (mm)

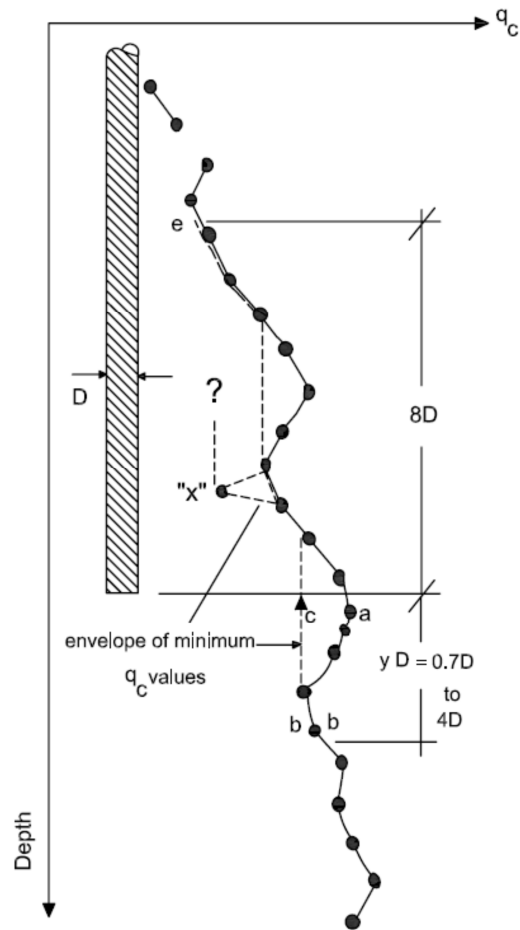


Figure 8.36: Pile End-Bearing Computation Procedure after Nottingham and Schmertmann (1975).

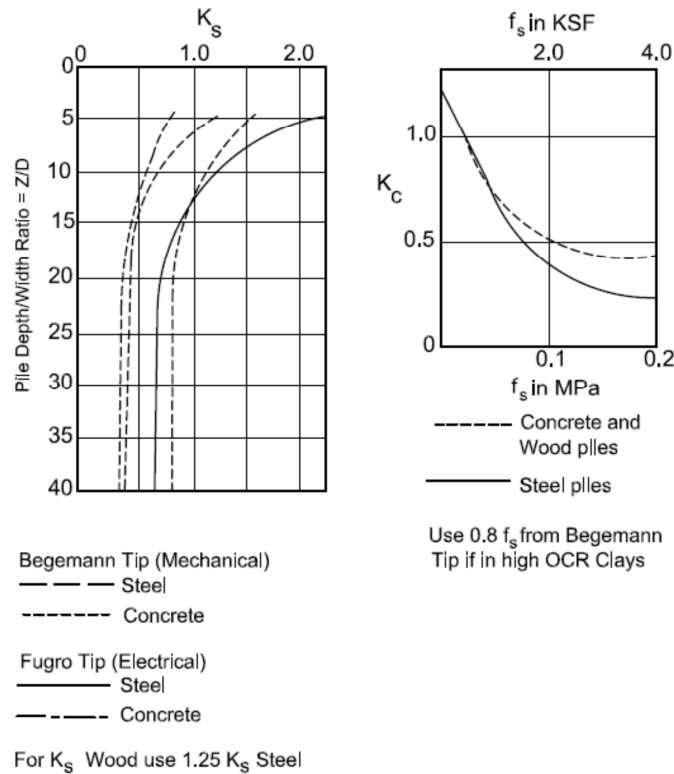


Figure 8.37: Side Friction Correction Factors K_s and K_c (after Nottingham and Schmertmann, 1975).

8.7.3.9. Resistance of Pile Groups in Compression

For pile groups in clay, the nominal axial resistance of the pile group shall be taken as the lesser of:

- The sum of the individual nominal resistances of each pile in the group (applicable generally for pile groups within cohesionless soils), or
 - The nominal resistance of an equivalent pier consisting of the piles and the block of soil within the area bounded by the piles (applicable generally for pile groups within cohesive soils).
- C The equivalent pier approach checks for block failure and is generally only applicable for pile groups within cohesive soils. For pile groups in sand, the sum of the nominal resistances of the individual piles always controls the group resistance.
- C When analyzing the equivalent pier, the full shear strength of the soil should be used to determine the friction resistance. The total base area of the equivalent pier should be used to determine the end bearing resistance.

If the cap is not in firm contact with the ground and if the soil at the surface is soft, the individual resistance of each pile shall be multiplied by an efficiency factor η , taken as:

- $\eta = 0.65$ for a center-to-center spacing of 2.5 diameters,
- $\eta = 1.0$ for a center-to-center spacing of 6.0 diameters.

For intermediate spacings, the value of η may be determined by linear interpolation.

If the cap is in firm contact with the ground, no reduction in efficiency shall be required. If the cap is not in firm contact with the ground and if the soil is stiff, no reduction in efficiency shall be required.

The bearing capacity of pile groups in cohesionless soil shall be the sum of the resistance of all the piles in the group. The efficiency factor, η , shall be 1.0 where the pile cap is or is not in contact with the ground for a center-to-center pile spacing of 2.5 diameters or greater. The resistance factor is the same as that for single piles, as specified in [Table 8.15](#).

For pile groups in clay or sand, if a pile group is tipped in a strong soil deposit overlying a weak deposit, the block bearing resistance shall be evaluated with consideration to pile group punching as a group into the underlying weaker layer. The methods in Article [8.6.3.1.2.a](#) of determining bearing resistance of a spread footing in a strong layer overlying a weaker layer shall apply, with the notional footing located as shown in Article [8.7.2.3](#).

- C In cohesive soils, the resistance of a pile group depends on whether the cap is in firm contact with the ground beneath. If the cap is in firm contact, the soil between the pile and the pile group behave as a unit.
- C At small pile spacings, a block type failure mechanism may prevail, whereas individual pile failure may occur at larger pile spacings. It is necessary to check for both failure mechanisms and design for the case that yields the minimum capacity.
- C For a pile group of width X , length Y , and depth Z , as shown in [Figure 8.38](#), the bearing capacity for block failure, in N , is given by:

$$Q_g = (2X + 2Y)Z\bar{S}_u + XY N_c S_u \quad (8.82)$$

- C in which:

- C for $\frac{Z}{X} \leq 2.5$:

$$N_c = 5 \left(1 + \frac{0.2X}{Y} \right) \left(1 + \frac{0.2Z}{X} \right) \quad (8.83)$$

- C for $\frac{Z}{X} > 2.5$:

$$N_c = 7.5 \left(1 + \frac{0.2X}{Y} \right) \quad (8.84)$$

- C where:

$\bar{S}_u$ = average undrained shear strength along the depth of penetration of the piles (MPa)

S_u = undrained shear strength at the base of the group (MPa)

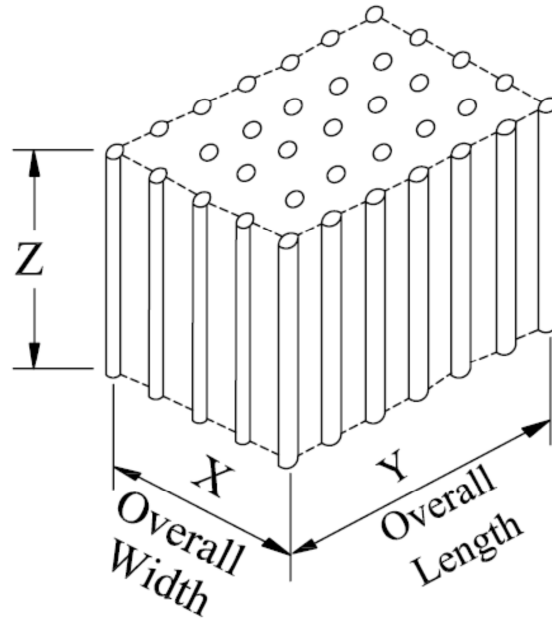


Figure 8.38: Pile Group Acting as a Block Foundation.

8.7.3.10. Uplift Resistance of Single Piles

Uplift on single piles shall be evaluated when tensile forces are present. The factored nominal tensile resistance of the pile due to soil failure shall be greater than the factored pile loads.

The uplift resistance of a single pile should be estimated in a manner similar to that for estimating the skin friction resistance of piles in compression specified in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#).

- C The factored load effect acting on any pile in a group may be estimated using the traditional elastic strength of materials procedure for a cross-section under thrust and moment. The cross-sectional properties should be based on the pile as a unit area.
- C Note that the resistance factor for uplift already is reduced to 80 percent of the resistance factor for static skin friction resistance. Therefore, the skin friction resistance estimated based on Article [8.7.3.8.6](#) does not need to be reduced to account for uplift effects on skin friction.

Factored uplift resistance in N shall be taken as:

$$R_R = \phi R_n = \phi_{up} R_s \quad (8.85)$$

where:

- R_s = nominal uplift resistance due to side resistance (N)
- ϕ_{up} = resistance factor for uplift resistance specified in [Table 8.15](#)

Note that the resistance factor for uplift already is reduced to 80 percent of the resistance factor for static skin friction resistance. Therefore, the skin friction resistance estimated based on Article [8.7.3.8.6](#) does not need to be reduced to account for uplift effects on skin friction.

Uplift resistance of single piles may be determined by static load test. If a static uplift test is to be performed, it shall follow the procedures specified in [ASTM D 3689](#).

- C Static uplift tests should be evaluated using a modified Davisson Method as described in [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#).

The pile load test(s) should be used to calibrate the static analysis method, i.e., back calculate soil properties, to adjust the calculated uplift resistance for variations in the stratigraphy. The minimum penetration criterion to obtain the desired uplift resistance should be based on the calculated uplift resistance using the pile load test results.

8.7.3.11. Uplift Resistance of Pile Groups

The nominal uplift resistance of pile groups shall be evaluated when the foundation is subjected to uplift loads.

- C A net uplift force can act on the foundation. An example of such a load is the construction load induced during the erection of concrete segmental girder bridges.

Pile group factored uplift resistance, in N, shall be taken as:

$$R_R = \phi R_n = \phi_{ug} R_{ug} \quad (8.86)$$

where:

ϕ_{ug} = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.15](#)

R_{ug} = nominal uplift resistance of the pile group (N)

The uplift resistance, R_{ug} , of a pile group shall be taken as the lesser of:

- the sum of the individual pile uplift resistance, or
- the uplift resistance of the pile group considered as a block.

For pile groups in cohesionless soil, the weight of the block that will be uplifted shall be determined using a spread of load of $1H$ in $4V$ from the base of the pile group taken from [Figure 8.39](#). Buoyant unit weights shall be used for soil below the groundwater level.

In cohesive soils, the block used to resist uplift in undrained shear shall be taken from [Figure 8.40](#). The nominal group uplift resistance may be taken as:

$$R_n = R_{ug} = (2XZ + 2YZ) \bar{S}_u + W_g \quad (8.87)$$

where:

X = width of the group, as shown in [Figure 8.40](#) (mm)

Y = length of the group, as shown in [Figure 8.40](#) (mm)

Z = depth of the block of soil below pile cap taken from [Figure 8.40](#) (mm)

$\bar{S}_u$ = average undrained shear strength along the sides of the pile group (MPa)

W_g = weight of the block of soil, piles, and pile cap (N)

The resistance factor for the nominal group uplift resistance, R_{ug} , determined as the sum of the individual pile resistance, shall be taken as the same as that for the uplift resistance of single piles as specified in [Table 8.15](#).

The resistance factor for the uplift resistance of the pile group considered as a block shall be taken as specified in [Table 8.15](#) for pile groups in clay and in sand.

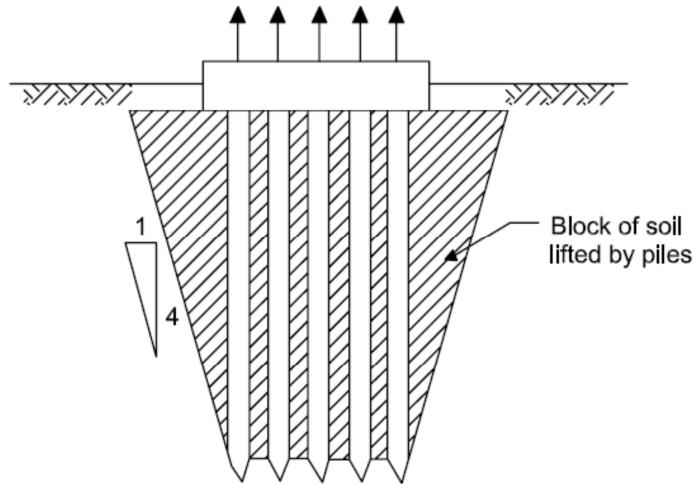


Figure 8.39: Uplift of Group of Closely Spaced Piles in Cohesionless Soils after Tomlinson (1987).

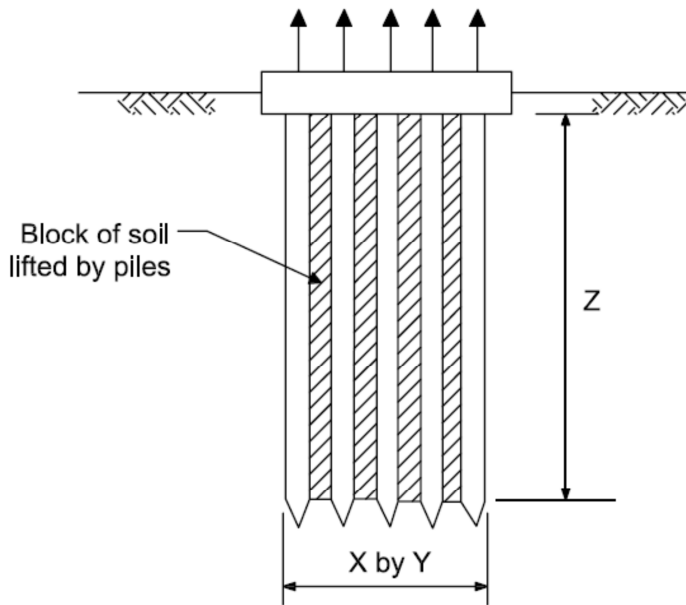


Figure 8.40: Uplift of Group of Piles in Cohesive Soils after Tomlinson (1987).

8.7.3.12. Nominal Horizontal Resistance of Pile Foundations

The nominal resistance of pile foundations to horizontal loads shall be evaluated based on both geomaterial and structural properties. The horizontal soil resistance along the piles should be modeled using P - y curves developed for the soils at the site.

The applied loads shall be factored loads and they must include both horizontal and axial loads. The analysis may be performed on a representative single pile with the appropriate pile top boundary condition or on the entire pile group. The P - y curves

shall be modified for group effects. The P -multipliers in [Table 8.29](#) should be used to modify the curves. If the pile cap will always be embedded, the P - y horizontal resistance of the soil on the cap face may be included in the horizontal resistance.

- C Pile foundations are subjected to horizontal loads due to wind, traffic loads, bridge curvature, stream flow, vessel or traffic impact and earthquake. Batter piles are sometimes used but they are somewhat more expensive than vertical piles and vertical piles are more effective against dynamic loads.
- C Additional details regarding methods of analysis using P - y curves, both for single piles and pile groups, are provided in Article [8.7.2.4](#). As an alternative to P - y analysis, strain wedge theory may be used (see Article [8.7.2.4](#)).
- C When this analysis is performed, the loads are factored since the strength limit state is under consideration, but the resistances as represented by the P - y curves are not factored since they already represent the ultimate condition.

The minimum penetration of the piles below ground (see Article [8.7.6](#)) required in the contract should be established such that fixity is obtained. For this determination, the loads applied to the pile are factored as specified in [Section 3](#), and a soil resistance factor of 1.0 shall be used as specified in [Table 8.15](#).

- C The strength limit state for lateral resistance is only structural (see [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#) for structural limit state design requirements), though the determination of pile fixity is the result of soil-structure interaction. A failure of the soil does not occur; the soil will continue to displace at constant or slightly increasing resistance. Failure occurs when the pile reaches the structural limit state, and this limit state is reached, in the general case, when the nominal combined bending and axial resistance is reached.

If fixity cannot be obtained, additional piles should be added, larger diameter piles used if feasible to drive them to the required depth, or a wider spacing of piles in the group should be considered to provide the necessary lateral resistance. Batter piles may be added to provide the lateral resistance needed, unless downdrag is anticipated. If downdrag is anticipated, batter piles should not be used. The design procedure, if fixity cannot be obtained, should take into consideration the lack of fixity of the pile.

- C If the lateral resistance of the soil in front of the pile cap is included in the horizontal resistance of the foundation, the effect of soil disturbance resulting from construction of the pile cap should be considered. In such cases, the passive resistance may need to be reduced to account for the effects of disturbance.
- C For information on analysis and interpretation of load tests, see Article [8.7.2.4](#).

Lateral resistance of single piles may be determined by static load test. If a static lateral load test is to be performed, it shall follow the procedures specified in [ASTM D 3966](#).

8.7.3.13. Pile Structural Resistance

1. Steel Piles

The nominal compressive resistance in the structural limit state for piles loaded in compression shall be as specified in Article [6.9.4.1](#) for non-composite piles and Article [6.9.5.1](#) for composite piles. If the pile is fully embedded, λ shall be taken as 0.

- C Composite members refer to steel pipe piles that are filled with concrete.
- C The effective length given in Article [8.7.3.13.3](#) is an empirical approach to determining effective length. Computer methods are now available that can determine the axial resistance of a laterally unsupported compression member using a P - Δ analysis that includes a numerical representation of the lateral soil resistance ([Williams et al., 2003](#)). These methods are preferred over the empirical approach in Article [8.7.3.13.3](#).

The nominal axial resistance of horizontally unsupported non-composite piles that extend above the ground surface in air or water shall be determined from Eq.(6.25) or Eq.(6.26). The nominal axial resistance of horizontally unsupported composite piles that extend above the ground surface in air or water shall be determined from Eq.(6.37) or Eq.(6.38).

The effective length of laterally unsupported piles should be determined based on the provisions in Article 8.7.3.13.3.

The resistance factors for the compression limit state are specified in Article 6.5.4.2.

2. Concrete Piles

The nominal axial compression resistance for concrete piles and prestressed concrete piles shall be as specified in Article 5.7.4.4.

- C Article 5.7.4 includes specified limits on longitudinal reinforcement, spirals and ties. Methods are given for determining nominal axial compression resistance but they do not include the nominal axial compression resistance of prestressed members. Commentary to Article 5.7.4.1 notes that compression members are usually prestressed only where they are subjected to high levels of flexure. Therefore, a method of determining nominal axial compression resistance is not given.

The nominal axial compression resistance for concrete piles that is laterally unsupported in air or water shall be determined using the procedures given in Article 5.7.4.3 and Article 4.5.3.2. The effective length of laterally unsupported piles should be determined based on the provisions in Article 8.7.3.13.3.

The resistance factor for the compression limit state for concrete piles shall be that given in Article 5.5.4.2.1 for concrete loaded in axial compression.

- C Article 5.7.4.5 specifically permits an analysis based on equilibrium and strain compatibility. Methods are also available for performing a stability analysis (Williams et al., 2003).

3. Buckling and Lateral Stability

In evaluating stability, the effective length of the pile shall be equal to the laterally unsupported length, plus an embedded depth to fixity.

- C This procedure is taken from Davisson and Robinson (1965) and should only be used for preliminary design.

The potential for buckling of unsupported pile lengths and the determination of stability under lateral loading should be evaluated by methods that consider soil-structure interaction as specified in Article 8.7.3.12.

For preliminary design, the depth to fixity below the ground, in mm, may be taken as:

- For clays:

$$1.4 [E_p I_w / E_s]^{0.25} \quad (8.88)$$

- For sands:

$$1.8 [E_p I_w / n_h]^{0.2} \quad (8.89)$$

where:

E_p = modulus of elasticity of pile (MPa)

I_w = weak axis moment of inertia for pile (mm⁴)

E_s = soil modulus for clays = 0.465 S_u (MPa)

S_u = undrained shear strength of clays (MPa)

n_h = rate of increase of soil modulus with depth for sands as specified in Table 8.4 (MPa/mm)

- C In Eqs. (8.88) and (8.89), the loading condition has been assumed to be axial load only, and the piles are assumed to be fixed at their ends.
- C The effect of pile spacing on the soil modulus has been studied by Prakash and Sharma (1990), who found that, at pile spacings greater than 8 times the pile width, neighboring piles have no effect on the soil modulus or buckling resistance. However, at a pile spacing of 3 times the pile width, the effective soil modulus is reduced to 25 percent of the value applicable to a single pile. For intermediate spacings, modulus values may be estimated by interpolation.

8.7.4. Extreme Event Limit State

The provisions of Article 8.5.5.3 shall apply.

- C See commentary in Article 8.5.5.3.

For the applicable factored loads, including those specified in Article 8.7.1.6, for each extreme event limit state, the pile foundations shall be designed to have adequate factored axial and lateral resistance. For seismic design, all soil within and above the liquefiable zone, if the soil is liquefiable, shall not be considered to contribute axial compressive resistance. Downdrag resulting from liquefaction induced settlement shall be determined as specified in Article 3.10.8 and included in the loads applied to the foundation. Static downdrag loads should not be combined with seismic downdrag loads due to liquefaction.

The pile foundation shall also be designed to resist the horizontal force resulting from lateral spreading, if applicable, or the liquefiable soil shall be improved to prevent liquefaction and lateral spreading. For lateral soil resistance of the pile foundation, the P - y curve soil parameters should be reduced to account for liquefaction. To determine the amount of reduction, the duration of strong shaking and the ability of the soil to fully develop a liquefied condition during the period of strong shaking should be considered.

When designing for scour, the pile foundation design shall be conducted as described in Article 8.7.3.6, except that the check flood and resistance factors consistent with Article 8.5.5.3.2 shall be used.

8.7.5. Corrosion and Deterioration

The effects of corrosion and deterioration from environmental conditions shall be considered in the selection of the pile type and in the determination of the required pile cross-section.

As a minimum, the following types of deterioration shall be considered:

- Corrosion of steel pile foundations, particularly in fill soils, low pH soils, and marine environments;
- Sulfate, chloride, and acid attack of concrete pile foundations; and

The following soil or site conditions should be considered as indicative of a potential pile deterioration or corrosion situation:

- resistivity less than 2,000 ohm-cm,
- pH less than 5.5,
- pH between 5.5 and 8.5 in soils with high organic content,

- sulfate concentrations greater than 1,000 ppm,
- landfills and cinder fills,
- soils subject to mine or industrial drainage,
- areas with a mixture of high resistivity soils and low resistivity high alkaline soils.

The following water conditions should be considered as indicative of a potential pile deterioration or corrosion situation:

- chloride content greater than 500 ppm,
- sulfate concentration greater than 500 ppm,
- mine or industrial runoff,
- high organic content,
- pH less than 5.5,
- marine borers, and
- piles exposed to wet/dry cycles.

When chemical wastes are suspected, a full chemical analysis of soil and groundwater samples shall be considered.

- C Resistivity, pH, chloride content, and sulfate concentration values have been adapted from those in [Fang \(1991\)](#) and [Tomlinson \(1987\)](#).
- C Some states use a coal tar epoxy paint system as a protective coating with good results.
- C The criterion for determining the potential for deterioration varies widely. An alternative set of recommendations is given by [Elias \(1990\)](#).
- C A field electrical resistivity surveyor resistivity testing and pH testing of soil and groundwater samples may be used to evaluate the corrosion potential.
- C The deterioration potential of steel piles may be reduced by several methods, including protective coatings, concrete encasement, cathodic protection, use of special steel alloys, or increased steel area. Protective coatings should be resistant to abrasion and have a proven service record in the corrosive environment identified. Protective coatings should extend into non-corrosive soils a few feet because the lower portion of the coating is more susceptible to abrasion loss during installation.
- C Concrete encasement through the corrosive zone may also be used. The concrete mix should be of low permeability and placed properly. Steel piles protected by concrete encasement should be coated with a dielectric coating near the base of the concrete jacket.
- C The use of special steel alloys of nickel, copper, and potassium may also be used for increased corrosion resistance in the atmosphere or splash zone of marine piling.
- C Sacrificial steel area may also be used for corrosion resistance. This technique over sizes the steel section so that the available section after corrosion meets structural requirements.
- C Deterioration of concrete piles can be reduced by design procedures. These include use of a dense impermeable concrete, sulfate resisting Portland cement, increased steel cover, air-entrainment, reduced chloride content in the concrete mix, cathodic protection, and epoxy-coated reinforcement. Piles that are continuously submerged are less subject to deterioration. [ACI 318, Section 4.5.2](#), provides maximum water-cement ratio requirements for special exposure conditions. [ACI 318, Section 4.5.3](#), lists the appropriate types of cement for various types of sulfate exposure.
- C For prestressed concrete, [ACI 318](#) recommends a maximum water-soluble chloride ion of 0.06 percent by weight of cement.
- C Cathodic protection of reinforcing and prestressing steel may be used to protect concrete from corrosion effects. This process induces electric flow from the anode to the cathode of the pile and reduces corrosion. An external DC power source may be required to drive the current. However, cathodic protection requires electrical continuity between all steel and that necessitates bonding the

steel for electric connection. This bonding is expensive and usually precludes the use of cathodic protection of concrete piles.

- C Epoxy coating of pile reinforcement has been found in some cases to be useful in resisting corrosion. It is important to ensure that the coating is continuous and free of holidays.
- C More detail on design for corrosion is contained in [Hannigan et al. \(2005\)](#).

8.7.6. Determination of Minimum Pile Penetration

The minimum pile penetration, if required for the particular site conditions and loading, shall be based on the maximum depth needed to meet the following requirements as applicable:

- Single and pile group settlement (service limit state)
 - Lateral deflection (service limit state)
 - Uplift (strength limit state)
 - Depth into bearing soils needed to resist downdrag loads resulting from static consolidation stresses on soft soil or downdrag loads due to liquefaction (strength and extreme event limit state, respectively)
 - Depth into bearing soils needed to provide adequate pile axial (compression and uplift) and lateral resistance after scour (strength and extreme event limit states)
 - Nominal soil shear resistance and fixity for resisting the applied lateral loads to the foundation (strength limit state)
 - Axial uplift, and lateral resistance to resist extreme event limit state loads
- C A minimum pile penetration should only be specified if necessary to ensure that all of the applicable limit states are met. A minimum pile penetration should not be specified solely to meet axial compression resistance, i.e., bearing, unless field verification of the pile nominal bearing resistance is not performed as described in Article [8.7.3.8](#).

The contract documents should indicate the minimum pile penetration, if applicable, as determined above. The contract documents should also include the required nominal axial compressive resistance, R_{ndr} as specified in Article [8.7.7](#) and the method by which this resistance will be verified, if applicable, such that the resistance factor(s) used for design are consistent with the construction field verification methods of nominal axial compressive pile resistance.

8.7.7. Determination of R_{ndr} Used to Establish Contract Driving Criteria for Bearing

The value of R_{ndr} used for the construction of the pile foundation to establish the driving criteria to obtain the design bearing resistance shall be the value that meets or exceeds the following limit states, as applicable:

- Strength limit state compression resistance specified in Article [8.7.3.8](#)
- Strength limit state compression resistance, including downdrag specified in Article [8.7.3.7](#)
- Strength limit state compression resistance, accounting for scour specified in Article [8.7.3.6](#)
- Extreme event limit state compression resistance for seismic specified in Article [8.7.4](#)
- Extreme event limit state compression resistance for scour specified in Article [8.7.4](#)

8.7.8. Drivability Analysis

The establishment of the installation criteria for driven piles should include a drivability analysis. Except as specified herein, the drivability analysis shall be performed by the Engineer using a wave equation analysis, and the driving stresses (σ_{dr}) anywhere in the pile determined from the analysis shall be less than the following limits:

Steel Piles, compression and tension:

$$\sigma_{dr} = 0.9 \phi_{da} f_y \quad (8.90)$$

where:

- f_y = yield strength of the steel (MPa)
- ϕ_{da} = resistance factor as specified in [Table 8.15](#)

Concrete piles:

- In compression:

$$\sigma_{dr} = 0.85 \phi_{da} f'_c \quad (8.91)$$

- In tension, considering only the steel reinforcement:

$$\sigma_{dr} = 0.7 \phi_{da} f_y \quad (8.92)$$

where:

- f'_c = unconfined compressive strength of the concrete (MPa)
- f_y = yield strength of the steel reinforcement (MPa)

Prestressed concrete piles, normal environments:

- In compression:

$$\sigma_{dr} = \phi_{da} (0.85 f'_c - f_{pe}) \quad (8.93)$$

- In tension:

$$\sigma_{dr} = \phi_{da} (0.25 \sqrt{f'_c} + f_{pe}) \quad (8.94)$$

where:

- f_{pe} = effective prestressing stress in concrete (MPa)

Prestressed concrete piles, severe corrosive environments:

- In tension:

$$\sigma_{dr} = \phi_{da} f_{pe} \quad (8.95)$$

For routine pile installation applications where significant local experience can be applied to keep the risk of pile installation problems low, a project specific drivability analysis using the wave equation may be waived.

This drivability analysis shall be based on the maximum driving resistance needed:

- To obtain minimum penetration requirements specified in Article [8.7.6](#),

- To overcome resistance of soil that cannot be counted upon to provide axial or lateral resistance throughout the design life of the structure, e.g., material subject to scour, or material subject to downdrag, and
 - To obtain the required nominal bearing resistance.
- C Wave equation analyses should be conducted during design using a range of likely hammer/pile combinations, considering the soil and installation conditions at the foundation' site. See Article [8.7.3.8.4](#) for additional considerations for conducting wave equation analyses. These analyses should be used to assess feasibility of the proposed foundation system and to establish installation criteria with regard to driving stresses to limit driving stresses to acceptable levels. For routine pile installation applications, e.g., smaller diameter, low nominal resistance piles, the development of installation criteria with regard to the limitation of driving stresses, e.g., minimum or maximum ram weight, hammer size, maximum acceptable driving resistance, etc., may be based on local experience, rather than conducting a detailed wave equation analysis that is project specific. Local experience could include previous drivability analysis results and actual pile driving experience that are applicable to the project specific situation at hand. Otherwise, a project specific drivability study should be conducted.
- C Drivability analyses may also be conducted as part of the project construction phase. When conducted during the construction phase, the drivability analysis shall be conducted using the contractor's proposed driving system. This information should be supplied by the contractor. This drivability analysis should be used to determine if the contractor's proposed driving system is capable of driving the pile to the maximum resistance anticipated without exceeding the factored structural resistance available, i.e., σ_{dr} .
- C In addition to this drivability analysis, the best approach to controlling driving stresses during pile installation is to conduct dynamic testing with signal matching to verify the accuracy of the wave equation analysis results, and to calibrate the wave equation analyses. Note that if a drivability analysis is conducted using the wave equation for acceptance of the contractor's proposed driving system, but a different method is used to develop driving resistance, i.e., blow count, criterion to obtain the specified nominal pile resistance, e.g., a driving formula, the difference in the methods regarding the predicted driving resistance should be taken into account when evaluating the contractor's driving system. For example, the wave equation analysis could indicate that the contractor's hammer can achieve the desired bearing resistance, but the driving formula could indicate the driving resistance at the required nominal bearing is too high. Such differences should be considered when setting up the driving system acceptance requirements in the contract documents.
- C The selection of a blow count limit is difficult because it can depend on the site soil profile, the pile type, and possibly hammer manufacturer limitations to prevent hammer damage. In general, blow counts greater than 10 to 15 blows per 25 mm should be used with care, particularly with concrete piles. In cases where the driving is easy until near the end of driving, a higher blow count may sometimes be satisfactory, but if a high blow count is required over a large percentage of the depth, even 10 blows per 25 mm may be too large.

8.7.9. Test Piles

Test piles should be driven at several locations on the site to establish order length. If dynamic measurements are not taken, these test piles should be driven after the driving criteria have been established.

If dynamic measurements during driving are taken, both order lengths and driving criteria should be established after the test pile(s) are driven. Dynamic measurements obtained during test pile driving, signal matching analyses, and wave equation analyses should be used to determine the driving criteria (bearing requirements) as specified in Articles [8.7.3.8.2](#), [8.7.3.8.3](#), and [8.7.3.8.4](#).

- C Test piles are sometimes known as indicator Piles. It is common practice to drive test piles at the beginning of the project to establish pile order lengths and/or to evaluate site variability whether or not dynamic measurements are taken.

8.8. DRILLED SHAFTS

8.8.1. General

8.8.1.1. Scope

The provisions of this Section shall apply to the design of drilled shafts. Throughout these provisions, the use of the term “drilled shaft” shall be interpreted to mean a shaft constructed using either drilling (open hole or with drilling slurry) or casing plus excavation equipment and technology.

- C Drilled shafts may be an economical alternative to spread footing or pile foundations, particularly when spread footings cannot be founded on suitable soil or rock strata within a reasonable depth or when driven piles are not viable. Drilled shafts may be an economical alternative to spread footings where scour depth is large. Drilled shafts may also be considered to resist high lateral or axial loads, or when deformation tolerances are small. For example, a movable bridge is a bridge where it is desirable to keep deformations small.
- C Drilled shafts are classified according to their primary mechanism for deriving load resistance either as floating (friction) shafts, i.e., shafts transferring load primarily by side resistance, or end-bearing shafts, i.e., shafts transferring load primarily by tip resistance.
- C It is recommended that the shaft design be reviewed for constructability prior to advertising the project for bids.

These provisions shall also apply to shafts that are constructed using casing advancers that twist or rotate casings into the ground concurrent with excavation rather than drilling.

The provisions of this Section shall not be taken as applicable to drilled piles, e.g., augercast piles, installed with continuous flight augers that are concreted as the auger is being extracted.

8.8.1.2. Shaft Spacing, Clearance, and Embedment into Cap

If the center-to-center spacing of drilled shafts is less than 4.0 diameters, the interaction effects between adjacent shafts shall be evaluated. If the center-to-center spacing of drilled shafts is less than 6.0 diameters, the sequence of construction should be specified in the contract documents.

- C Larger spacing may be required to preserve shaft excavation stability or to prevent communication between shafts during excavation and concrete placement.
- C Shaft spacing may be decreased if casing construction methods are required to maintain excavation stability and to prevent interaction between adjacent shafts.

Shafts used in groups should be located such that the distance from the side of any shaft to the nearest edge of the cap is not less than 300 mm. Shafts shall be embedded sufficiently into the cap to develop the required structural resistance.

8.8.1.3. Shaft Diameter and Enlarged Bases

If the shaft is to be manually inspected, the shaft diameter should not be less than 750 mm. The diameter of columns supported by shafts should be smaller than or equal to the diameter of the drilled shaft.

Nominal shaft diameters used for both geotechnical and structural design of shafts should be selected based on available diameter sizes.

- C If the shaft and the column are the same diameter, it should be recognized that the placement tolerance of drilled shafts is such that it will likely affect the column location. The shaft and column diameter should be determined based on the shaft placement tolerance, column and shaft reinforcing clearances, and the constructability of placing the column reinforcing in the shaft. A horizontal construction joint in the shaft at the bottom of the column reinforcing will facilitate constructability.

Making allowance for the tolerance where the column connects with the superstructure, which could affect column alignment, can also accommodate this shaft construction tolerance.

- C In drilling rock sockets, it is common to use casing through the soil zone to temporarily support the soil to prevent cave-in, allow inspection and to produce a seal along the soil-rock contact to minimize infiltration of groundwater into the socket. Depending on the method of excavation, the diameter of the rock socket may need to be sized at least 150 mm smaller than the nominal casing size to permit seating of casing and insertion of rock drilling equipment.

In stiff cohesive soils, an enlarged base (bell or underream) may be used at the shaft tip to increase the tip bearing area to reduce the unit end bearing pressure or to provide additional resistance to uplift loads.

- C Where practical, consideration should be given to extension of the shaft to a greater depth to avoid the difficulty and expense of excavation for enlarged bases.

Where the bottom of the drilled hole is dry, cleaned and inspected prior to concrete placement, the entire base area may be taken as effective in transferring load.

8.8.1.4. Battered Shafts

Battered shafts should be avoided. Where increased lateral resistance is needed, consideration should be given to increasing the shaft diameter or increasing the number of shafts.

- C Due to problems associated with hole stability during excavation, installation, and with removal of casing during installation of the rebar cage and concrete placement, construction of battered shafts is very difficult.

8.8.1.5. Drilled Shaft Resistance

Drilled shafts shall be designed to have adequate axial and structural resistances, tolerable settlements, and tolerable lateral displacements.

- C The drilled shaft design process is discussed in detail in *Drilled Shafts: Construction Procedures and Design Methods* (O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

The axial resistance of drilled shafts shall be determined through a suitable combination of subsurface investigations, laboratory and/or in-situ tests, analytical methods, and load tests, with reference to the history of past performance. Consideration shall also be given to:

- The difference between the resistance of a single shaft and that of a group of shafts;
- The resistance of the underlying strata to support the load of the shaft group;
- The effects of constructing the shaft(s) on adjacent structures;
- The possibility of scour and its effect;
- The transmission of forces, such as downdrag forces, from consolidating soil;
- Minimum shaft penetration necessary to satisfy the requirements caused by uplift, scour, downdrag, settlement, liquefaction, lateral loads and seismic conditions;
- Satisfactory behavior under service loads;
- Drilled shaft nominal structural resistance; and
- Long-term durability of the shaft in service, i.e., corrosion and deterioration.

Resistance factors for shaft axial resistance for the strength limit state shall be as specified in [Table 8.18](#).

The method of construction may affect the shaft axial and lateral resistance. The shaft design parameters shall take into account the likely construction methodologies used to install the shaft.

- C The performance of drilled shaft foundations can be greatly affected by the method of construction, particularly side resistance. The designer should consider the effects of ground and groundwater conditions on shaft construction operations and delineate, where necessary, the general method of construction to be followed to ensure the expected performance. Because shafts derive their resistance from side and tip resistance, which is a function of the condition of the materials in direct contact with the shaft, it is important that the construction procedures be consistent with the material conditions assumed in the design. Softening, loosening, or other changes in soil and rock conditions caused by the construction method could result in a reduction in shaft resistance and an increase in shaft displacement. Therefore, evaluation of the effects of the shaft construction procedure on resistance should be considered an inherent aspect of the design. Use of slurries, varying shaft diameters, and post grouting can also affect shaft resistance.
- C Soil parameters should be varied systematically to model the range of anticipated conditions. Both vertical and lateral resistance should be evaluated in this manner.
- C Procedures that may affect axial or lateral shaft resistance include, but are not limited to, the following:
 - Artificial socket roughening, if included in the design nominal axial resistance assumptions.
 - Removal of temporary casing where the design is dependent on concrete-to-soil adhesion.
 - The use of permanent casing.
 - Use of tooling that produces a uniform cross-section where the design of the shaft to resist lateral loads cannot tolerate the change in stiffness if telescoped casing is used.
- C It should be recognized that the design procedures provided in these Specifications assume compliance to construction specifications that will produce a high quality shaft. Performance criteria should be included in the construction specifications that require:
 - Shaft bottom cleanout criteria,
 - Appropriate means to prevent side wall movement or failure (caving) such as temporary casing, slurry, or a combination of the two,
 - Slurry maintenance requirements including minimum slurry head requirements, slurry testing requirements, and maximum time the shaft may be left open before concrete placement.
- C If for some reason one or more of these performance criteria are not met, the design should be reevaluated and the shaft repaired or replaced as necessary.

8.8.1.6. Determination of Shaft Loads

1. General

The factored loads to be used in shaft foundation design shall be as specified in [Section 3](#). Computational assumptions that shall be used in determining individual shaft loads are also specified in [Section 3](#).

- C The specification and determination of top of cap loads is discussed extensively in [Section 3](#). It should be noted that Article [3.6.2.1](#) states that dynamic load allowance need not be applied to foundation elements that are below the ground surface. Therefore, if shafts extend above the ground surface to act as columns the dynamic load allowance should be included in evaluating the structural resistance of that part of the shaft above the ground surface. The dynamic load allowance may be ignored in evaluating the geotechnical resistance.

2. Downdrag

The provisions of Articles [8.7.1.6.2](#) and [3.10.8](#) shall apply (See commentary to Articles [8.7.1.6.2](#) and [3.11.8](#)).

- C Downdrag loads may be estimated using the α -method, as specified in Article [8.8.3.5.1.b](#), for calculating negative shaft resistance. As with positive shaft resistance, the top 1500 mm and a bottom length taken as one shaft diameter should be assumed to not contribute to downdrag loads.
- C When using the α -method, an allowance should be made for a possible increase in the undrained shear strength as consolidation occurs. Downdrag loads may also come from cohesionless soils above settling cohesive soils, requiring granular soil friction methods be used in such zones to estimate downdrag loads.

3. Uplift

The provisions in Article [8.7.1.6.3](#) shall apply (See commentary of Article [8.7.1.6.3](#)).

8.8.2. Service Limit State Design

8.8.2.1. Tolerable Movements

The requirements of Article [8.5.2.1](#) shall apply.

8.8.2.2. Settlement

1. General

The settlement of a drilled shaft foundation involving either single-drilled shafts or groups of drilled shafts shall not exceed the movement criteria selected in accordance with Article [8.5.2.1](#).

2. Settlement of Single-Drilled Shaft

The settlement of single-drilled shafts shall be estimated in consideration of:

- Short-term settlement,
- Consolidation settlement if constructed in cohesive soils, and
- Axial compression of the shaft.

The normalized load-settlement curves shown in [Figure 8.41](#) through [Figure 8.44](#) should be used to limit the nominal shaft axial resistance computed as specified for the strength limit state in Article [8.8.3](#) for service limit state tolerable movements. Consistent values of normalized settlement shall be used for limiting the base and side resistance when using these Figures. Long-term settlement should be computed according to Article [8.7.2](#) using the equivalent footing method and added to the short-term settlements estimated using [Figure 8.41](#) through [Figure 8.44](#).

Other methods for evaluating shaft settlements that may be used are found in [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#).

- C [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#) have summarized load-settlement data for drilled shafts in dimensionless form, as shown in [Figure 8.41](#) through [Figure 8.44](#). These curves do not include consideration of long-term consolidation settlement for shafts in cohesive soils. [Figure 8.41](#) and [Figure 8.42](#) show the load-settlement curves in side resistance and in end bearing for shafts in cohesive soils. [Figure 8.43](#) and [Figure 8.44](#) are similar curves for shafts in cohesionless soils. These curves should be used for estimating short-term settlements of drilled shafts.
- C The designer should exercise judgment relative to whether the trend line, one of the limits, or some relation in between should be used from [Figure 8.41](#) through [Figure 8.44](#).
- C The values of the load-settlement curves in side resistance were obtained at different depths, taking into account elastic shortening of the shaft. Although elastic shortening may be small in relatively short shafts, it may be substantial in longer shafts. The amount of elastic shortening in drilled shafts varies with depth. [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#) have described an approximate procedure for estimating the elastic shortening of long-drilled shafts.
- C Settlements induced by loads in end bearing are different for shafts in cohesionless soils and in cohesive soils. Although drilled shafts in cohesive soils typically have a well-defined break in a load-

displacement curve, shafts in cohesionless soils often have no well-defined failure at any displacement. The resistance of drilled shafts in cohesionless soils continues to increase as the settlement increases beyond five percent of the base diameter. The shaft end bearing R_p is typically fully mobilized at displacements of two to five percent of the base diameter for shafts in cohesive soils. The unit end bearing resistance for the strength limit state (see Article [8.8.3.3](#)) is defined as the bearing pressure required to cause vertical deformation equal to five percent of the shaft diameter, even though this does not correspond to complete failure of the soil beneath the base of the shaft.

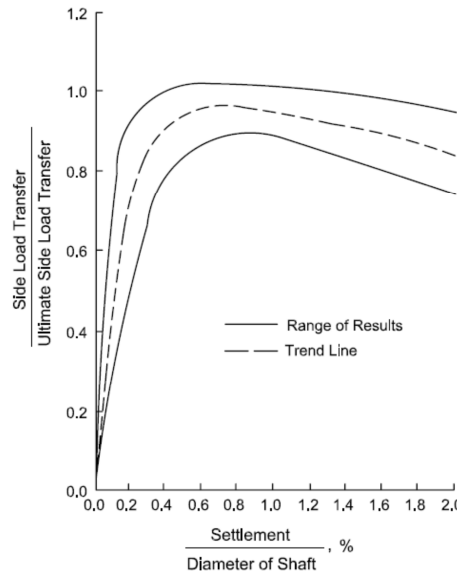


Figure 8.41: Normalized Load Transfer in Side Resistance Versus Settlement in Cohesive Soils (from O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

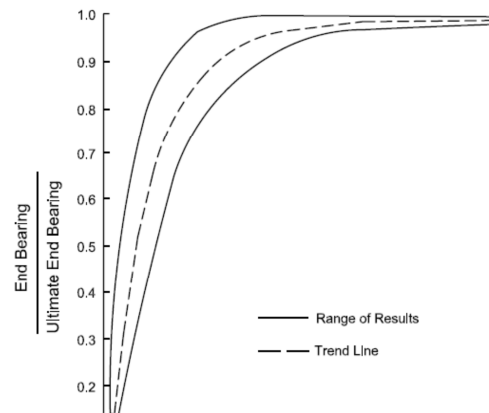


Figure 8.42: Normalized Load Transfer in End Bearing Versus Settlement in Cohesive Soils (from O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

- C The curves in [Figure 8.41](#) and [Figure 8.42](#) also show the settlements at which the side resistance is mobilized.
- C The shaft skin friction R_s is typically fully mobilized at displacements of 0.2 percent to 0.8 percent of the shaft diameter for shafts in cohesive soils. For shafts in cohesionless soils, this value is 0.1 percent to 1.0 percent.

- C The deflection-softening response typically applies to cemented or partially cemented soils, or other soils that exhibit brittle behavior, having low residual shear strengths at larger deformations. Note that the trend line for sands is a reasonable approximation for either the deflection-softening or deflection-hardening response.

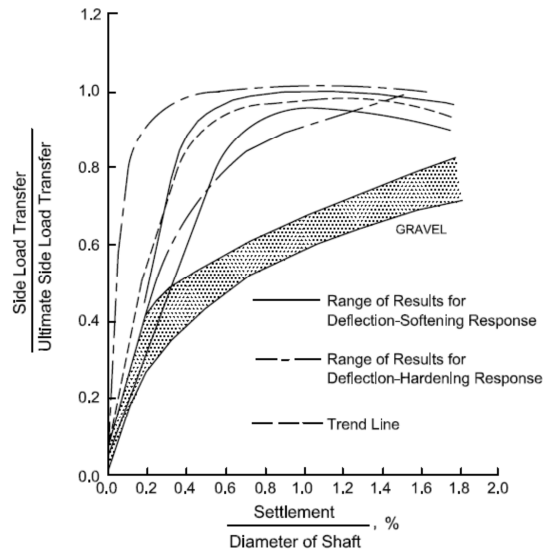


Figure 8.43: Normalized Load Transfer in Side Resistance Versus Settlement in Cohesionless Soils (from O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

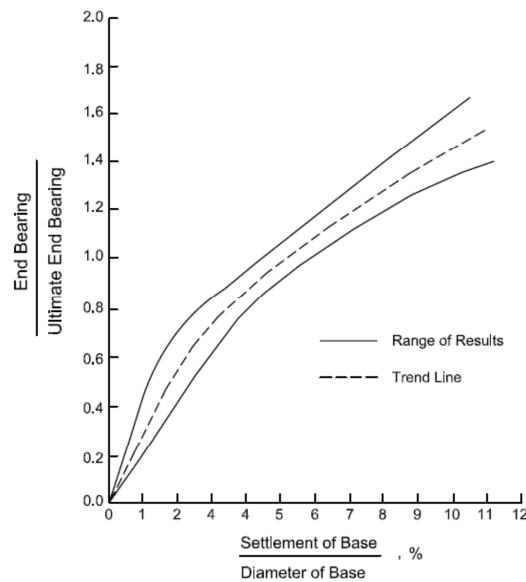


Figure 8.44: Normalized Load Transfer in End Bearing Versus Settlement in Cohesionless Soils (from O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

3. Intermediate Geo Materials (IGMs)

For detailed settlement estimation of shafts in IGMs, the procedures provided by O'Neill and Reese (1999) should be used.

C IGMs are defined by O'Neill and Reese (1999) as follows:

- Cohesive IGM—clay shales or mudstones with an S_u of 0.25 to 2.5 MPa, and
- Cohesionless—granular tills or granular residual soils with N_{160} greater than 50 blows/300 mm.

4. Group Settlement

The provisions of Article 8.7.2.3 shall apply. Shaft group effect shall be considered for groups of 2 shafts or more.

C See commentary to Article 8.7.2.3 or granular greater than O'Neill and Reese (1999) summarize various studies on the effects of shaft group behavior. These studies were for groups that consisted of 1x2 to 3x3 shafts. These studies suggest that group effects are relatively unimportant for shaft center-to-center spacing of $5D$ or greater.

8.8.2.3. Horizontal Movement of Shafts and Shaft Groups

The provisions of Articles 8.5.2.1 and 8.7.2.4 shall apply (See commentary to Articles 8.5.2.1 and 8.7.2.4).

8.8.2.4. Settlement Due to Downdrag

The provisions of Article 8.7.2.5 shall apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.2.5).

8.8.2.5. Lateral Squeeze

The provisions of Article 8.7.2.6 shall apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.2.6).

8.8.3. Strength Limit State Design

8.8.3.1. General

The nominal shaft resistances that shall be considered at the strength limit state include:

- axial compression resistance,
- axial uplift resistance,
- punching of shafts through strong soil into a weaker layer,
- lateral geotechnical resistance of soil and rock stratum,
- resistance when scour occurs,
- axial resistance when downdrag occurs, and
- structural resistance of shafts.

8.8.3.2. Groundwater Table and Buoyancy

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.5 shall apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.3.5).

8.8.3.3. Scour

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.6 shall apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.3.6).

8.8.3.4. Downdrag

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.7 shall apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.3.7).

8.8.3.5. Nominal Axial Compression Resistance of Single Drilled Shafts

The factored resistance of drilled shafts, R_R , shall be taken as:

$$R_R = \phi R_n = \phi q_p R_p + \phi_{qs} R_s \quad (8.96)$$

in which:

$$R_p = q_p A_p \quad (8.97)$$

$$R_s = q_s A_s \quad (8.98)$$

where:

R_p = nominal shaft tip resistance (N)

R_s = nominal shaft side resistance (N)

ϕ_{qp} = resistance factor for tip resistance specified in [Table 8.18](#)

ϕ_{qs} = resistance factor for shaft side resistance specified in [Table 8.18](#)

q_p = unit tip resistance (MPa)

q_s = unit side resistance (MPa)

A_p = area of shaft tip (mm²)

A_s = area of shaft side surface (mm²)

- C The nominal axial compression resistance of a shaft is derived from the tip resistance and/or shaft side resistance, i.e., skin friction. Both the tip and shaft resistances develop in response to foundation displacement. The maximum values of each are unlikely to occur at the same displacement, as described in Article [8.8.2.2.2](#).
- C For consistency in the interpretation of both static load tests (Article [8.8.3.5.6](#)) and the normalized curves of Article [8.8.2.2.2](#), it is customary to establish the failure criterion at the strength limit state at a gross deflection equal to five percent of the base diameter for drilled shafts.

The methods for estimating drilled shaft resistance provided in this Article should be used. Shaft strength limit state resistance methods not specifically addressed in this Article for which adequate successful regional or national experience is available may be used, provided adequate information and experience is also available to develop appropriate resistance factors.

- C **O'Neill and Reese (1999)** identify several methods for estimating the resistance of drilled shafts in cohesive and granular soils, intermediate geomaterials, and rock. The most commonly used methods are provided in this Article. Methods other than the ones provided in detail in this Article may be used provided that adequate local or national experience with the specific method is available to have confidence that the method can be used successfully and that appropriate resistance factors can be determined. At present, it must be recognized that these resistance factors have been developed using a combination of calibration by fitting to previous allowable stress design (ASD) practice and reliability theory (see **Allen, 2005**, for additional details on the development of resistance factors for drilled shafts). Such methods may be used as an alternative to the specific methodology provided in this Article, provided that:
- The method selected consistently has been used with success on a regional or national basis.
 - Significant experience is available to demonstrate that success.
 - As a minimum, calibration by fitting to allowable stress design is conducted to determine the appropriate resistance factor, if inadequate measured data are available to assess the alternative method using reliability theory. A similar approach as described by **Allen (2005)** should be used to select the resistance factor for the alternative method.

1. Estimation of Drilled Shaft Resistance in Cohesive Soils

a. General

Drilled shafts in cohesive soils should be designed by total and effective stress methods for undrained and drained loading conditions, respectively.

b. Side Resistance

The nominal unit side resistance, q_s , in MPa, for shafts in cohesive soil loaded under undrained loading conditions by the α -Method shall be taken as:

$$q_s = \alpha S_u \quad (8.99)$$

in which:

$$\alpha = \begin{cases} 0.55 & \text{for } \frac{S_u}{p_a} \leq 1.5 \\ 0.55 - 0.1 \left(\frac{S_u}{p_a} - 1.5 \right) & \text{for } 1.5 \leq \frac{S_u}{p_a} \leq 2.5 \end{cases} \quad (8.100)$$

where:

S_u = undrained shear strength (MPa)

α = adhesion factor (dim.)

p_a = atmospheric pressure (= 0.101 MPa)

- C The α -method is based on total stress. For effective stress methods for shafts in clay, see [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#).
- C The adhesion factor is an empirical factor used to correlate the results of full-scale load tests with the material property or characteristic of the cohesive soil. The adhesion factor is usually related to S_u and is derived from the results of full-scale pile and drilled shaft load tests. Use of this approach presumes that the measured value of S_u is correct and that all shaft behavior resulting from construction and loading can be lumped into a single parameter. Neither presumption is strictly correct, but the approach is used due to its simplicity.
- C Steel casing will generally reduce the side resistance of a shaft. No specific data is available regarding the reduction in skin friction resulting from the use of permanent casing relative to concrete placed directly against the soil. Side resistance reduction factors for driven steel piles relative to concrete piles can vary from 50 to 75 percent, depending on whether the steel is clean or rusty, respectively (Potyondy, 1961). Greater reduction in the side resistance may be needed if oversized cutting shoes or splicing rings are used.
- C If open-ended pipe piles are driven full depth with an impact hammer before soil inside the pile is removed, and left as a permanent casing, driven pile static analysis methods may be used to estimate the side resistance as described in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#).

The following portions of a drilled shaft, illustrated in [Figure 8.45](#), should not be taken to contribute to the development of resistance through skin friction:

- at least the top 1500 mm of any shaft;
- for straight shafts, a bottom length of the shaft taken as the shaft diameter;
- periphery of belled ends, if used; and
- distance above a belled end taken as equal to the shaft diameter.

When permanent casing is used, the side resistance shall be adjusted with consideration to the type and length of casing to be used, and how it is installed.

Values of α for contributing portions of shafts excavated dry in open or cased holes should be as specified in Eq. (8.100).

Values of α are based on eliminating the upper 1500 mm and lower 1.0 diameter of the shaft length during back-analysis of load test results. The load tests were conducted in insensitive cohesive soils. Therefore, if shafts are constructed in sensitive clays, values of α may be different than those obtained from Eq. (8.100). Other values of α may be used if based on the results of load tests.

- C The upper 1500 mm of the shaft is ignored in estimating R_n to account for the effects of seasonal moisture changes, disturbance during construction, cyclic lateral loading, and low lateral stresses from freshly placed concrete. The lower 1.0-diameter length above the shaft tip or top of enlarged base is ignored due to the development of tensile cracks in the soil near these regions of the shaft and a corresponding reduction in lateral stress and side resistance.
- C Bells or underreams constructed in stiff fissured clay often settle sufficiently to result in the formation of a gap above the bell that will eventually be filled by slumping soil. Slumping will tend to loosen the soil immediately above the bell and decrease the side resistance along the lower portion of the shaft.

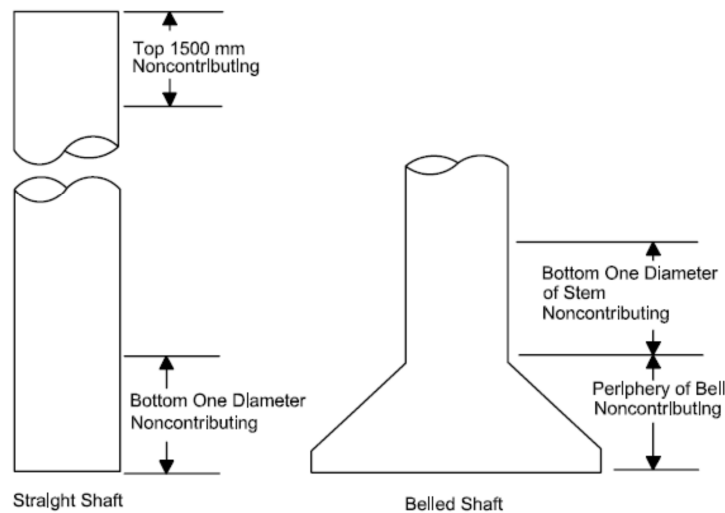


Figure 8.45: Explanation of Portions of Drilled Shafts Not Considered in Computing Side Resistance (O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

- C The value of α is often considered to vary as a function of S_u . Values of α for drilled shafts are recommended as shown in Eq. (8.100), based on the results of back-analyzed, full-scale load tests. This recommendation is based on eliminating the upper 1500 mm and lower 1.0 diameter of the shaft length during back-analysis of load test results. The load tests were conducted in insensitive cohesive soils. Therefore, if shafts are constructed in sensitive clays, values of α may be different than those obtained from Eq. (8.100). Other values of α may be used if based on the results of load tests.
- C The depth of 1500 mm at the top of the shaft may need to be increased if the drilled shaft is installed in expansive clay, if scour deeper than 1500 mm is anticipated, if there is substantial groundline deflection from lateral loading, or if there are other long-term loads or construction factors that could affect shaft resistance.
- C A reduction in the effective length of the shaft contributing to side resistance has been attributed to horizontal stress relief in the region of the shaft tip, arising from development of outward radial stresses at the toe during mobilization of tip resistance. The influence of this effect may extend for a distance of $1B$ above the tip (O'Neill and Reese, 1999). The effectiveness of enlarged bases is limited when L/D is greater than 25.0 due to the lack of load transfer to the tip of the shaft.
- C The values of α obtained from Eq. (8.100) are considered applicable for both compression and uplift loading.

c. Tip Resistance

For axially loaded shafts in cohesive soil, the nominal unit tip resistance, q_p , by the total stress method as provided in O'Neill and Reese (1999) shall be taken as:

$$q_p = N_c S_u \leq 4.0 \quad (8.101)$$

in which:

$$N_c = 6 \left[1 + 0.2 \left(\frac{Z}{D} \right) \right] \leq 9 \quad (8.102)$$

where:

- D = diameter of drilled shaft (mm)
- Z = penetration of shaft (mm)
- S_u = undrained shear strength (MPa)

The value of S_u should be determined from the results of in-situ and/or laboratory testing of undisturbed samples obtained within a depth of 2.0 diameters below the tip of the shaft. If the soil within 2.0 diameters of the tip has $S_u < 0.024$ MPa, the value of N_c should be multiplied by 0.67.

- C These equations are for total stress analysis. For effective stress methods for shafts in clay, see O'Neill and Reese (1999).
- C The limiting value of 4.0 MPa for q_p is not a theoretical limit but a limit based on the largest measured values. A higher limiting value may be used if based on the results of a load test, or previous successful experience in similar soils.

2. Estimation of Drilled Shaft Resistance in Cohesionless Soils

a. General

Shafts in cohesionless soils should be designed by effective stress methods for drained loading conditions or by empirical methods based on in-situ test results.

- C The factored resistance should be determined in consideration of available experience with similar conditions.
- C Although many field load tests have been performed on drilled shafts in clays, very few have been performed on drilled shafts in sands. The shear strength of cohesionless soils can be characterized by an angle of internal friction, ϕ , or empirically related to its *SPT* blow count, N . Methods of estimating shaft resistance and end bearing are presented below. Judgment and experience should always be considered.

b. Side Resistance

The nominal axial resistance of drilled shafts in cohesionless soils by the β -method shall be taken as:

$$q_s = \beta \sigma'_v \leq 0.19 \text{ for } 0.25 \leq \beta \leq 1.2 \quad (8.103)$$

in which, for sandy soils:

- for $N_{60} \geq 15$:

$$\beta = \left(1.5 - 7.7 \times 10^{-3} \sqrt{z} \right) \quad (8.104)$$

- for $N_{60} < 15$:

$$\beta = \frac{N_{60}}{15} \left(1.5 - 7.7 \times 10^{-3} \sqrt{z} \right) \quad (8.105)$$

where:

- σ'_v = vertical effective stress at soil layer mid-depth (MPa)
- β = load transfer coefficient (dim.)
- z = depth below ground, at soil layer mid-depth (mm)
- N_{60} = average *SPT* blow count (corrected only for hammer efficiency) in the design zone under consideration (blows/300 mm)

Higher values may be used if verified by load tests.

- C O'Neill and Reese (1999) provide additional discussion of computation of shaft side resistance and recommend allowing β to increase to 1.8 in gravels and gravelly sands, however, they recommend limiting the unit side resistance to 0.19 MPa in all soils.
- C O'Neill and Reese (1999) proposed a method for uncemented soils that uses a different approach in that the shaft resistance is independent of the soil friction angle or the *SPT* blow count. According to their findings, the friction angle approaches a common value due to high shearing strains in the sand caused by stress relief during drilling.

For gravelly sands and gravels, Eq. (8.106) should be used for computing β where $N_{60} \geq 15$. If $N_{60} < 15$, Eq. (8.105) should be used.

$$\beta = 2.0 - 0.00082 (z)^{0.75} \quad (8.106)$$

When permanent casing is used, the side resistance shall be adjusted with consideration to the type and length of casing to be used, and how it is installed.

- C The detailed development of Eq. (8.106) is provided in O'Neill and Reese (1999).
- C Steel casing will generally reduce the side resistance of a shaft. No specific data is available regarding the reduction in skin friction resulting from the use of permanent casing relative concrete placed directly against the soil. Side resistance reduction factors for driven steel piles relative to concrete piles can vary from 50 to 75 percent, depending on whether the steel is clean or rusty, respectively (Potyondy, 1961). Casing reduction factors of 0.6 to 0.75 are commonly used. Greater reduction in the side resistance may be needed if oversized cutting shoes or splicing rings are used.
- C If open-ended pipe piles are driven full depth with an impact hammer before soil inside the pile is removed, and left as a permanent casing, driven pile static analysis methods may be used to estimate the side resistance as described in Article 8.7.3.8.6.

c. Tip Resistance

The nominal tip resistance, q_p , in MPa, for drilled shafts in cohesionless soils by the O'Neill and Reese (1999) method shall be taken as:

$$q_p = 1.2N_{60} \quad \text{for } N_{60} \leq 50 \quad (8.107)$$

where:

- N_{60} = average *SPT* blow count (corrected only for hammer efficiency) in the design zone under consideration (blows/300 mm)

- C O'Neill and Reese (1999) provide additional discussion regarding the computation of nominal tip resistance.

C See O'Neill and Reese (1999) for background on IGMs.

The value of q_p in Eq. (8.107) should be limited to 3.0 MPa, unless greater values can be justified though load test data.

Cohesionless soils with $SPT-N_{60}$ blow counts greater than 50 shall be treated as intermediate geomaterial (IGM) and the tip resistance, in MPa, taken as:

$$q_p = 0.59 \left[N_{60} \left(\frac{p_a}{\sigma'_v} \right) \right]^{0.8} \sigma'_v \quad (8.108)$$

where:

p_a = atmospheric pressure (= 0.101 MPa)

σ'_v = vertical effective stress at the tip elevation of the shaft (MPa)

N_{60} should be limited to 100 in Eq. (8.108) if higher values are measured.

3. Shafts in Strong Soil Overlying Weaker Compressible Soil

Where a shaft is tipped in a strong soil layer overlying a weaker layer, the base resistance shall be reduced if the shaft base is within a distance of $1.5B$ of the top of the weaker layer (zone of influence for general bearing capacity failure based on bearing capacity theory for deep foundations.). A weighted average should be used that varies linearly from the full base resistance in the overlying strong layer at a distance of $1.5B$ above the top of the weaker layer to the base resistance of the weaker layer at the top of the weaker layer.

C The distance of $1.5B$ represents the zone of influence for general bearing capacity failure based on bearing capacity theory for deep foundations.

4. Estimation of Drilled Shaft Resistance in Rock

a. General

Drilled shafts in rock subject to compressive loading shall be designed to support factored loads in:

- Side-wall shear comprising skin friction on the wall of the rock socket (cases in which the base of the drilled hole cannot be cleaned and inspected or where it is determined that large movements of the shaft would be required to mobilize resistance in end bearing).
- End bearing on the material below the tip of the drilled shaft (cases where sound bedrock underlies low strength overburden materials, including highly weathered rock).
- A combination of both (where the shaft is drilled some depth into sound rock).

The difference in the deformation required to mobilize skin friction in soil and rock versus what is required to mobilize end bearing shall be considered when estimating axial compressive resistance of shafts embedded in rock. Where end bearing in rock is used as part of the axial compressive resistance in the design, the contribution of skin friction in the rock shall be reduced to account for the loss of skin friction that occurs once the shear deformation along the shaft sides is greater than the peak rock shear deformation, i.e., once the rock shear strength begins to drop to a residual value.

- C Methods presented in this Article to calculate drilled shaft axial resistance require an estimate of the uniaxial compressive strength of rock core. Unless the rock is massive, the strength of the rock mass is most frequently controlled by the discontinuities, including orientation, length, and roughness, and the behavior of the material that may be present within the discontinuity, e.g., gouge or infilling. The methods presented are semi-empirical and are based on load test data and site-specific correlations between measured resistance and rock core strength.
- C Design based on side-wall shear alone should be considered for cases in which the base of the drilled hole cannot be cleaned and inspected or where it is determined that large movements of the shaft would be required to mobilize resistance in end bearing.
- C Design based on end-bearing alone should be considered where sound bedrock underlies low strength overburden materials, including highly weathered rock. In these cases, however, it may still be necessary to socket the shaft into rock to provide lateral stability.
- C Where the shaft is drilled some depth into sound rock, a combination of sidewall shear and end bearing can be assumed (Kulhawy and Goodman, 1980). If the rock is degradable, use of special construction procedures, larger socket dimensions, or reduced socket resistance should be considered.
- C For drilled shafts installed in karstic formations, exploratory borings should be advanced at each drilled shaft location to identify potential cavities. Layers of compressible weak rock along the length of a rock socket and within approximately three socket diameters or more below the base of a drilled shaft may reduce the resistance of the shaft.
- C For rock that is stronger than concrete, the concrete shear strength will control the available side friction, and the strong rock will have a higher stiffness, allowing significant end bearing to be mobilized before the side wall shear strength reaches its peak value. Note that concrete typically reaches its peak shear strength at about 250 to 400 microstrain (for a 3000 mm long rock socket, this is approximately 10 mm of deformation at the top of the rock socket). If strains or deformations greater than the value at the peak shear stress are anticipated to mobilize the desired end bearing in the rock, a residual value for the skin friction can still be used. Article 10.8.3.5.4d provides procedures for computing a residual value of the skin friction based on the properties of the rock and shaft.

b. Side Resistance

For drilled shafts socketed into rock, shaft resistance, in MPa, may be taken as (Horvath and Kenney, 1979):

$$q_s = 0.65 \alpha_E p_a (q_u/p_a)^{0.5} < 7.8 p_a (f'_c/p_a)^{0.5} \quad (8.109)$$

where:

q_u = uniaxial compressive strength of rock (MPa)

p_a = atmospheric pressure (= 0.101 MPa)

α_E = reduction factor to account for jointing in rock as provided in Table 8.30

f'_c = concrete compressive strength (MPa)

Table 8.30: Estimation of α_E (O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

E_m/E_i	α_E
1.0	1.0
0.5	0.8
0.3	0.7
0.1	0.55
0.05	0.45

- C Eq. (8.109) applies to the case where the side of the rock socket is considered to be smooth or where the rock is drilled using a drilling slurry. Significant additional shaft resistance may be achieved

if the borehole is specified to be artificially roughened by grooving. Methods to account for increased shaft resistance due to borehole roughness are provided in [Section 11 of O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#).

- C Eq. [\(8.109\)](#) should only be used for intact rock. When the rock is highly jointed, the calculated q_s should be reduced to arrive at a final value for design. The procedure is as follows:
- Step 1. Evaluate the ratio of rock mass modulus to intact rock modulus, i.e., E_m/E_i , using [Table 8.12](#).
 - Step 2. Evaluate the reduction factor, α_E , using [Table 8.30](#).
 - Step 3. Calculate q_s according to Eq. [\(8.109\)](#).

c. Tip Resistance

End-bearing for drilled shafts in rock may be taken as follows:

- If the rock below the base of the drilled shaft to a depth of $2.0B$ is either intact or tightly jointed, i.e., no compressible material or gouge-filled seams, and the depth of the socket is greater than $1.5B$ ([O'Neill and Reese, 1999](#)):

$$q_p = 2.5 q_u \quad (8.110)$$

- If the rock below the base of the shaft to a depth of $2.0B$ is jointed, the joints have random orientation, and the condition of the joints can be evaluated as:

$$q_p = \left[\sqrt{s} + \sqrt{(m\sqrt{s} + s)} \right] q_u \quad (8.111)$$

where:

s, m = fractured rock mass parameters and are specified in [Table 8.9](#)

q_u = unconfined compressive strength of rock (MPa)

Resistance factors for this method have not been developed and must therefore be estimated by the designer.

- C If end bearing in the rock is to be relied upon, and wet construction methods are used, bottom cleanout procedures such as airlifts should be specified to ensure removal of loose material before concrete placement.
- C The use of Eq. [\(8.110\)](#) also requires that there are no solution cavities or voids below the base of the drilled shaft.
- C For further information see [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#).
- C Eq. [\(8.111\)](#) is a lower bound solution for bearing resistance for a drilled shaft bearing on or socketed in a fractured rock mass. This method is appropriate for rock with joints that are not necessarily oriented preferentially and the joints may be open, closed, or filled with weathered material. Load testing will likely indicate higher tip resistance than that calculated using Eq. [\(8.111\)](#). Resistance factors for this method have not been developed and must therefore be estimated by the designer.

d. Combined Side and Tip Resistance

Design methods that consider the difference in shaft movement required to mobilize skin friction in rock versus what is required to mobilize end bearing, such as the methodology provided by [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#), shall be used to estimate axial compressive resistance of shafts embedded in rock.

- C Typically, the axial compression load on a shaft socketed into rock is carried solely in shaft side resistance until a total shaft movement on the order of 10 mm occurs.
- C Designs which consider combined effects of side friction and end-bearing of a drilled shaft in rock require that side friction resistance and end bearing resistance be evaluated at a common value of

axial displacement, since maximum values of side friction and end-bearing are not generally mobilized at the same displacement.

- C Where combined side friction and end-bearing in rock is considered, the designer needs to evaluate whether a significant reduction in side resistance will occur after the peak side resistance is mobilized. As indicated in [Figure 8.46](#), when the rock is brittle in shear, much shaft resistance will be lost as vertical movement increases to the value required to develop the full value of q_p . If the rock is ductile in shear, i.e., deflection softening does not occur, then the side resistance and end-bearing resistance can be added together directly. If the rock is brittle, however, adding them directly may be unconservative. Load testing or laboratory shear strength testing, e.g., direct shear testing, may be used to evaluate whether the rock is brittle or ductile in shear.

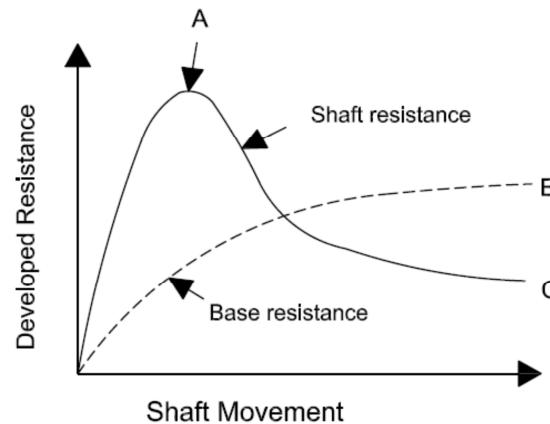


Figure 8.46: Deflection Softening Behavior of Drilled Shafts under Compression Loading (after O'Neill and Reese, 1999).

- C The method used to evaluate combined side friction and end-bearing at the strength limit state requires the construction of a load-vertical deformation curve. To accomplish this, calculate the total load acting at the head of the drilled shaft, Q_{T1} , and vertical movement, w_{T1} , when the nominal shaft side resistance (Point A on [Figure 8.46](#)) is mobilized. At this point, some end bearing is also mobilized. For detailed computational procedures for estimating shaft resistance in rock, considering the combination of side and tip resistance, see O'Neill and Reese (1999).

5. Estimation of Drilled Shaft Resistance in Intermediate Geo Materials (IGMs)

For detailed base and side resistance estimation procedures for shafts in IGMs, the procedures provided by O'Neill and Reese (1999) should be used.

- C See Article [8.8.2.2.3](#) for a definition of an IGM.
- C For convenience, since a common situation is to tip the shaft in a cohesionless IGM, the equation for tip resistance in a cohesionless IGM is provided in commentary on Article [8.8.3.5.2.c](#).

6. Shaft Load Test

When used, load tests shall be conducted in representative soil conditions using shafts constructed in a manner and of dimensions and materials similar to those planned for the production shafts. The load test shall follow the procedures specified in [ASTM D 1143](#). The loading procedure should follow the Quick Load Test Method, unless detailed longer-term load-settlement data is needed, in which case the standard loading procedure should be used.

The nominal resistance shall be determined according to the failure definition of either:

- “plunging” of the drilled shaft¹, or
- a gross settlement or uplift of five percent of the diameter of the shaft if plunging does not occur.

The resistance factors for axial compressive resistance or axial uplift resistance shall be taken as specified in [Table 8.18](#).

Regarding the use of shaft load test data to determine shaft resistance, the load test results should be applied to production shafts that are not load tested by matching the static resistance prediction to the load test results. The calibrated static analysis method should then be applied to adjacent locations within the site to determine the shaft tip elevation required, in consideration of variations in the geologic stratigraphy and design properties at each production shaft location. The definition of a site and number of load tests required to account for site variability shall be as specified in Article [8.5.5.2.3](#).

- C For a larger project where many shafts are to be used, it may be cost-effective to perform a full-scale load test on a drilled shaft during the design phase of a project to confirm response to load.
- C Load tests should be conducted following prescribed written procedures that have been developed from accepted standards and modified, as appropriate, for the conditions at the site. The Quick Test Procedure is desirable because it avoids problems that frequently arise when performing a static test that cannot be started and completed within an eight-hour period. Tests that extend over a longer period are difficult to perform due to the limited number of experienced personnel that are usually available. The Quick Test has proven to be easily performed in the field, and the results usually are satisfactory. However, if the formation in which the shaft is installed may be subject to significant creep settlement, alternative procedures provided in [ASTM D 1143](#) should be considered.
- C Load tests are conducted on full-scale drilled shaft foundations to provide data regarding nominal axial resistance, load-displacement response, and shaft performance under the design loads, and to permit assessment of the validity of the design assumptions for the soil conditions at the test shaft(s).
- C Tests can be conducted for compression, uplift, lateral loading, or for combinations of loading. Full-scale load tests in the field provide data that include the effects of soil, rock, and groundwater conditions at the site; the dimensions of the shaft; and the procedures used to construct the shaft.
- C The results of full-scale load tests can differ even for apparently similar ground conditions. Therefore, care should be exercised in generalizing and extrapolating the test results to other locations.
- C For large diameter shafts, where conventional reaction frames become unmanageably large, load testing using [Osterberg load cells](#) may be considered. Additional discussion regarding load tests is provided in [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#). Alternatively, smaller diameter shafts may be load tested to represent the larger diameter shafts (but no less than one-half the full scale production shaft diameter), provided that appropriate measures are taken to account for potential scale effects when extrapolating the results to the full scale production shafts.

8.8.3.6. Shaft Group Resistance

1. General

Reduction in resistance from group effects shall be evaluated.

- C In addition to the overlap effects discussed below, drilling of a hole for a shaft less than three shaft diameters from an existing shaft reduces the effective stresses against both the side and base of the existing shaft. As a result, the capacities of individual drilled shafts within a group tend to be less than the corresponding capacities of isolated shafts.
- C If casing is advanced in front of the excavation heading, this reduction need not be made.

2. Cohesive Soil

The provisions of Article [8.7.3.9](#) shall apply.

¹ Plunging occurs when a steady increase in movement results from incrementally small increases in load, e.g., 1×10^4 N.

The resistance factor for the group resistance of an equivalent pier or block failure provided in [Table 8.18](#) shall apply where the cap is, or is not, in contact with the ground.

The resistance factors for the group resistance calculated using the sum of the individual drilled shaft resistances are the same as those for the single-drilled shaft resistances.

- C The efficiency of groups of drilled shafts in cohesive soil may be less than that of the individual shaft due to the overlapping zones of shear deformation in the soil surrounding the shafts.

3. Cohesionless Soil

Due to overlap of shear zones in the soil between adjacent shafts and loosening of the soil during construction, the bearing resistance of drilled shaft groups in sand is less than the sum of the individual shafts.

Regardless of cap contact with the ground, the individual nominal resistance of each shaft should be reduced by a factor η for an isolated shaft taken as:

- $\eta = 0.65$ for a center-to-center spacing of 2.5 diameters,
- $\eta = 1.0$ for a center-to-center spacing of 4.0 diameters or more.

For intermediate spacings, the value of η may be determined by linear interpolation.

- C The bearing resistance of drilled shaft groups in sand is less than the sum of the individual shafts due to overlap of shear zones in the soil between adjacent shafts and loosening of the soil during construction. The recommended reduction factors are based in part on theoretical considerations and on limited load test results. See [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#) for additional details and a summary of group load test results.
- C It should be noted that most of the available group load test results were obtained for sands above the water table and for relatively small groups, e.g., groups of 3 to 9 shafts. For larger shaft groups, or for shaft groups of any size below the water table, more conservative values of η should be considered.

4. Shaft Groups in Strong Soil Overlying

Weak Soil For shaft groups that are collectively tipped within a strong soil layer overlying a soft, cohesive layer, block bearing resistance shall be evaluated in accordance with Article [8.7.3.9](#).

8.8.3.7. Uplift Resistance

1. General

Uplift resistance shall be evaluated when upward loads act on the drilled shafts. Drilled shafts subjected to uplift forces shall be investigated for resistance to pullout, for their structural strength, and for the strength of their connection to supported components.

2. Uplift Resistance of Single Drilled Shaft

The uplift resistance of a single straight-sided drilled shaft should be estimated in a manner similar to that for determining side resistance for drilled shafts in compression, as specified in Article [8.8.3.3](#).

In determining the uplift resistance of a belled shaft, the side resistance above the bell should conservatively be neglected if the resistance of the bell is considered, and it can be assumed that the bell behaves as an anchor.

The factored nominal uplift resistance of a belled drilled shaft in a cohesive soil, R_R , in N, should be determined as:

$$R_R = \phi R_n = \phi_{up} R_{s\ bell} \quad (8.112)$$

in which:

$$R_{s\ bell} = q_{s\ bell} A_u \quad (8.113)$$

where:

$$q_{s\ bell} = N_u S_u \text{ (MPa)}$$

$$A_u = \pi(D_p^2 - D^2)/4 \text{ (mm}^2\text{)}$$

$$N_u = \text{uplift adhesion factor (dim.)}$$

$$D_p = \text{diameter of the bell (mm)}$$

$$D_b = \text{depth of embedment in the founding layer (mm)}$$

$$D = \text{shaft diameter (mm)}$$

$$S_u = \text{undrained shear strength averaged over a distance of 2.0 bell diameters (2}D_p\text{) above the base (MPa)}$$

$$\phi_{up} = \text{resistance factor specified in Table 8.18}$$

If the soil above the founding stratum is expansive, S_u should be averaged over the lesser of either $2.0D_p$ above the bottom of the base or over the depth of penetration of the drilled shaft in the founding stratum.

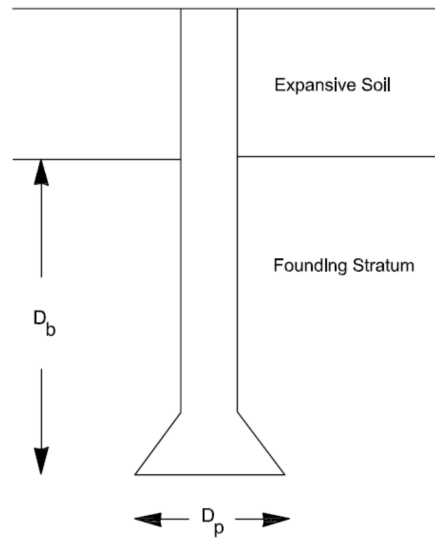


Figure 8.47: Uplift of a Belled Drilled Shaft.

The value of N_u may be assumed to vary linearly from 0.0 at $D_b/D_p = 0.75$ to a value of 8.0 at $D_b/D_p = 2.5$, where D_b is the depth below the founding stratum. The top of the founding stratum should be taken at the base of zone of seasonal moisture change.

- C The resistance factors for uplift are lower than those for axial compression. One reason for this is that drilled shafts in tension unload the soil, thus reducing the overburden effective stress and hence the

uplift side resistance of the drilled shaft. Empirical justification for uplift resistance factors is provided in commentary to Article 8.5.5.2.3, and in Allen (2005).

- C The assumed variation of N_u is based on Yazdanbod et al. (1987).
- C This method does not include the uplift resistance contribution due to soil suction and the weight of the shaft.

3. Group Uplift Resistance

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.11 shall apply.

4. Uplift Load Test

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.10 shall apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.3.10).

8.8.3.8. Nominal Horizontal Resistance of Shaft and Shaft Groups

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.12 apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.3.12).

The design of horizontally loaded drilled shafts shall account for the effects of interaction between the shaft and ground, including the number of shafts in the group.

For shafts used in groups, the drilled shaft head shall be fixed into the cap.

8.8.3.9. Shaft Structural Resistance

1. General

The structural design of drilled shafts shall be in accordance with the provisions of Section 5 for the design of reinforced concrete.

2. Buckling and Lateral Stability

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.13.3 shall apply (See commentary to Article 8.7.3.13.3).

3. Reinforcement

Where the potential for lateral loading is insignificant, drilled shafts may be reinforced for axial loads only. Those portions of drilled shafts that are not supported laterally shall be designed as reinforced concrete columns in accordance with Article 5.7.4. Reinforcing steel shall extend a minimum of 3000 mm below the plane where the soil provides fixity.

Where the potential for lateral loading is significant, the unsupported portion of the shaft shall be designed in accordance with Articles 5.15 and 5.17.4.6.

The minimum spacing between longitudinal bars, as well as between transverse bars or spirals, shall be sufficient to allow free passage of the concrete through the cage and into the annulus between the cage and the borehole wall.

- C Shafts constructed using generally accepted procedures are not normally stressed to levels such that the allowable concrete stress is exceeded. Exceptions include:
 - Shafts with sockets in hard rock,
 - Shafts subjected to lateral loads,
 - Shafts subjected to uplift loads from expansive soils or direct application of uplift loads,
 - Shafts with unreinforced bells.
- C Maintenance of the spacing of reinforcement and the maximum aggregate size requirements are important to ensure that the high-slump concrete mixes normally used for drilled shafts can flow

readily between the steel bars during concrete placement. See Article [5.17.4.3.2](#) for specifications regarding the minimum clear spacing required between reinforcing cage bars.

- C A shaft can be considered laterally supported:
- below the zone of liquefaction or seismic loads,
 - in rock, or
 - 1500 mm below the ground surface or the lowest anticipated scour elevation.
- C Laterally supported does not mean fixed. Fixity would occur somewhat below this location and depends on the stiffness of the supporting soil
- C The out-to-out dimension of the assembled reinforcing cage should be sufficiently smaller than the diameter of the drilled hole to ensure free flow of concrete around the reinforcing as the concrete is placed. See Article [5.17.4](#).

The minimum requirements to consider the steel shell to be load carrying shall be as specified in [5.17.4.5.2](#).

- C See commentary to Article [8.7.5](#) regarding assessment of corrosivity. In addition, consideration should be given to the ability of the concrete and steel shell to bond together.

4. Transverse Reinforcement

Transverse reinforcement may be constructed as hoops of spiral steel.

Seismic provisions shall be in accordance with Article [5.17.4.6](#).

5. Concrete

The maximum aggregate size, slump, wet or dry placement, and necessary design strength should be considered when specifying shaft concrete. The concrete selected should be capable of being placed and adequately consolidated for the anticipated construction condition, and shaft details should be specified. The maximum size aggregate shall meet the requirements of Article [8.8.3.9.3](#).

- C When concrete is placed in shafts, vibration is often not possible except for the uppermost cross-section. Vibration should not be used for high slump concrete.

6. Reinforcement into Cap

Sufficient reinforcement shall be provided at the junction of the shaft with the shaft cap or column to make a suitable connection. The embedment of the reinforcement into the cap shall comply with the provision for cast-in-place piles in [Section 5](#).

7. Enlarged Bases

Enlarged bases shall be designed to ensure that the plain concrete is not overstressed. The enlarged base shall slope at a side angle not greater than 30° from the vertical and have a bottom diameter not greater than three times the diameter of the shaft. The thickness of the bottom edge of the enlarged base shall not be less than 150 mm.

8.8.4. Extreme Event Limit State

The provisions of Article [8.5.5.3](#) and [8.7.4](#) shall apply (See commentary to Article [8.5.5.3](#) and [8.7.4](#)).

8.9. MICROPILES

8.9.1. General

C Micropiles should be considered:

- Where footings cannot be founded on rock, stiff cohesive, or granular foundation material at a reasonable expense;
- At locations where soil conditions would normally permit the use of spread footings, but the potential for erosion exists;
- At locations where pile foundations must penetrate rock;
- At locations where difficult subsurface conditions (ex., cobbles, boulders, debris fill, running sands) would hinder installation of driven piles or drilled shafts;
- At locations where difficult access or limited headroom preclude use of other deep foundation systems;
- At locations where foundations must bridge over or penetrate subsurface voids;
- Where vibration limits preclude conventional pile driving operations or access by drilled shaft rigs; or
- When underpinning or retrofitting existing foundations.

C A typical detail for a composite reinforced micropile is illustrated in [Figure 8.48](#).

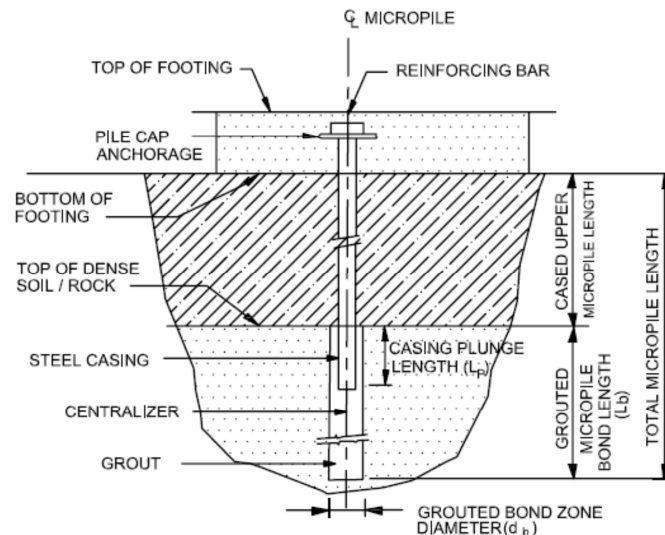


Figure 8.48: Typical Detail of Composite Reinforced Micropile

The provisions of Article [8.7.1](#) shall apply, except as noted herein.

Micropiles shall be classified by type based on their method of installation as follows:

- Type A micropiles are constructed by placing a sand-cement mortar or neat cement grout in the pile under a gravity head only;
- Type B micropiles are constructed by injecting a neat cement grout under pressure (typically 0.28 to 1 MPa) into the drilled hole while the temporary drill casing or auger is withdrawn;

- Type C micropiles are grouted as for Type A, followed 15 to 25 minutes after primary grouting by injection of additional grout under pressure (typically greater than 1 MPa) via a preplaced sleeved grout pipe.
- Type D micropiles are grouted similar to Type C, but the primary grout is allowed to harden before injecting the secondary grout under pressure (typically 2 to 8.15 MPa) with a packer to achieve treatment of specific pile intervals or material horizons; or
- Type E micropiles are constructed by drilling with grout injection through a continuous-thread, hollow-core steel bar. The grout injection serves to flush cuttings, achieve grout penetration into the ground and stabilize the drill hole. Often the initial grout has a high water to cement ratio and is then replaced with a thicker structural grout near the completion of drilling.

Primary grout, where it provides direct load transfer along the micropile to the surrounding ground, shall be Portland cement-based grout injected into the micropile hole before or after reinforcement installation.

Post grouting, also known as re-grouting or secondary grouting shall be taken as the injection of additional Portland cement grout into the bond length of the micropile after set up of primary grout to enhance the grout-ground bond.

8.9.1.1. Scope

The provisions of this section shall apply to the design of micropiles.

The provisions of this section shall not be taken as applicable to drilled piles, e.g., augercast piles, installed with continuous flight augers that are concreted as the auger is being extracted.

8.9.1.2. Minimum Micropile Spacing, Clearance, and Embedment into Cap

Center-to-center pile spacing should not be less than 760 mm. or 3.0 pile diameters, whichever is greater. Otherwise, the provisions of Article [8.7.1.2](#) shall apply.

8.9.1.3. Micropiles through Embankments Fill

Micropiles extending through embankments shall penetrate a minimum of 3000 mm. into original ground, unless the required nominal axial and lateral resistance occurs at a lesser penetration below the embankment within bedrock or other suitable support materials.

- C If compressible soils are located beneath the embankment, micropiles should be installed after embankment settlement is complete, if possible. To minimize or eliminate downdrag forces.

8.9.1.4. Battered Micropiles

The provision of article [8.7.1.4](#) shall apply (see commentary in Article [8.7.1.4](#)).

8.9.1.5. Micropile Design Requirements

Micropile design shall address the following issues as appropriate:

- Nominal axial resistance to be specified in the contract and size of micropile group required to provide adequate support, with consideration of how nominal axial micropile resistance will be determined in the field;
- Pile quantity estimation from estimated pile penetration required to meet nominal axial resistance and other design requirements;

- Minimum pile penetration necessary to satisfy the requirements caused by uplift, scour, downdrag, settlement, liquefaction, lateral loads, and seismic conditions;
- Foundation deflection to meet the established movement and associated structure performance criteria;
- Long-term durability of the micropile in service, i.e. corrosion and deterioration.

C The micropile design process is discussed in detail in Micropile Design and Construction (Sabatini, et al., 2005).

8.9.1.6. Determination of Micropile Load

The provisions of Articles 8.7.1.6 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.1.6).

1. Downdrag

The provisions of Articles 8.7.1.6.2 and 3.10.8 shall apply (see commentary in Articles 8.7.1.6.2 and 3.10.8).

2. Uplift due to Expansive Soil

The provisions of Article 8.7.1.6.3 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.1.6.3).

3. Nearby Structures

The provisions of Article 8.7.1.6.4 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.1.6.4).

8.9.2. Service Limit State Design

8.9.2.1. General

The provisions of Article 8.7.2.1 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.2.1).

8.9.2.2. Tolerable Movement

The provisions of Articles 8.5.2.1 and 8.5.2.2 shall apply (see commentary in Articles 8.5.2.1 and 8.5.2.2).

8.9.2.3. Settlement

The provisions of Article 8.7.2.3 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.2.3). Methods of calculating settlement of micropiles are discussed in Sabatini et al. (2005).

1. Micropile Groups in Cohesive Soil

The provision of Article 8.7.2.3.1 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.2.3.1).

2. Micropile Groups in Cohesionless Soil

The provision of Article 8.7.2.3.2 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.2.3.2).

8.9.2.4. Horizontal Micropile Foundation Movement

The provisions of Articles 8.5.2.1 and 8.5.2.4 shall apply (see commentary in Articles 8.5.2.1 and 8.5.2.4).

8.9.2.5. Settlement Due to Downdrag

The provisions of Article 8.7.2.5 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.2.5).

8.9.2.6. Lateral Squeeze

The provisions of Article 8.7.2.6 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.2.6).

8.9.3. Strength Limit State Design

8.9.3.1. General

For strength limit state design, the following shall be determined:

- Micropile dimensions and nominal axial micropile resistance;
 - Size and configuration of the micropile group to provide adequate foundation support;
 - Estimated micropile length to be used in the construction contract documents to provide a basis for bidding;
 - A minimum micropile penetration, if required, for the particular site conditions and loading, determined based on the maximum (deepest) penetration needed to meet all of the applicable requirements identified in Article 8.7.6;
 - The nominal structural resistance of the micropile and/or micropile group.
- C A minimum micropile penetration should only be specified if needed to insure that uplift, lateral stability, depth to resist downdrag, depth to resist scour, and depth for structural lateral resistance are met for the strength limit state, in addition to similar requirements for the service and extreme event limit states.
- C Punching of micropiles through strong soil into a weaker layer is not likely for micropiles designed for a resistance by bond transfer only.

8.9.3.2. Ground Water Table and Bouyancy

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.5 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.3.5).

8.9.3.3. Scour

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.6 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.3.6).

8.9.3.4. Downdrag

The provisions of Article 8.7.3.7 shall apply (see commentary in Article 8.7.3.7).

8.9.3.5. Nominal Axial Compression Resistance of a Single Micropile

1. General

Micropiles shall be designed to resist failure of the bonded length in soil and rock, or for micropiles bearing on rock. failure of the rock at the microvile tip.

- C Micropiles are tmically designed based on bond into soil and rock neglecting tip resistance due to their relatively small diameter and high grout-to-ground bond resistance. Tip resistance may be considered for micropiles bearing on hard rock although the axial capacity for this case is often controlled by the structural resistance of the micropile.

The factored resistance of a micropile, R_R , shall be taken as:

$$R_R = \phi R_n = \phi_{qp} R_p = \phi_{qs} R_s \quad (8.114)$$

in which:

$$R_p = q_p A_p \quad (8.115)$$

$$R_s = q_s A_s \quad (8.116)$$

where:

R_p = nominal tip resistance (N)

R_s = nominal grout-to-ground bond resistance (N)

ϕ_{qp} = resistance factor for tip resistance specified in [Table 8.19](#)

ϕ_{qs} = resistance factor for grout-to-ground bond resistance specified in [Table 8.19](#)

- C Both the tip and bond resistances develop in response to foundation displacement. The maximum values of each are unlikely to occur at the same displacement. The bond resistance is typically fully mobilized at displacements of about 2.5 to 10 mm. The tip capacity, however, is mobilized after the micropile settles about six percent of its diameter.
- C The methods for estimating micropile axial resistance provided in this article should be used. Micropile strength limit state resistance methods not specifically addressed in this Article for which adequate successful regional or national experience is available may be used, provided adequate information and experience is also available to develop appropriate resistance factors.

For final design, micropile resistance shall be verified through the performance of micropile load tests as described in [8.9.3.5.4](#). The resistance factors for micropiles shall be taken as specified in [Table 8.19](#).

2. Estimation of Grout-to-Ground Bond Resistance

The nominal grout-to-ground bond resistance over the bonded length of a micropile, R_s in (N) shall be taken as:

$$R_s = \pi d_b \alpha_b L_b \quad (8.117)$$

where:

d_b = diameter of micropile drill hole through bonded length (mm)

α_b = nominal micropile grout-to-ground bond strength (taken as the average value over the entire bond length). (MPa)

L_b = micropile bonded length (mm)

- C The value of nominal unit grout-to-ground bond strength. either estimated empirically or determined through load testing. is typically taken as the average value over the entire bond length.
- C Micropile grout-to-ground bond strength is influenced by soil and rock conditions, method of micropile drilling and installation, and grouting pressure. The final micropile geotechnical design should be performed by a specialty contractor qualified to perform micropile design and construction. As a guide, [Table 8.31](#) may be used to estimate the nominal (ultimate) unit grout-to-ground bond strength for Types A, B, C, D, and E micropiles bonded into soil and/or rock for preliminary design.
- C For preliminary design, the grout-to-ground bond resistance of micropiles may be based on the results of micropile load tests; estimated based on a review of geologic and boring data, soil and rock samples, laboratory testing, and previous experience; or estimated using published soil/rock-grout bond guidelines.

For final design, micropile capacity shall be verified through the performance of micropile load tests as described in [8.9.3.5.4](#).

Table 8.31: Summary of Typical α_b Values (Grout-to-Ground Bond) for Preliminary Micropile Design (modified after *Sabatini, et al., 2005*).

Soil/Rock Description	Typical Range of Grout-to-Ground Bond Nominal Resistance for Micropile Types ⁽¹⁾ (MPa $\times 10^{-3}$)				
	Type A	Type B	Type C	Type D	Type E
Silt & Clay (some sand) (soft medium plastic)	33-67	33-95	33-119	33-140	33-95
Silt & Clay (some sand) (stiff, dense to very dense)	33-120	67-190	95-190	95-190	67-190
Sand (some silt) Fine, loose-medium dense)	67-140	67-190	95-190	95-238	67-240
Sand (some silt gravel) (fine-coarse, medium-very dense)	95-215	119-360	140-360	140-380	119-360
Gravel (some sand) (medium-very dense)	95-260	119-360	140-360	140-380	119-360
Glacial Till (silt, sand, gravel) (medium-very dense, cemented)	95-190	95-310	119-310	119-335	95-310
Soft Shales (fresh-moderate fracturing, little to no weathering)	206-551	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Slates and Hard Shales (fresh- moderate fracturing, little to no weathering)	517- 1379	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Limestone (fresh-moderate fracturing, little to no weathering)	1034- 2068	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Sandstone (fresh-moderate fracturing, little to no weathering)	517- 1724	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Granite and Basalt (fresh-moderate fracturing, little to no weathering)	1379- 4200	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

⁽¹⁾Refer to Article [8.9.1](#) for description of micropile types.

3. Estimation of Micro pile Tip Resistance in Rock

The methods used for design of micropiles bearing on rock shall consider the presence, orientation, and condition of discontinuities, weathering profiles, and other similar profiles as they apply at a particular site. The designer shall judge the competency of a rock mass in accordance with the provisions of Article [8.4.6.4](#).

For micropiles founded on competent rock, tip resistance may be estimated in accordance with the provisions of Article [8.8.3.5.4.c](#).

- C Micropiles are generally designed based on bond into rock rather than tip resistance. Tip resistance is generally considered only for micropiles bearing on competent rock.
- C For micropiles founded on competent rock, the rock is usually so sound that the structural capacity will govern the design.
- C Weak rock includes some shales and mudstones or poor-quality weathered rocks. The term "weak" has no generally accepted, quantitative definition; therefore, judgment and experience are required to make this determination.

4. Micropile Load Test

The load test shall follow the procedures specified in [ASTM D 1143](#) for compression and [ASTM D 3689](#) for tension. The loading procedure should follow the Quick Load Test Method, unless detailed longer-term load-settlement data is needed, in which case the standard loading procedure should be used. Unless specified otherwise by the Engineer, the pile axial resistance shall be determined from the test data using the Davisson Method as presented in Article [8.7.3.8.2](#).

The number of load tests required to account for site variability shall be as specified in Article [8.5.5.2.2](#). The number of test micropiles required should be increased in non uniform subsurface conditions.

In addition, proof tests loaded to the required factored load shall be performed on one pile per substructure unit or five percent of the piles; whichever is greater, unless specified otherwise by the Engineer.

The resistance factors for axial compressive resistance or axial uplift resistance shall be taken as specified in [Table 8.19](#).

- C See commentary in Article [8.8.3.5.6](#).
- C Load Tests on micropiles are performed to determine micropile installation characteristics, evaluate micropile capacity with depth, and establish micropile bond lengths.
- C During the performance of ASTM tests, the Contractor may perform several load cycles on the test micropile for diagnostic purposes.
- C Test micropiles may not be required where previous experience exists with the same micropile type and ultimate micropile capacity in similar subsurface conditions. However, load tests can differ even for apparently similar ground conditions. Therefore, care should be exercised in generalizing and extrapolating the test results to other locations.
- C Test micropiles are frequently planned for each substructure.
- C With approval of the Engineer, the number of load tests and proof tests can be reduced based on:
 - Previous micropile load tests in similar ground using similar methods, or
 - Site-specific tests showing much higher than required factored resistance or consistent proof test.

8.9.3.6. Resistance of Micropile Groups in Compression

Reduction in resistance from group effects shall be evaluated in accordance with the provisions of Article [8.7.3.9](#).

- C See commentary in Article [8.7.3.9](#).

8.9.3.7. Nominal Uplift Resistance of a Single Micropile

Uplift resistance shall be evaluated when upward loads act on the micropiles. Micropiles subjected to uplift forces shall be investigated for resistance - to pullout, for their structural strength, and for the strength of their connection to supported components.

- C Resistance factors in Article [8.5.5.2.5](#) assume a tension load test is performed. In the event that tension load tests are not performed, the resistance factor for presumptive values may be used or the tension resistance estimated as 50 percent of the compression resistance.

8.9.3.8. Nominal Uplift Resistance of Micropile Groups

The provisions of Articles [8.7.3.11](#) shall apply.

- C Group uplift resistance in rock should consider the depth of soil overburden, rock discontinuity spacing and condition, and rock mass shear strength, as well as bond between micropiles and rock.

8.9.3.9. Nominal Horizontal Resistance of Micropiles and Micropile Groups

The provisions of Article [8.7.3.12](#) shall apply (see commentary in Article [8.7.3.12](#)).

The design of horizontally loaded micropiles shall account for the effects of interaction between the micropiles and ground, including the number and spacing of micropiles in the group.

For micropiles used in groups, the micropile head shall be embedded into the cap and the degree of fixity shall be considered in the design.

8.9.3.10. Structural Resistance

1. General

The structural design of micropiles shall be in accordance with the provisions of [Section 5](#) for the design of reinforced concrete and [Section 6](#) for the design of steel.

The cased and uncased length of each micropile shall be designed to resist the forces distributed to the micropile based on the micropile inclination and spacing.

The design of micropiles supporting axial compression load only requires an allowance for unintended eccentricity. This has been accounted for by use of the equations in Article [5.7.4.4](#) for reinforced concrete columns that already contain an eccentricity allowance.

The resistance factors for structural design shall be as specified in [Table 8.20](#).

- C Articles [5.7.4](#), [5.7.6](#), [5.17.4](#), and [6.15](#) provide specific provisions applicable to design of concrete and steel micropiles.
- C The design of micropiles supporting axial compression load only requires an allowance for unintended eccentricity. This has been accounted for by use of the equations in Article [5.7.4.4](#) for reinforced concrete columns that already contain an eccentricity allowance.

2. Axial Compressive Resistance

For micropiles extending through a weak upper soil layer, extending above ground, subject to scour, extending through mines/caves, or extending through soil that may liquefy, the effect of any laterally unsupported length shall be considered in the determination of axial compression resistance.

The factored structural resistance of a micropile to axial compression loading, R_C , in N may be taken as:

$$R_C = \phi_C R_n \quad (8.118)$$

where:

ϕ_C = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.20](#) for structural resistance of micropiles in axial compression

R_n = nominal axial compression resistance of micropile specified in Articles [8.9.3.10.2.a](#) and [8.9.3.10.2.b](#) (N)

a. Cased Length

The factored structural resistance of the upper cased length of a micropile having no unsupported length and loaded in compression, R_{CC} , in N may be taken as:

$$R_C = \phi_{CC} R_n \quad (8.119)$$

for which:

$$R_C = 0.85[0.85f'_c A_g + f_y(A_b + A_c)] \quad (8.120)$$

where:

ϕ_{CC} = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.20](#) for structural resistance of the cased section of a micropile subjected to compression loading

f'_c = specified compressive strength of micropile grout at 28 days unless another age is specified (MPa)

- A_g = cross-sectional area of grout within micropile (mm^2)
 f_y = specified minimum yield strength of reinforcement bar or steel casing, or stress in steel reinforcement bar or casing at a strain of 0.003. whichever is less (MPa)
 A_b = cross-sectional area of steel reinforcing bar (mm^2)
 A_c = cross-sectional area of steel casing (mm^2)

- C The design compressive stress in the steel is limited to the stress at which the strain equals 0.003 to maintain compatibility with the strain in the grout.

b. Uncased Length

The factored structural resistance of the lower, uncased length of a micropile having no unsupported length and loaded in compression, R_{CU} , in kips may be taken as:

$$R_{CU} = \phi_{CU} R_n \quad (8.121)$$

for which:

$$R_C = 0.85[0.85f'_c A_g + f_y A_b] \quad (8.122)$$

where:

- ϕ_{CU} = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.20](#) for structural resistance of the uncased section of a micropile subjected to compression loading
 f'_c = specified compressive strength of micropile grout at 28 days unless another age is specified (MPa)
 A_g = cross-sectional area of grout within micropile (mm^2)
 f_y = specified minimum yield strength of reinforcement bar or stress in steel reinforcement bar at a strain of 0.003. whichever is less (MPa)
 A_b = cross-sectional area of steel reinforcing bar (mm^2)

3. Axial Tension Resistance

The upper cased section of a micropile subjected to tension loading shall be designed structurally to support the full factored load on the micropile. The lower uncased section of a micropile subjected to tension loading shall be designed structurally to support the maximum full factored load on the micropile less the load transferred to the surrounding ground from the cased portion of the micropile in the plunge length, as described in [Article 8.9.3.10.4](#).

The factored structural resistance of a micropile subjected to tension, R_T , may be taken as:

$$R_T = \phi_T R_n \quad (8.123)$$

where:

- ϕ_T = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.20](#) for structural resistance of a micropile subjected to tension loading (dim)
 R_n = nominal axial tension resistance of micropile specified in [Articles 8.9.3.10.3.a](#) and [8.9.3.10.3.b](#)

a. Cased Length

The factored structural resistance of the upper cased length of a micropile subjected to tension loading, R_{TC} , in N may be taken as:

$$R_{TC} = \phi_{TC} R_n \quad (8.124)$$

for which:

$$R_n = f_y (A_b + A_{ct}) \quad (8.125)$$

where:

- ϕ_{TC} = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.20](#) for structural resistance of the uncased section of a micropile subjected to tension loading (dim)
- f_y = specified minimum yield strength of reinforcement bar (MPa)
- A_b = cross-sectional area of steel reinforcing bar (mm^2)

b. Uncased length

The factored structured resistance of the lower uncased length of a micropile subjected to tension loading, R_{TU} , in N may be taken as:

$$R_{TU} = \phi_{TU} R_n \quad (8.126)$$

for which:

$$R_n = f_y A_b \quad (8.127)$$

where:

- ϕ_{TU} = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.20](#) for structural resistance of the uncased section of a micropile subjected to tension loading (dim)
- f_y = specified minimum yield strength of reinforcement bar (MPa)
- A_b = cross-sectional area of steel reinforcing bar mm^2

4. Plunge Length Transfer Load

The factored axial load transferred to the ground through the plunge length of the cased portion of a micropile, P_t in N, may be taken as:

$$P_t = \phi [\pi d_b \alpha_b L_b] \quad (8.128)$$

where:

- ϕ = resistance factor specified in [Table 8.19](#) for geotechnical bearing or uplift resistance, as appropriate, of a single micropile
- d_b = diameter of micropile drill hole through bonded length (mm)
- α_b = nominal micropile grout-to-ground bond strength (MPa)
- L_b = micropile casing plunge length (mm)

- C An optional procedure for construction of a composite reinforced micropile includes insertion of the pile casing into the top of the grouted bond zone to effect a transition between the upper cased portion to the lower uncased portion of a micropile. The length of casing inserted into the bond zone by the plunge length is shown in [Figure 8.48](#). As a result, a portion of the factored axial load on a micropile is transferred to the surrounding ground by the cased portion of the pile, reducing the load that must be supported by the weaker uncased portion of the pile. The reduction in load applied to the uncased length is termed the transfer load P_t .

If load transfer through the plunge length of the cased portion of a micropile is considered to reduce the load on the lower uncased portion of the micropile, the factored axial load on the uncased portion of the micropile in compression or tension, P_u , in N, may be taken as:

$$P_u = Q - P_t \quad (8.129)$$

in which:

$$Q = \sum \eta_i \gamma_i Q_i \quad (8.130)$$

where:

P_t = plunge length transfer load from Eq. [\(8.129\)](#) (N)

5. Grout-to-Steel Bond

Casing-to-grout bond shall be checked and reinforcement bar development length shall be checked in accordance with the provisions of [Section 5](#).

- C Grout-to-steel bond does not typically govern micropile design, except for overlap of reinforcing bars into upper casing.
- C The bond between the cement grout and the reinforcing steel is the mechanism for transfer of the pile load from the reinforcing steel to the ground. Typical ultimate bond values range from 1.0 to 1.7 MPa for smooth bars and pipe, and 2.0 to 3.5 MPa for deformed bars ([Armour, et al. 2000](#)). Refer to [Section 5](#) for bar development requirements.
- C As is the case with any reinforcement, the surface condition will affect the attainable bond. A film of rust may be beneficial, but the presence of loose debris or lubricant or paint is not desirable. Normal methods for the handling and storage of reinforcing bars apply to micropile construction. For the permanent casing that is also used to drill the hole, cleaning of the casing surface can occur during drilling, particularly in granular soils.

6. Buckling and Lateral Stability

The provisions of Article [8.7.3.13.3](#) shall apply.

7. Reinforcement into Superstructure

Sufficient reinforcement shall be provided at the junction of the micropile with the micropile footing or column to make a suitable connection. The embedment of the reinforcement into the cap shall comply with the provision for cast-in-place piles in [Section 5](#).

- C Refer to [Sabatini, et al. \(2005\)](#) for typical micropile to footing connection details

8.9.4. Extreme Event Limit State

The provisions of Articles [8.5.5.3](#) and [8.7.4](#) shall apply (see commentary of Articles [8.5.5.3](#) and [8.7.4](#)).

8.9.5. Corrosion and Deterioration

The provisions of Article [8.7.5](#) shall apply.

- C Corrosion protection methods and design presented in commentary of Article [8.7.5](#) apply to micropiles as well. In addition, other micropile specific design options including plastic encapsulation of central reinforcing bars is provided in [Sabatini \(2005\)](#).

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8.11. APPENDIX A8: SEISMIC ANALYSIS AND DESIGN OF FOUNDATIONS

8.11.1. Investigation

Slope instability, liquefaction, fill settlement, and increases in lateral earth pressure have often been major factors contributing to bridge damage in earthquakes. These earthquake hazards may be significant design factors for peak earthquake accelerations in excess of 0.1 g and should form part of a site-specific investigation if the site conditions and the associated acceleration levels and design concepts suggest that such hazards may be of importance. Because liquefaction has contributed to many bridge failures, methods for evaluating site liquefaction potential are described in more detail below.

Liquefaction Potential: Liquefaction of saturated foundation soils has been a major source of bridge failures during historic earthquakes. For example, during the 1964 Alaska earthquake, nine bridges suffered complete collapse, and 26 suffered severe deformation or partial collapse. Investigations indicated that liquefaction of foundation soils contributed to much of the damage, with loss of foundation support leading to major displacements of abutments and piers. A study of seismically-induced liquefaction and its influence on bridges has been completed by Ferritto and Forest (1977) in a report to the Federal Highway Administration. A brief review of seismic design considerations for bridge foundations related to site liquefaction potential is given in Martin (1979). From the foundation failure documented in these reports and in the literature in general, it is clear that the design of bridge foundations in soils susceptible to liquefaction poses difficult problems. Where possible, the best design measure is to avoid deep, loose to medium-dense sand sites where liquefaction risks are high. Where dense or more competent soils are found at shallow depths, stabilization measures such as densification may be economical. The use of long ductile vertical steel piles to support bridge piers could also be considered. Calculations for lateral resistance should assume zero support from the upper zone of potential liquefaction, and the question of axial buckling would need to be addressed. Overall abutment stability would also require careful evaluation, and it may be preferable to use longer spans and to anchor abutments well back from the end of approach fills.

An additional design philosophy of bridges in liquefaction-susceptible areas might be one of "calculated risk," at least for those bridges regarded as being less essential for communication purposes immediately after an earthquake. It may not be economically justifiable to design some bridges to survive a large earthquake without significant damage in a liquefaction environment. However, it may be possible to optimize a design so that the cost of repair of potential earthquake damage to those bridges does not exceed the cost of remedial measures and additional construction needed to avoid the damage. The approaches for determining the liquefaction potential at a site are outlined below.

A recent review of methodologies (Seed, 1979) identifies two basic approaches for evaluating the cyclic liquefaction potential of a deposit of saturated sand subjected to earthquake shaking:

1. Empirical methods based on field observations of the performance of sand deposits in previous earthquakes and correlations between sites that have not liquefied and Relative Density of Standard Penetration Test (SPT) blow counts.
2. Analytical methods based on the laboratory determination of the liquefaction strength characteristics of undisturbed samples and on the use of dynamic site

response analysis to determine the magnitude of earthquake-inducing shearing stresses.

Both empirical and analytical methods require the level of ground acceleration at a site to be defined as a prerequisite for assessing liquefaction potential. This is often established from relationships between earthquake magnitude, distance from the epicenter, and peak acceleration.

For conventional evaluations using a "total stress" approach, the two methods are similar and differ only in the manner in which the field liquefaction strength is determined. In the "total stress" approach, liquefaction strengths are normally expressed as the ratio of an equivalent uniform or average cyclic shearing stress, $(\tau_h)_{av}$, acting on horizontal surfaces of the sand to the initial vertical effective stress σ'_o . As a first approximation, the cyclic stress ratio, developed in the field because of earthquake ground shaking, may be computed from an equation (Seed and Idriss, 1971), namely:

$$\frac{(\tau_h)}{\sigma'_o} = 0.65r_d \left(\frac{a_{max}}{g} \right) \left(\frac{\sigma_o}{\sigma'_o} \right) \quad (A8.1)$$

where:

- a_{max} = maximum or effective peak ground acceleration at the ground surface (m/sec²)
- σ_o = total overburden pressure on sand layer under consideration (MPa)
- σ'_o = initial effective overburden pressure on sand layer under consideration (MPa)
- r_d = stress reduction factor varying from a value of 1 at the ground surface to 0.9 at a depth of 9 m

Empirical Methods - Values of the cyclic stress ratio defined by Eq. (A8.2) have been correlated for sites that have and have not liquefied, with parameters such as relative density based on SPT Data (Seed et al., 1975; Castro, 1975). The latest form of this type of correlation (Seed) is expressed in Figure A8.1 and Figure A8.2. N_1 is the measured standard penetration resistance of the sand corrected to an effective overburden pressure of 0.096 MPa using the relationship:

$$N_1 = NC_N \quad (A8.2)$$

where:

- N = measured penetration resistance (blows/300 mm)
- C_N = correction factor from Figure A8.2.

Thus, for a given site and a given maximum ground surface acceleration, the average stress ratio developed during the earthquake, $(\tau_h)_{av}/\sigma'_o$ at which liquefaction may be expected to occur is expressed by the empirical correlations shown by Figure A8.1. The correlations for different magnitudes reflect the influence of earthquake duration on liquefaction potential. The factor of safety against liquefaction can be determined by comparing the stress ratio required to cause liquefaction with that induced by the design earthquake. It is suggested that a factor of safety of 1.5 is

desirable to establish a reasonable margin of safety against liquefaction in the case of important bridge sites.

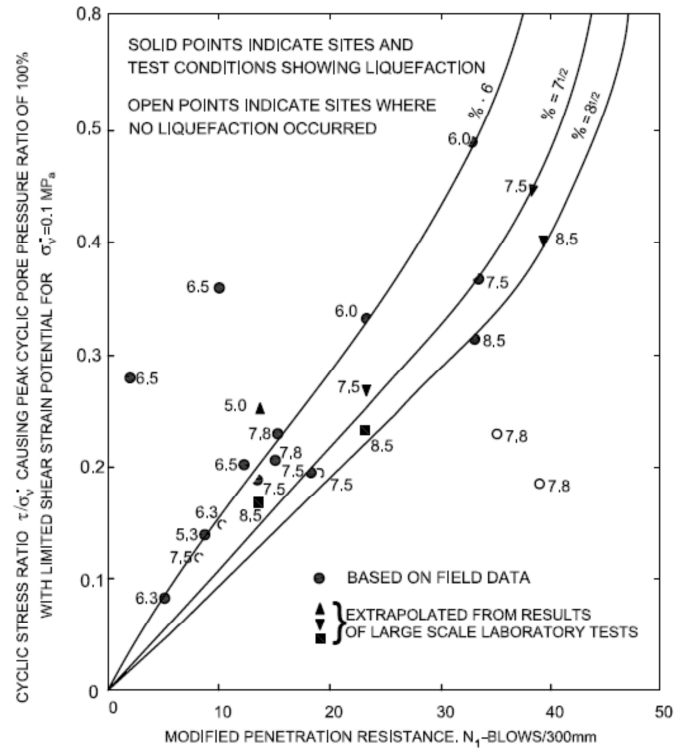


Figure A8.1: Correlation between Field Liquefaction Behavior and Penetration Resistance.

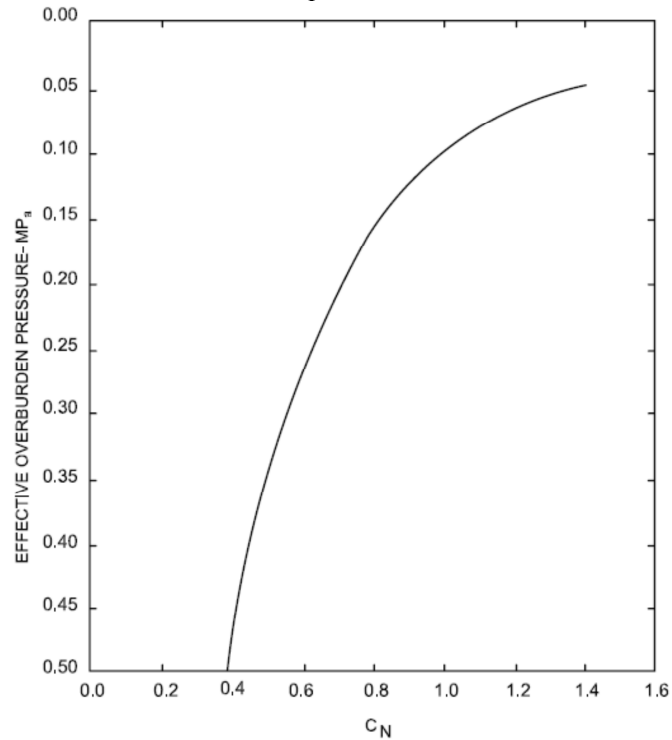


Figure A8.2: Relationship between C_N and Effective Overburden Pressure.

A further extension of the empirical approach has recently been described by [Dezfulian and Prager \(1978\)](#), where a correlation between cone penetrometer tests (*CPT*) and standard penetration tests (*SPT*) has enabled *CPT* measurements in sands (expressed as point resistance q_c) to be used as a measure of liquefaction potential. *CPT* have the advantage of being more economical than *SPT*, and because they can provide a continuous record of penetration resistance with depth, potentially liquefiable thin seams of sands can be identified more readily.

Although penetration tests have the clear advantage of being a field-owned liquefaction evaluation procedure, it must always be remembered that the empirical correlation has been established from a very limited database restricted to sites comprising primarily deposits of fine silty sand. The correlation may break down for sandy silts and gravelly soils (where blow count data are difficult to interpret) and for coarser sands where partial drainage of excess pore pressures may occur during an earthquake. Furthermore, for situations where additional stresses are imposed by construction operations, care is needed in interpreting the correlation.

Analytical Methods - The analytical approach for evaluating liquefaction potential is based on a comparison between field liquefaction strengths established from cyclic laboratory tests on undisturbed samples and earthquake induced shearing stresses. In this approach, it must be recognized that the development of a field liquefaction strength curve from laboratory tests results requires data adjustment to account for factors such as correct cyclic stress simulation, sample disturbance, aging effects, field cyclic stress history, and the magnitude of in-situ lateral stresses. These adjustments require a considerable degree of engineering judgment. Also, in many cases it is impossible to obtain undisturbed sand samples.

Once a liquefaction strength curve has been established, if a total stress analysis is used, liquefaction potential is evaluated from comparisons with estimated earthquake-induced shear stresses as shown in [Figure A8.3](#). The earthquake-induced shear stress levels may be established from a simplified procedure ([Seed and Idriss, 1971](#)) or from more sophisticated assessments using one-dimensional "equivalent linear" dynamic response programs such as SHAKE. Average stress levels are established using the equivalent-number-of-cycles concept (approximately 10 for M7 and 30 for M8.5 earthquakes). More recently, nonlinear programs have been introduced for response calculations.

An improved representation of the progressive development of liquefaction is provided by the use of an effective stress approach ([Finn et al 1978, 1977; Martin and Seed, 1979](#)), where pore water pressure increases are coupled to nonlinear dynamic response solutions, and the influence of potential pore water pressure dissipation during an earthquake is taken into account. This approach provides data on the time history of pore water pressure increases during an earthquake, as shown in [Figure A8.4](#).

It is of interest to note that a rough indication of the potential for liquefaction may be obtained by making use of empirical correlations established between earthquake magnitude and the epicentral distance to the most distant field manifestations of liquefaction. Such a relationship has been described by [Youd and Perkins \(1977\)](#) ([Figure A8.5](#)) and has been used as a basis for preparation of liquefaction-induced ground failure susceptibility maps.

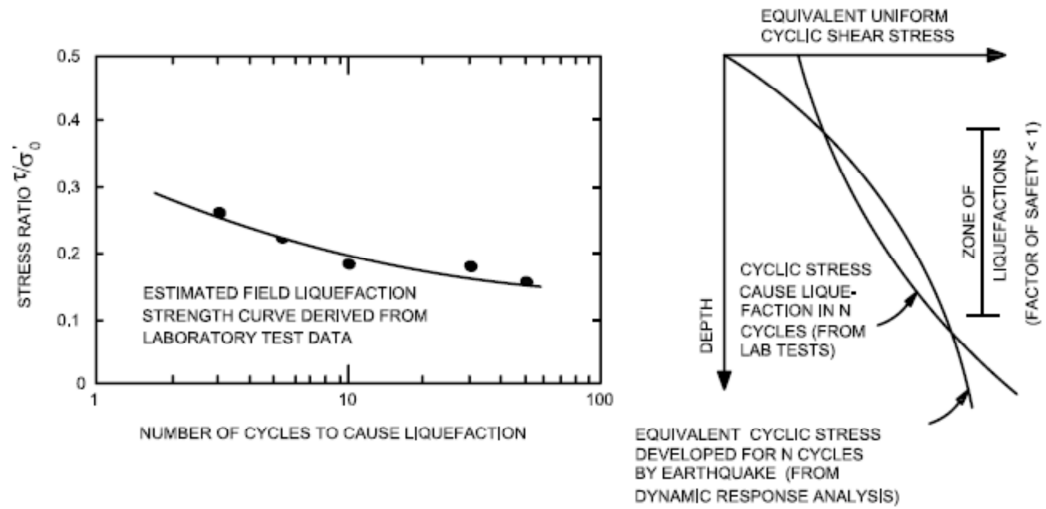


Figure A8.3: Principles of Analytical Approach (Total Stress) to Liquefaction Potential Evaluation.

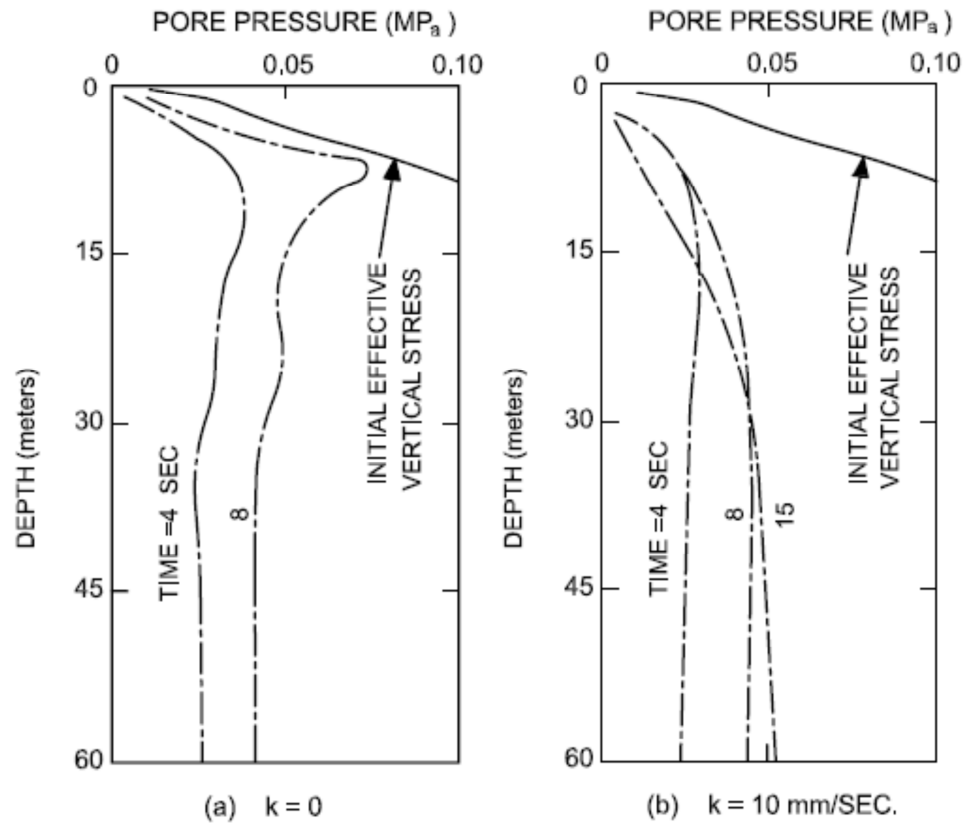


Figure A8.4: Effective Stress Approach to Liquefaction Evaluation Showing Effect of Permeability after Finn et al. (1977).

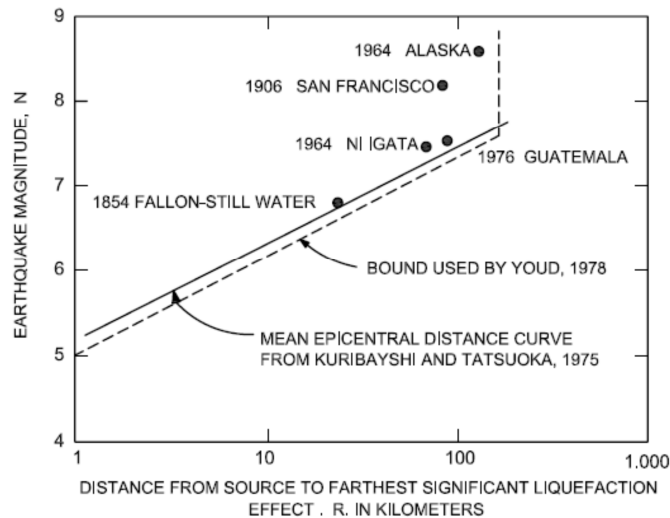


Figure A8.5: Maximum Distance to Significant Liquefaction as a Function of Earthquake Magnitude.

8.11.2. Foundation Design

The commonly accepted practice for the seismic design of foundations is to utilize a pseudo-static approach, where earthquake-induced foundation loads are determined from the reaction forces and moments necessary for structural equilibrium. Although traditional bearing capacity design approaches are also applied, with appropriate capacity reduction factors if a margin of safety against "failure" is desired, a number of factors associated with the dynamic nature of earthquake loading should always be borne in mind.

Under cyclic loading at earthquake frequencies, the strength capable of being mobilized by many soils is greater than the static strength. For unsaturated cohesion less soils, the increase may be about ten percent, whereas for cohesive soils, a 50 percent increase could occur. However, for softer saturated clays and saturated sands, the potential for strength and stiffness degradation under repeated cycles of loading must also be recognized. For bridges classified as Zone B, the use of static soil strengths for evaluating ultimate foundation capacity provides a small implicit measure of safety and, in most cases, strength and stiffness degradation under repeated loading will not be a problem because of the smaller magnitudes of seismic events. However, for bridges classified as Zones C and D, some attention should be given to the potential for stiffness and strength degradation of site soils when evaluating ultimate foundation capacity for seismic design.

As earthquake loading is transient in nature, "failure" of soil for a short time during a cycle of loading may not be significant of perhaps greater concern is the magnitude of the cyclic foundation displacement or rotation associated with soil yield, as this could have a significant influence on structural displacements or bending moments and shear distributions in columns and other members.

As foundation compliance influences the distribution of forces or moments in a structure and affects computation of the natural period, equivalent stiffness factors for foundation systems are often required. In many cases, use is made of various analytical solutions that are available for footings or piles where it is assumed that soil behaves in

an elastic medium. In using these formulae, it should be recognized that equivalent elastic moduli for soils are a function of strain amplitude, and for seismic loads modulus values could be significantly less than those could appropriate for low levels of seismic loading. Variation of shear modulus with shearing strain amplitude in the case of sands is shown in [Figure A8.6](#).

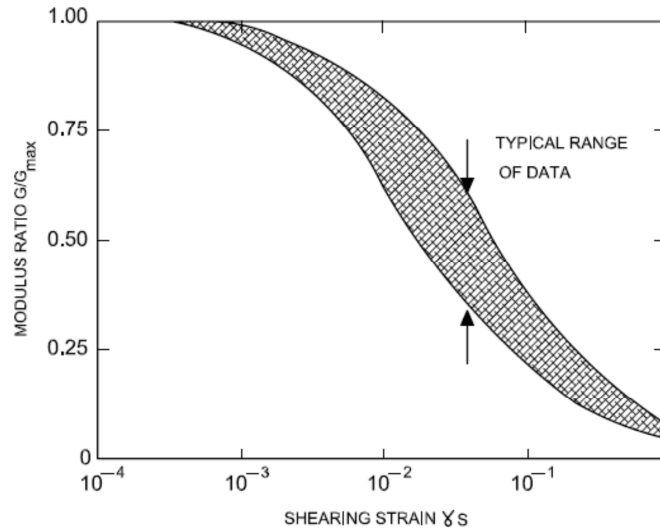


Figure A8.6: Variation of Shear Modulus with Shearing Strain for Sands.

On the basis of field and experimental observations, it is becoming more widely recognized that transient foundation uplift or rocking during earthquake loading, resulting in separation of the foundation from the subsoil, is acceptable provided that appropriate design precautions are taken ([Taylor and Williams, 1979](#)). Experimental studies suggest that rotational yielding beneath rocking foundation can provide a useful form of energy dissipation. However, care must be taken to avoid significant induced vertical deformations accompanying possible soil yield during earthquake rocking as well as excessive pier movement. These could lead to design difficulties with relative displacements.

Lateral Loading of Piles - Most of the well-known solutions for computing the lateral stiffness of vertical piles are based on the assumption of elastic behavior and utilize equivalent cantilever beam concepts ([Davisson and Gill, 1960](#)), the beam on an elastic Inkler foundation method ([Matlock and Reese, 1960](#)), or elastic continuum solutions ([Poulos, 1971](#)). However, the use of methods incorporating nonlinear subgrade reaction behavior that allows for soil failure may be important for high lateral loading of piles in soft clay and sand. Such a procedure is encompassed in the American Petroleum Institute (API) recommendations for offshore platform design. The method utilizes nonlinear sub grade reaction or P - y curves for sands and clays that have been developed experimentally from field loading tests.

The general features of the API analysis in the case of sands are illustrated in [Figure A8.7](#) under large loads, a passive failure zone develops near the pile head. Test data indicate that the ultimate resistance, p_u , for lateral loading is reached for pile deflections, y_u , of about $3d/80$, where d is the pile diameter. Note that most of the lateral resistance is mobilized over a depth of about $5d$. The API method also recognizes degradation in lateral resistance with cyclic loading, although in the case of saturated sands, the degradation postulated does not reflect pore water pressure

increases. The degradation in lateral resistance due to earthquake-induced, free-field pore water pressure increases in saturated sands has been described by **Finn and Martin (1979)**. A numerical method that allows the use of API P - y curves to compute pile stiffness characteristics forms the basis of the computer program BMCOL 76 described by **Bogard and Matlock (1977)**.

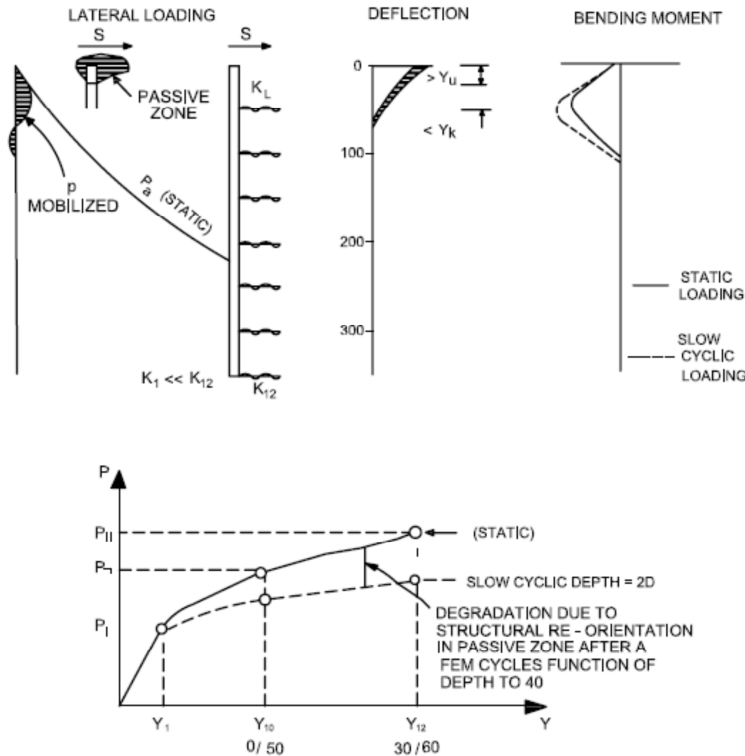


Figure A8.7: Lateral Loading of Piles in Sand Using API Criteria.

The influence of group action on pile stiffness is a somewhat controversial subject. Solutions based on elastic theory can be misleading where yield near the pile head occurs. Experimental evidence tends to suggest that group action is not significant for pile spacing greater than $4d$ to $6d$.

For batter pile systems, the computation of lateral pile stiffness is complicated by the stiffness of the piles in axial compression and tension. It is also important to recognize that bending deformations in batter pile groups may generate high reaction forces on the pile cap.

It should be noted that although battered piles are economically attractive for resisting horizontal loads, such piles are very rigid in the lateral direction if arranged so that only axial loads are induced. Hence, large relative lateral displacements of the more flexible surrounding soil may occur during the free-field earthquake response of the site (particularly if large changes in soil stiffness occur over the pile length), and these relative displacements may in turn induce high pile bending moments. For this reason, more flexible vertical pipe systems where lateral load is resisted by bending near the pile heads are recommended. However, such pile systems must be designed to be ductile because large lateral displacements may be necessary to resist the lateral load. A compromise design using battered piles spaced some distance apart may

provide a system that has the benefits of limited flexibility and the economy of axial load resistance to lateral load.

Soil-Pile Interaction - The use of pile stiffness characteristics to determine earthquake-induced pile bending moments based on a pseudo-static approach assumes that moments are induced only by lateral loads arising from inertial effects on the bridge structure. However, it must be remembered that the inertial loads are generated by interaction of the free-field earthquake ground motion with the piles and that the free-field displacements themselves can influence bending moments. This is illustrated in an idealized manner in [Figure A8.8](#). The free-field earthquake displacement time histories provide input into the lateral resistance interface elements, which in turn transfer motion to the pile. Near the pile heads, bending moments will be dominated by the lateral interaction loads generated by inertial effects on the bridge structure. At greater depth (e.g., greater than $10d$), where soil stiffness progressively increases with respect to pile stiffness, the pile will be constrained to deform in a manner similar to that of the free field, and pile bending moments become a function of the curvatures induced by free-field displacements.

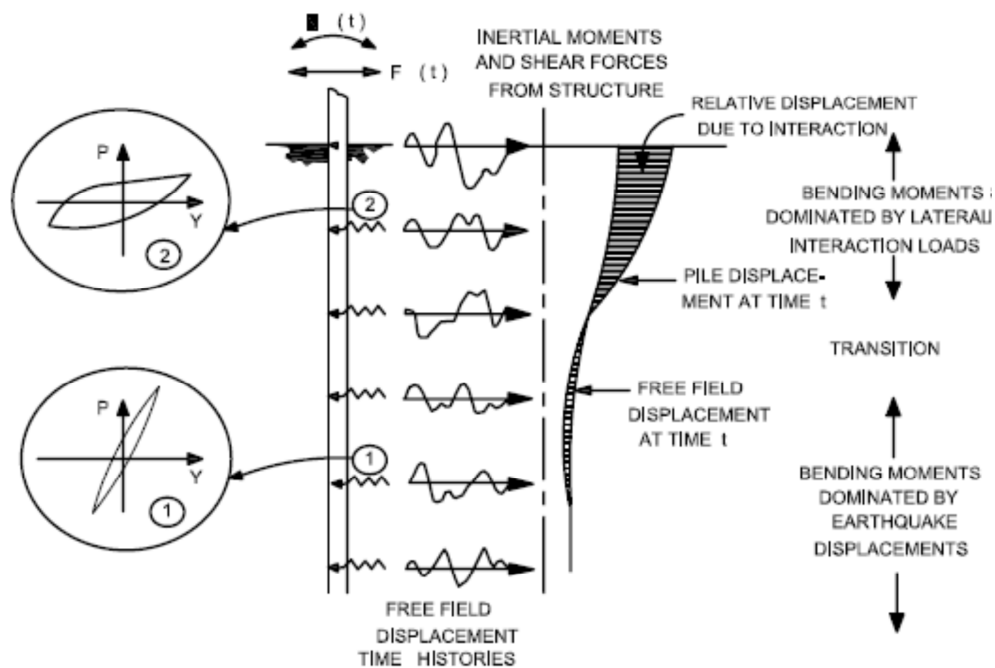


Figure A8.8: Mechanism of Soil-Pile Interaction during Seismic Loading.

To illustrate the nature of free-field displacements, reference is made to [Figure A8.9](#), which represents a 61 m. deep cohesion less soil profile subjected to the E1 Centro earthquake. The free-field response was determined using a nonlinear, one-dimensional response analysis. From the displacement profiles shown at specific times, curvatures can be computed and pile bending moments calculated if it is assumed that the pile is constrained to displace in phase with the free-field response.

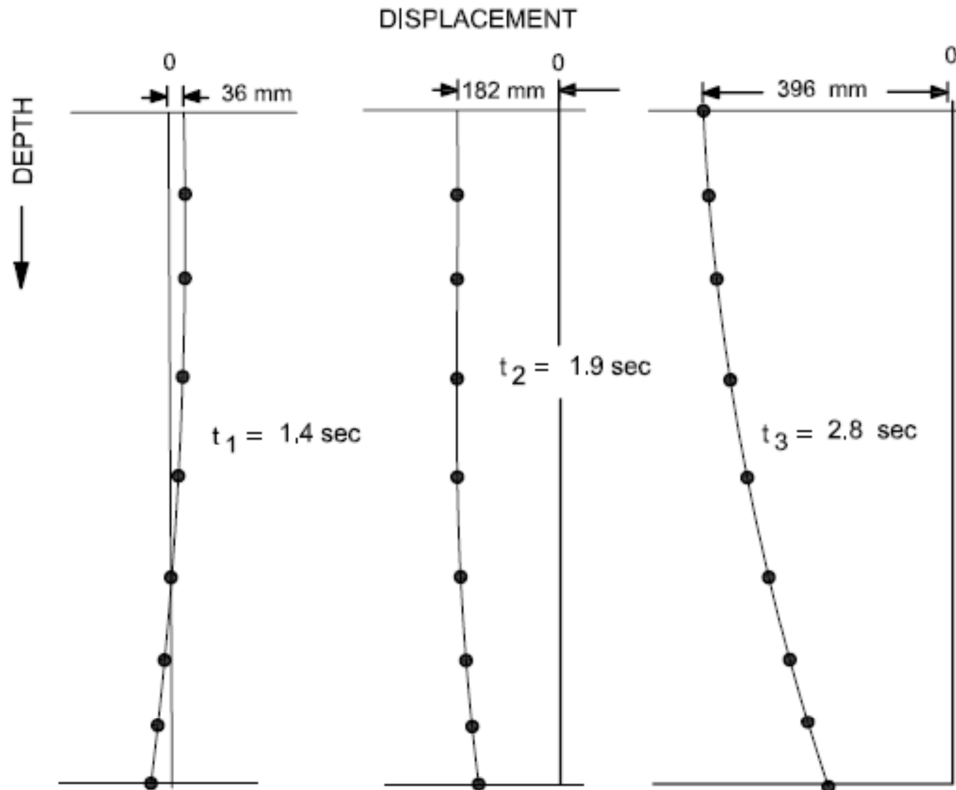


Figure A8.9: Typical Earthquake Displacement Profiles.

Large curvatures could develop at interfaces between soft and rigid soils and, clearly, in such cases emphasis should be placed on using flexible ductile piles. Margason (1979) suggests that curvatures of up to $2.36 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mm}^{-1}$ could be induced by strong earthquakes, but these should pose no problem to well-designed steel or prestressed concrete piles.

Studies incorporating the complete soil-pile structure interaction system, as presented in Figure A8.8, have been described by Penzien (1970) for a bridge piling system in a deep soft clay. A similar but somewhat simpler soil-pile structure interaction system (SPASM) to that used by Penzien has been described by Matlock et al. (1978). The model used is, in effect, a dynamic version of the previously mentioned BMCOL program.

8.11.3. Special Pile Requirements

The uncertainties of ground and bridge response characteristics lead to the desirability of providing tolerant pile and foundation systems. Toughness under induced curvature and shears is required, and hence piles such as steel H-sections and concrete filled steel-cased piles are favored for highly seismic areas. Unreinforced concrete piles are brittle in nature, so nominal longitudinal reinforcing is specified to reduce this hazard. The reinforcing steel should be extended into the footing to tie elements together and to assist in load transfer from the pile to the pile cap.

Experience has shown that reinforced concrete piles tend to hinge or shatter immediately below the pile cap.

Hence, tie spacing is reduced in this area so that the concrete is better confined. Driven precast piles should be constructed with considerable spiral confining steel to ensure good shear strength and tolerance of yield curvatures should these be imparted by the soil or structural response. Clearly, it is desirable to ensure that piles do not fail below ground level and that flexural yielding in the columns is forced to occur above ground level. The additional pile design requirements imposed on piles for bridges classified as Zones C and D, for which earthquake loading is more severe, reflect a design philosophy aimed at minimizing below-ground damage that is not easily inspected following a major earthquake.

8.12. APPENDIX B8: COMMENTARY ON ARTICLE 8.5.5.2.3

Where nominal pile axial resistance is determined during pile driving by dynamic analysis, dynamic formulae, or static load test, the uncertainty in the pile axial resistance is strictly due to the reliability of the resistance determination method used in the field during pile installation.

In most cases, the nominal bearing resistance of each pile is field-verified using a dynamic method (see Articles 8.7.3.8.2, 8.7.3.8.3, 8.7.3.8.4 or 8.7.3.8.5).

The actual penetration depth where the pile is stopped using the results of the dynamic analysis will likely not be the same as the estimated depth from the static analysis. Hence, the reliability of the pile bearing resistance is dependent on the reliability of the method used to verify the bearing resistance during pile installation (see Allen, 2005, for additional discussion on this issue). Once the number of piles with a given nominal resistance needed to resist the factored loads is determined, the estimated depth of pile penetration to obtain the desired resistance is determined using the resistance factor for the static analysis method, equating the factored static analysis resistance to the factored dynamic analysis resistance (see commentary on Article 8.7.3.3).

Dynamic methods may be unsuitable for field verification of nominal axial resistance of soft silts or clays where a large amount of setup is anticipated and it is not feasible to obtain dynamic measurement of pile restrikes over a sufficient length of time to assess soil setup. Dynamic methods may not be applicable for determination of axial resistance when driving piles to rock (see Article 8.7.3.2).

The resistance factors in Table I were developed using either statistical analysis of pile load tests combined with reliability theory (Paikowsky, et al., 2004), fitting to allowable stress design (ASD), or both. Where the two approaches resulted in a significantly different resistance factor, engineering judgment was used to establish the final resistance factor, considering the quality and quantity of the available data used in the calibration. See Allen (2005) for a more detailed explanation on the development of the resistance factors for pile foundation design.

For all axial resistance calculation methods, the resistance factors were, in general, developed from load test results obtained on piles with diameters of 600 mm or less. Very little data were available for larger diameter piles. Therefore, these resistance factors should be used with caution for design of significantly larger diameter piles.

Where driving criteria are established based on a static load test, the potential for site variability should be considered. The number of load tests required should be established based on the characterization of site subsurface conditions by the field and laboratory exploration and testing program. One or more static load tests should be performed per site to justify using the resistance factors in Table 8.15 for piles installed within the site.

Table 8.15 and Table 8.16 identify resistance factors to be used and numbers of tests needed depending on whether the site variability is classified as low, medium, or high. Site variability may be determined based on judgment, or based on the following suggested criteria (Paikowsky et al., 2004):

- Step 1: For each identified significant stratum at each boring location, determine the average property value, e.g., *SPT* value, q_c value, etc., within the stratum for each boring.
- Step 2: Determine the mean and coefficient of variation of the average values for each stratum determined in Step 1.
- Step 3: Categorize the site variability as low if the COV is less than 25 percent, medium if the COV is 25 percent or more, but less than 40 percent, and high if the COV is 40 percent or more.

See [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#) for additional discussion regarding these site variability criteria.

The dynamic testing with signal matching should be evenly distributed within a pier and across the entire structure in order to justify the use of the specified resistance factors. However, within a particular footing an increase in safety is realized where the most heavily loaded piles are tested. The number of production piles tested using dynamic measurements with signal matching should be determined in consideration of the site variability to justify the use of the specified resistance factors.

See Articles [8.7.3.8.2](#), [8.7.3.8.3](#) and [8.7.3.8.4](#) for additional guidance regarding pile load testing, dynamic testing and signal matching, and wave equation analysis, respectively, as they apply to the resistance factors provided in [Table 8.14](#).

The dynamic pile formulae, i.e., FHWA modified Gates and Engineering News Record, identified in Table I require the pile hammer energy as an input parameter. The delivered hammer energy should be used for this purpose, defined as the product of actual stroke developed during the driving of the pile (or equivalent stroke as determined from the bounce chamber pressure for double acting hammers) and the hammer ram weight.

The resistance factors provided in [Table 8.14](#) are specifically applicable to the dynamic pile formula as provided in Article [8.7.3.8.5](#). Note that for the Engineering News Record (ENR) formula, the built-in safety factor of 6 has been removed so that it predicts nominal resistance. Therefore, the resistance factor shown in [Table 8.14](#) for ENR should not be applied to the traditional "allowable stress" form of the equation.

The resistance factors for the dynamic pile formulas, i.e., FHWA modified Gates and ENR, in [Table 8.14](#) have been specifically developed for end of driving (EOD) conditions. Since pile load test data, which include the effects of soil setup or relaxation (for the database used, primarily soil setup), were used to develop the resistance factors for these formulas, the resistance factors reflect soil setup occurring after the blow count is measured and the nominal pile resistance calculated from the formulas. At beginning of redrive (BOR) the blow count obtained already includes the soil setup. Therefore, a lower resistance factor for the driving formulas should be used for BOR conditions than the ones shown in [Table 8.14](#) for EOD conditions. In general, dynamic testing should be conducted to verify nominal pile resistance at BOR in lieu of the use of driving formulas.

[Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#) indicate that the resistance factors for static pile resistance analysis methods can vary significantly for different pile types. The resistance factors presented are average values for the method. See [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#) and [Allen \(2005\)](#) for additional information regarding this issue.

The resistance factor for the Nordlund/Thurman method was derived primarily using the [Peck et al. \(1974\)](#) correlation between $SPT M_{60}$ and the soil friction angle, using a maximum design soil friction angle of 36° , assuming the contributing zone for the end bearing resistance is from the tip to two pile diameters below the tip.

For the clay static pile analysis methods, if the soil cohesion was not measured in the laboratory, the correlation between $SPT N$ and S_u by [Hara et al. \(1974\)](#) was used for the calibration. Use of other methods to estimate S_u may require the development of resistance factors based on those methods.

For the statistical calibrations using reliability theory, a target reliability index, β , of 2.3 (an approximate probability of failure of 1 in 100) was used. The selection of this target reliability assumes a significant amount of redundancy in the foundation system is present, which is typical for pile groups containing at least five piles in the group ([Paikowsky et al., 2004](#)). For smaller groups and single piles, less redundancy will be present. The issue of redundancy, or the lack of it, is addressed in Article [1.3.4](#) through the use of λ_R . The values for λ_R provided in that Article have been developed in general for the superstructure, and no specific guidance on the application of λ_R to foundations is provided. [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#) indicate that a target reliability, β , of 3.0 or more, i.e., an approximate probability of failure of 1 in 1000 or less, is more appropriate for these smaller pile groups that lack redundancy. The λ_R factor values recommended in Article 1.3.4 are not adequate to address the difference in redundancy, based on the results provided by [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#). Therefore, the resistance factors specified in [Table 8.14](#) should be reduced to account for reduced redundancy.

The resistance factors provided for uplift of single piles are generally less than the resistance factors for axial skin friction under compressive loading. This is consistent with past practice that recognizes the skin friction in uplift is generally less than the skin friction under compressive loading, and is also consistent with the statistical calibrations performed in [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#). Since the reduction in uplift resistance that occurs in tension relative to the skin friction in compression is taken into account through the resistance factor, the calculation of skin friction resistance using a static pile resistance analysis method should not be reduced from what is calculated from the methods provided in Article [8.7.3.8.6](#).

If a pile load test(s) is used to determine the uplift resistance of single piles, consideration should be given to how the pile load test results will be applied to all of the production piles. For uplift, the number of pile load tests required to justify a specific resistance factor are the same as that required for determining compression resistance. Therefore, [Table 8.15](#) should be used to determine the resistance factor that is applicable. Extrapolating the pile load test results to other untested piles as specified in Article [8.7.3.10](#) does create some uncertainty, since there is not a way to directly verify that the desired uplift resistance has been obtained for each production pile. This uncertainty has not been quantified. Therefore, it is recommended that a resistance factor of not greater than 0.60 be used if an uplift load test is conducted.

Regarding pile drivability analysis, the only source of load is from the pile driving hammer. Therefore, the load factors provided in [Section 3](#) do not apply. In past practice, e.g., AASHTO (2002), no load factors were applied to the stresses imparted to the pile top by the pile hammer. Therefore, a load factor of 1.0 should be used for this type of analysis. Generally, either a wave equation analysis or dynamic testing, or both, are used to determine the stresses in the pile resulting from hammer impact forces. Intuitively, the stresses measured during driving using dynamic testing should be more accurate than the stresses estimated using the wave equation analysis without dynamic

testing. However, a statistical analysis and calibration using reliability theory has not been conducted as yet, and a recommendation cannot be provided to differentiate between these two methods regarding the load factor to be applied. See Article [8.7.8](#) for the specific calculation of the pile structural resistance available for analysis of pile drivability. The structural resistance available during driving determined as specified in Article [8.7.8](#) considers the ability of the pile to handle the transient stresses resulting from hammer impact, considering variations in the materials, pile/hammer misalignment, and variations in the pile straightness and uniformity of the pile head impact surface.

8.13. APPENDIX C8: COMMENTARY ON ARTICLE 8.5.5.2.4

The resistance factors in [Table 8.18](#) were developed using either statistical analysis of shaft load tests combined with reliability theory (Paikowsky et al., 2004), fitting to allowable stress design (ASD), or both. Where the two approaches resulted in a significantly different resistance factor, engineering judgment was used to establish the final resistance factor, considering the quality and quantity of the available data used in the calibration. The available reliability theory calibrations were conducted for the Reese and O'Neill (1988) method, with the exception of shafts in intermediate geomaterials (IGMs), in which case the O'Neill and Reese (1999) method was used. In Article [8.8](#), the O'Neill and Reese (1999) method is recommended. See Allen (2005) for a more detailed explanation on the development of the resistance factors for shaft foundation design, and the implications of the differences in these two shaft design methods on the selection of resistance factors.

For the statistical calibrations using reliability theory, a target reliability index, β , of 3.0, an approximate probability of failure of 1 in 1,000, was used. The selection of this target reliability assumes a small amount of redundancy in the foundation system is present, which is typical for shaft groups containing at least two to four shafts in the group (Paikowsky et al., 2004). For single shafts, less redundancy will be present. The issue of redundancy, or the lack of it, is addressed in Article [1.3.4](#) through the use of η_R . The values for η_R provided in that Article have been developed in general for the superstructure, and no specific guidance on the application of η_R to foundations is provided. The η_R factor values recommended in Article [1.3.4](#) are not adequate to address the difference in foundation redundancy, based on the results provided by Paikowsky et al. (2004) and others (see also Allen, 2005). Therefore, the resistance factors specified in [Table 8.18](#) should be reduced to account for the reduced redundancy.

For shaft groups of five or more, greater redundancy than what has been assumed for the development of the shaft resistance factors provided in [Table 8.18](#) is present. For these larger shaft groups, the resistance factors provided for shafts in [Table 8.18](#) may be increased by up to 20 percent to achieve a reliability index of 2.3.

Where installation criteria are established based on a static load test, the potential for site variability should be considered. The number of load tests required should be established based on the characterization of site subsurface conditions by the field and laboratory exploration and testing program. One or more static load tests should be performed per site to justify using the resistance factor in [Table 8.16](#) for drilled shafts installed within the site.

[Table 8.16](#) and [Table 8.17](#) identify resistance factors to be used and numbers of tests needed depending on whether the site variability is classified as low, medium, or high. Site variability may be determined based on judgment, or based on the following suggested criteria (Paikowsky et al., 2004):

- Step 1: For each identified significant stratum at each boring location, determine the average property value, e.g., SPT value, q_c value, etc., within the stratum for each boring.
- Step 2: Determine the mean and coefficient of variation of the average values for each stratum determined in Step 1.

Step 3: Categorize the site variability as low if the COV is less than 25 percent, medium if the COV is 25 percent or more, but less than 40 percent, and high if the COV is 40 percent or more.

See [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#) for additional discussion regarding these site variability criteria.

For the specific case of shafts in clay, the resistance factor recommended by [Paikowsky et al. \(2004\)](#) is much lower than the recommendation from [Barker et al. \(1991\)](#). Since the shaft design method for clay is nearly the same for both the 1988 and 1999 methods, a resistance factor that represents the average of the two resistance factor recommendations is provided in [Table 8.18](#). This difference may point to the differences in local geologic formations and local construction practices, pointing to the importance of taking such issues into consideration when selecting resistance factors, especially for shafts in clay.

IGM's are materials that are transitional between soil and rock in terms of their strength and compressibility, such as residual soils, glacial tills, or very weak rock. See commentary on Article [8.8.2.2.3](#) for a more detailed definition of an IGM.

Since the mobilization of shaft base resistance is less certain than side resistance due to the greater deformation required to mobilize the base resistance, a lower resistance factor relative to the side resistance is provided for the base resistance in [Table 8.18](#). [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#) make further comment that the recommended resistance factor for tip resistance in sand is applicable for conditions of high quality control on the properties of drilling slurries and base cleanout procedures. If high quality control procedures are not used, the resistance factor for the [O'Neill and Reese \(1999\)](#) method for tip resistance in sand should be also be reduced. The amount of reduction should be based on engineering judgment.

Shaft compression load test data should be extrapolated to production shafts that are not load tested as specified in Article [8.8.3.5.6](#). There is no way to verify shaft resistance for the untested production shafts, other than through good construction inspection and visual observation of the soil or rock encountered in each shaft. Because of this, extrapolation of the shaft load test results to the untested production shafts may introduce some uncertainty. Hence, a reduction of the resistance factor used for design relative to the values provided in [Table 8.16](#) may be warranted. Statistical data are not available to quantify this at this time. A resistance factor somewhere between the resistance factors specified for the static analysis method in [Table 8.15](#) and the load test resistance factors specified in [Table 8.16](#) should be used. Historically, resistance factors higher than 0.70, or their equivalent safety factor in previous practice, have not been used. Therefore, it is recommended that [Table 8.16](#) be used, but that the resistance factor not be greater than 0.70.

This issue of uncertainty in how the load test are applied to shafts not load tested is even more acute for shafts subjected to uplift load tests, as failure in uplift can be more abrupt than failure in compression. Hence, a resistance factor of 0.60 for the use of uplift load test results is recommended.

SECTION 9. ABUTMENTS, PIERS AND WALLS

9.1. SCOPE

This Section provides requirements for design of abutments and walls. Conventional retaining walls, non-gravity cantilevered walls, anchored walls, mechanically stabilized earth (MSE) walls, and prefabricated modular walls are considered.

9.2. DEFINITIONS

- Abutment* : A structure that supports the end of a bridge span, and provides lateral support for fill material on which the roadway rests immediately adjacent to the bridge. In practice, different types of abutments may be used. These include:
- Stub Abutment* : Stub abutments are located at or near the top of approach fills, with a backwall depth sufficient to accommodate the structure depth and bearings which sit on the bearing seat.
- Partial-Depth Abutment* : Partial-depth abutments are located approximately at middepth of the front slope of the approach embankment. The higher backwall and wingwalls may retain fill material, or the embankment slope may continue behind the backwall. In the latter case, a structural approach slab or end span design must bridge the space over the fill slope, and curtain walls are provided to close off the open area. Inspection access should be provided for this situation.
- Full-Depth Abutment* : Full-depth abutments are located at the approximate front toe of the approach embankment, restricting the opening under the structure.
- Integral Abutment* : Integral abutments are rigidly attached to the superstructure and are supported on a spread or deep foundations capable of permitting necessary horizontal movements.
- Anchored Wall* : An earth retaining system typically composed of the same elements as non-gravity cantilevered walls, and that derive additional lateral resistance from one or more tiers of anchors.
- Mechanically Stabilized Earth Wall* : A soil-retaining system, employing either strip or grid-type, metallic, or polymeric tensile reinforcements in the soil mass, and a facing element that is either vertical or nearly vertical.

- Non-gravity Cantilever Wall* : A soil-retaining system that derives lateral resistance through embedment of vertical wall elements and supports retained soil with facing elements. Vertical wall elements may consist of discrete elements, e.g., piles, drilled shafts or auger-cast piles spanned by a structural facing, e.g., lagging, panels or shotcrete. Alternatively, the vertical wall elements and facing may be continuous, e.g., sheet piles, diaphragm wall panels, tangent-piles, or tangent drilled shafts.
- Pier* : That part of a bridge structure that provides intermediate support to the superstructure. Different types of piers may be used. These include:
- Solid Wall Piers* : Solid wall piers are designed as columns for forces and moments acting about the weak axis and as piers for those acting about the strong axis. They may be pinned, fixed or free at the top, and are conventionally fixed at the base. Short, stubby types are often pinned at the base to eliminate the high moments which would develop due to fixity. Earlier, more massive designs were considered gravity types.
- Double Wall Piers* : Double wall piers consist of two separate walls, spaced in the direction of traffic, to provide support at the continuous soffit of concrete box superstructure sections. These walls are integral with the superstructure and must also be designed for the superstructure moments which develop from live loads and erection conditions.
- Bent Piers* : Bent-type piers consist of two or more transversely spaced columns of various solid cross-sections, and these types are designed for frame action relative to forces acting about the strong axis of the pier. They are usually fixed at the base of the pier and are either integral with the superstructure or with a pier cap at the top. The columns may be supported on a spread- or pile-supported footing, or a solid wall shaft, or they may be extensions of the piles or shaft above the ground line.
- Single-Column Piers* : Single-column piers, often referred to as “T” or “Hammerhead” piers, are usually supported at the base by a spread-, drilled shaft- or pile-supported footing, and may be either integral with, or provide independent support for, the superstructure. Their cross-section can be of various shapes and the column can be prismatic or flared to form the pier cap or to blend with the sectional configuration of the superstructure cross-section. This type of pier can avoid the complexities of skewed supports if integrally framed into the superstructure and their appearance reduces the massiveness often associated with superstructures.

<i>Tubular Piers</i>	:	A hollow core section which may be of steel, reinforced concrete or prestressed concrete, of such cross-section to support the forces and moments acting on the elements. Because of their vulnerability to lateral loadings, tubular piers shall be of sufficient wall thickness to sustain the forces and moments for all loading situations as are appropriate. Prismatic configurations may be sectionally precast or prestressed as erected.
<i>Prefabricated Modular Wall</i>	:	A soil-retaining system employing interlocking soil-filled timber, reinforced concrete, or steel modules or bins to resist earth pressures by acting as gravity retaining walls.
<i>Rigid Gravity and Semi-Gravity (Conventional) Retaining Wall</i>	:	A structure that provides lateral support for a mass of soil and that owes its stability primarily to its own weight and to the weight of any soil located directly above its base.

In practice, different types of rigid gravity and semi-gravity retaining walls may be used. These include:

- A *gravity* wall depends entirely on the weight of the stone or concrete masonry and of any soil resting on the masonry for its stability. Only a nominal amount of steel is placed near the exposed faces to prevent surface cracking due to temperature changes.
- A *semi-gravity* wall is somewhat more slender than a gravity wall and requires reinforcement consisting of vertical bars along the inner face and dowels continuing into the footing. It is provided with temperature steel near the exposed face.
- A *cantilever* wall consists of a concrete stem and a concrete base slab, both of which are relatively thin and fully reinforced to resist the moments and shears to which they are subjected.
- A *counterfort* wall consists of a thin concrete face slab, usually vertical, supported at intervals on the inner side by vertical slabs or counterforts that meet the face slab at right angles. Both the face slab and the counterforts are connected to a base slab, and the space above the base slab and between the counterforts is backfilled with soil. All the slabs are fully reinforced.

9.3. NOTATION

9.3.1. General

A_c = cross-sectional area of reinforcement unit (mm^2)

A_m = maximum wall acceleration coefficient at the centroid

A_s = peak seismic ground acceleration coefficient modified by short-period site factor

- B = wall base width (mm)
 b = unit width of reinforcement; width of bin module (mm)
 b_f = width of applied footing load (mm)
 C = overall reinforcement surface area geometry factor (dim.)
 CR_{cr} = long-term connection strength reduction factor to account for reduced ultimate strength resulting from connection (dim.)
 CR_u = short-term connection strength reduction factor to account for reduced ultimate strength resulting from the connection (dim.)
 C_u = coefficient of uniformity (dim.)
 D = design embedment depth of vertical element (mm); diameter of bar or wire (mm)
 D^* = diameter of bar or wire corrected for corrosion loss (mm)
 D_o = embedment for which net passive pressure is sufficient to provide moment equilibrium (mm)
 D_{60}/D_{10} = uniformity coefficient of soil defined as ratio of the particle size of soil that is 60 percent finer in size to the particle size of soil that is ten percent finer in size (dim.)
 d = diameter of anchor drill hole (mm); the lateral wall displacement (mm); fill above wall (mm)
 E_c = thickness of metal reinforcement at end of service life (mm)
 E_n = nominal thickness of steel reinforcement at construction (mm)
 E_s = sacrificial thickness of metal expected to be lost by uniform corrosion during service life (mm)
 E_{AE} = total active static and seismic force (N/mm)
 E_{PE} = total passive static and seismic force (N/mm)
 e = eccentricity of load from centerline of foundation (mm)
 F_T = resultant force of active lateral earth pressure (N/mm)
 F_y = minimum yield strength of steel (MPa)
 F^* = reinforcement pullout friction factor (dim.)
 g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec.²)
 Gu = distance from center of gravity of a horizontal segmental facing block unit, including aggregate fill, measured from the front of the unit (mm)
 H = height of wall (mm)
 H_h = hinge height for segmental facing (mm)

H_u = segmental facing block unit height (mm)

H_l = equivalent wall height (mm)

h = vertical distance between ground surface and wall base at the back of wall heel (mm)

h_i = height of reinforced soil zone contributing horizontal load to reinforcement at level i (mm)

i_b = slope of facing base downward into backfill ($^\circ$)

k_a = active earth pressure coefficient (dim.)

k_{af} = active earth pressure coefficient of backfill (dim.)

k_h = horizontal seismic acceleration coefficient (dim.)

k_v = vertical seismic acceleration coefficient (dim.)

k_{AE} = seismic active pressure coefficient (dim.)

k_{PE} = seismic passive pressure coefficient (dim.)

k_r = horizontal earth pressure coefficient of reinforced fill (dim.)

L = spacing between vertical elements or facing supports (mm); length of reinforcing elements in an MSE wall and correspondingly its foundation (mm)

L_a = length of reinforcement in active zone (mm)

L_b = anchor bond length (mm)

L_e = length of reinforcement in resistance zone (mm)

L_{ei} = effective reinforcement length for layer i (mm)

$MARV$ = minimum average roll value

M_{max} = maximum bending moment in vertical wall element or facing (N-mm or N-mm/mm)

N = normal component of resultant on base of foundation (N/mm)

P_{AE} = dynamic horizontal thrust (N/mm)

P_b = pressure inside bin module (MPa)

P_H = lateral force due to superstructure or other concentrated loads (N/mm)

P_i = factored horizontal force per mm of wall transferred to soil reinforcement at level i ; internal inertial force, due to the weight of the backfill within the active zone (N/mm)

P_{IR} = horizontal inertial force (N/mm)

- P_{ir} = horizontal inertial force caused by acceleration of reinforced backfill (N/mm)
 P_{is} = internal inertial force caused by acceleration of sloping surcharge (N/mm)
 P_r = ultimate soil reinforcement pullout resistance per unit of reinforcement width (N/mm)
 P_v = load on strip footing (N/mm)
 P'_v = load on isolated rectangular footing or point load (N)
 p = average lateral pressure, including earth, surcharge and water pressure, acting on the section of wall element being considered (MPa)
 Q_n = nominal (ultimate) anchor resistance (N)
 Q_R = factored anchor resistance (N)
 q_s = surcharge pressure (MPa)
 q_{max} = maximum unit soil pressure on base of foundation (MPa)
 R = resultant force at base of wall (N/mm)
 R_{BH} = basal heave ratio
 R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio (dim.)
 R_n = nominal resistance (N or N/mm)
 R_R = factored resistance (N or N/mm)
 RF = combined strength reduction factor to account for potential long-term degradation due to installation damage, creep and chemical/biological aging of geosynthetic reinforcements (dim.)
 RF_c = combined strength reduction factor for long-term degradation of geosynthetic reinforcement facing connection (dim.)
 RF_{CR} = strength reduction factor to prevent long-term creep rupture of reinforcement (dim.)
 RF_D = strength reduction factor to prevent rupture of reinforcement due to chemical and biological degradation (dim.)
 RF_{ID} = strength reduction factor to account for installation damage to reinforcement (dim.)
 S_h = horizontal reinforcement spacing (mm)
 S_t = spacing between transverse grid elements (mm)
 S_u = undrained shear strength (MPa)
 S_v = vertical spacing of reinforcements (mm)

- S_{rs} = ultimate reinforcement tensile resistance required to resist static load component (N/mm)
 S_{rt} = ultimate reinforcement tensile resistance required to resist transient load component (N/mm)
 T_{ac} = nominal long-term reinforcement/facing connection design strength (N/mm)
 T_{al} = nominal long-term reinforcement design strength (N/mm)
 T_{crc} = creep reduced connection strength per unit of reinforcement width determined from the stress rupture envelope at the specified design life as produced from a series of long-term connection creep tests (N/mm)
 T_{lot} = ultimate wide width tensile strength per unit of reinforcement width (ASTM D4595 or D6637) for the reinforcement material lot used for the connection strength testing (N/mm)
 T_{md} = factored incremental dynamic inertia force (N/mm)
 $T_{ultconn}$ = ultimate connection strength per unit of reinforcement width (N/mm)
 T_{ult} = ultimate tensile strength of reinforcement (N/mm)
 T_{max} = applied load to reinforcement (N/mm)
 T_o = factored tensile load at reinforcement/facing connection (N/mm)
 t = thickness of transverse elements (mm)
 T_{total} = total load on reinforcement layer (static & dynamic) per unit width of wall (N/mm)
 V_1 = weight of soil carried by wall heel, not including weight of soil surcharge (N/mm)
 V_2 = weight of soil surcharge directly above wall heel (N/mm)
 W_u = unit width of segmental facing (mm)
 W_1 = weight of wall stem (N/mm)
 W_2 = weight of wall footing or base (N/mm)
 x = spacing between vertical element supports (mm)
 Z = depth below effective top of wall or to reinforcement (mm)
 Z_p = depth of soil at reinforcement layer at beginning of resistance zone for pullout calculation (mm)
 α = scale effect correction factor (dim.)
 β = inclination of ground slope behind face of wall (°)
 γ_{EQ} = load factor for earthquake (dim.)

- γ_P = load factor for vertical earth pressure (dim.)
 γ_s = soil density (kg/m^3)
 γ'_s = effective soil density (kg/m^3)
 γ_r = density of reinforced fill (kg/m^3)
 γ_f = density of backfill (kg/m^3)
 $\Delta\sigma_H$ = horizontal stress on reinforcement from concentrated horizontal surcharge (MPa); traffic barrier impact stress applied over reinforcement tributary area (MPa)
 $\Delta\sigma_v$ = vertical stress due to footing load (MPa)
 δ = wall-backfill interface friction angle ($^\circ$)
 $\delta_{\max}$ = maximum displacement (mm)
 δ_R = relative displacement coefficient
 θ = wall batter from horizontal ($^\circ$)
 ρ = soil-reinforcement angle of friction ($^\circ$)
 ϕ = resistance factor
 ϕ_f = internal friction angle of foundation or backfill soil ($^\circ$)
 ϕ_r = internal friction angle of reinforced fill ($^\circ$)
 ϕ'_f = effective internal friction angle of soil ($^\circ$)
 σ_H = factored horizontal stress at reinforcement level (MPa)
 $\sigma_{H\max}$ = maximum stress in soil reinforcement in abutment zones
 σ_v = vertical stress in soil (MPa)
 σ_{vI} = vertical soil stress over effective base width (MPa)
 τ_n = nominal anchor bond stress (MPa)
 ω = wall batter due to setback of segmental facing units ($^\circ$)

9.4. SOIL PROPERTIES AND MATERIALS

9.4.1. General

Backfill materials should be granular, free-draining materials. Where walls retain in-situ cohesive soils, drainage shall be provided to reduce hydrostatic water pressure behind the wall.

- C Much of the knowledge and experience with MSE structures has been with select, cohesionless backfill as specified in Section 9, "Earth-Retaining Systems" of MA-100-C-V1/1. Hence, knowledge about internal stress distribution, pullout resistance and failure surface shape is constrained and influenced by the unique engineering properties of granular soils. While cohesive soils have been successfully used, problems including excessive deformation and complete collapse have also

occurred. Most of these problems have been attributed to poor drainage. Drainage requirements for walls constructed with poor draining soils are provided in [Elias et al. \(2001\)](#).

9.4.2. Determination of Soil Properties

The provisions of Articles [2.5](#) and [8.4](#) shall apply.

9.5. LIMIT STATES AND RESISTANCE FACTORS

9.5.1. General

Design of abutments, piers and walls shall satisfy the criteria for the service limit state specified in Article [9.5.2](#), and for the strength limit state specified in Article [9.5.3](#).

Abutments, piers and retaining walls shall be designed to withstand lateral earth and water pressures, including any live and dead load surcharge, the self weight of the wall, temperature and shrinkage effects, and earthquake loads in accordance with the general principles specified in this Section.

Earth retaining structures shall be designed for a service life based on consideration of the potential long-term effects of material deterioration, seepage, stray currents and other potentially deleterious environmental factors on each of the material components comprising the structure. For most applications, permanent retaining walls should be designed for a minimum service life of 75 years. Retaining wall applications defined as temporary shall be considered to have a service life of 36 months or less.

A greater level of safety and/or longer service life, i.e., 100 years, may be appropriate for walls which support bridge abutments, buildings, critical utilities, or other facilities for which the consequences of poor performance or failure would be severe.

Permanent structures shall be designed to retain an aesthetically pleasing appearance, and be essentially maintenance free throughout their design service life.

- C Design of walls to be essentially maintenance free does not preclude the need for periodic inspection of the wall to assess its condition throughout its design life.

9.5.2. Service Limit States

Abutments, piers, and walls shall be investigated for excessive vertical and lateral displacement, and overall stability, at the service limit state.

- C Vertical wall movements are primarily the result of soil settlement beneath the wall. For gravity and semi-gravity walls, lateral movement results from a combination of differential vertical settlement between the heel and the toe of the wall and the rotation necessary to develop active earth pressure conditions (see commentary in Article [3.10.1](#)).

Tolerable vertical and lateral deformation criteria for retaining walls shall be developed based on the function and type of wall, anticipated service life, and consequences of unacceptable movements to the wall and any potentially affected nearby structures, i.e., both structural and aesthetic. Overall stability shall be evaluated using limit equilibrium methods of analysis.

- C Tolerable total and differential vertical deformations for a particular retaining wall are dependent on the ability of the wall to deflect without causing damage to the wall elements or adjacent structures, or without exhibiting unsightly deformations.
- C Surveys of the performance of bridges indicate that horizontal abutment movements less than 38 mm can usually be tolerated by bridge superstructures without significant damage, as reported in [Bozozuk \(1978\)](#), [Walkinshaw \(1978\)](#), [Moulton et al. \(1985\)](#), and [Wahls \(1990\)](#).

The provisions of Articles [8.6.2.2](#), [8.7.2.2](#), [8.8.2.1](#) shall apply to the investigation of vertical wall movements.

Earth pressures used in design of abutments should be selected consistent with the requirement that the abutment should not move more than 40 mm laterally.

- C Earth pressures used in design of abutments should be selected consistent with the requirement that the abutment should not move more than 38 mm laterally.

For anchored walls, deflections shall be estimated in accordance with the provisions of Article [9.9.3.1](#).

For MSE walls, deflections shall be estimated in accordance with the provisions of Article [9.10.4](#).

- C Regarding impact to the wall itself, differential settlement along the length of the wall and to some extent from front to back of wall is the best indicator of the potential for retaining wall structural damage or overstress. Wall facing stiffness and ability to adjust incrementally to movement affect the ability of a given wall system to tolerate differential movements.
- C The total and differential vertical deformation of a retaining wall should be small for rigid gravity and semi-gravity retaining walls, and for soldier pile walls with a cast-in-place facing.
- C MSE walls can tolerate larger total and differential vertical deflections than rigid walls.
- C The amount of total and differential vertical deflection that can be tolerated depends on the wall facing material, configuration and timing of facing construction.
- C A cast-in-place facing has the same vertical deformation limitations as the more rigid retaining wall systems. However, an MSE wall with a cast-in-place facing can be specified with a waiting period before the cast-in-place facing is constructed so that vertical (as well as horizontal) deformations have time to occur. An MSE wall with welded wire or geosynthetic facing can tolerate the most deformation. An MSE wall with multiple precast concrete panels cannot tolerate as much vertical deformation as flexible welded wire or geosynthetic facings because of potential damage to the precast panels and unsightly panel separation.

9.5.3. Strength Limit State

Abutments and walls shall be investigated at the strength limit states using Eq. [\(1.1\)](#) for:

- Bearing resistance failure,
- Lateral sliding,
- Excessive loss of base contact,
- Pullout failure of anchors or soil reinforcements, and
- Structural failure.

9.5.4. Resistance Requirement

Abutments, piers and retaining structures and their foundations and other supporting elements shall be proportioned by the appropriate methods specified in Articles [9.6](#), [9.7](#), [9.8](#), [9.9](#), [9.10](#), or [9.11](#) so that their resistance satisfies Article [9.5.5](#).

The factored resistance, R_R , calculated for each applicable limit state shall be the nominal resistance, R_n , multiplied by an appropriate resistance factor, ϕ , specified in [Table 9.1](#).

- C Procedures for calculating nominal resistance are provided in Articles [9.6](#), [9.7](#), [9.8](#), [9.9](#), [9.10](#), and [9.11](#) for abutments and retaining walls, piers, non-gravity cantilevered walls, anchored walls, mechanically stabilized earth walls, and prefabricated modular walls, respectively.

9.5.5. Load Combinations and Load Factors

Abutments, piers and retaining structures and their foundations and other supporting elements shall be proportioned for all applicable load combinations specified in Article 3.4.1.

- C **Figure 9.1** show the typical application of load factors to produce the total extreme factored force effect for external stability of retaining walls.

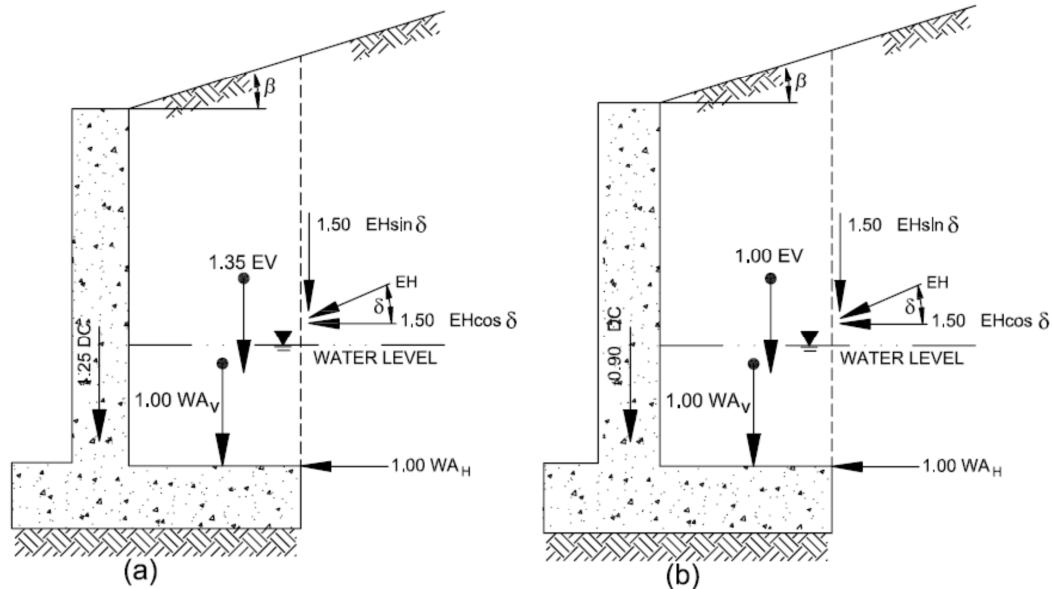


Figure 9.1: Typical Application of Load Factors : (a) for Bearing Resistance, (b) for Sliding and Eccentricity

- C Where live load surcharge is applicable, the factored surcharge force is generally included over the backfill immediately above the wall only for evaluation of foundation bearing resistance and structure design, as shown in **Figure 9.2**.
- C The live load surcharge is not included over the backfill for evaluation of eccentricity, sliding or other failure mechanisms for which such surcharge would represent added resistance to failure. Likewise, the live load on a bridge abutment is included only for evaluation of foundation bearing resistance and structure design.
- C The load factor for live load surcharge is the same for both vertical and horizontal load effects.
- C The permanent and transient loads and forces shown in the figures include, but are not limited to:
- Permanent Loads
 - DC = dead load of structural components and nonstructural attachments
 - DW = dead load of wearing surfaces and utilities
 - EH = horizontal earth pressure load
 - ES = earth surcharge load
 - EV = vertical pressure from dead load of earth fill
 - Transient Loads
 - LS = live load surcharge
 - WA = water load and stream pressure

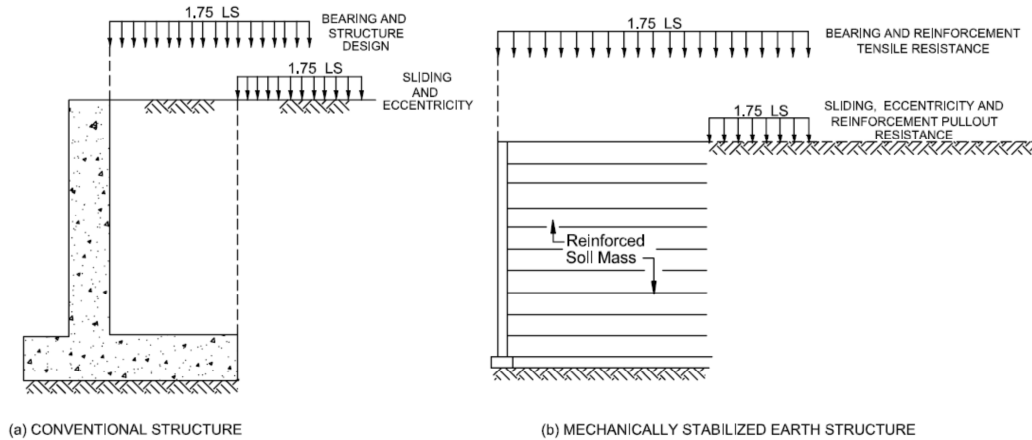


Figure 9.2: Typical Application of Live Load Surcharge.

9.5.6. Resistance Factors

Resistance factors for geotechnical design of foundations are specified in [Table 8.14](#), [Table 8.15](#), [Table 8.18](#), and [Table 9.1](#).

- C The resistance factors given in [Table 9.1](#), other than those referenced back to [Section 8](#), were calculated by direct correlation to allowable stress design rather than reliability theory.
- C Since the resistance factors in [Table 9.1](#) were based on direct correlation to allowable stress design, the differences between the resistance factors for tensile resistance of metallic versus geosynthetic reinforcement are based on historical differences in the level of safety applied to reinforcement designs for these two types of reinforcements. See commentary in Article [9.10.6.2.1](#) for additional comments regarding the differences between the resistance factors for metallic versus geosynthetic reinforcement.

If methods other than those prescribed in these Specifications are used to estimate resistance, the resistance factors chosen shall provide the same reliability as those given in [Table 8.14](#), [Table 8.15](#), [Table 8.18](#), and [Table 9.1](#).

Vertical elements, such as soldier piles, tangent piles¹ and slurry trench concrete walls² shall be treated as either shallow or deep foundations, as appropriate, for purposes of estimating bearing resistance, using procedures described in Articles [8.6](#), [8.7](#) and [8.8](#).

Some increase in the prescribed resistance factors may be appropriate for design of temporary walls consistent with increased allowable stresses for temporary structures in allowable stress design.

- C The evaluation of overall stability of walls or earth slopes with or without a foundation unit should be investigated at the service limit state based on the Service I Load Combination and an appropriate resistance factor.

¹ Tangent pile (drilled shafts) walls consists of a series of drilled shafts located such that the adjacent shafts touch each other, hence the name tangent wall.

² A slurry wall is a non-structural barrier built under ground to prevent the flow of groundwater.

Table 9.1: Resistance Factors for Permanent Retaining Walls.

Wall-Type And Condition		Resistance Factor
Nongravity Cantilevered and Anchored Walls		
Axial compressive resistance of vertical elements		Article 8.5 applies
Passive resistance of vertical elements		0.75
Pullout resistance of anchors ⁽¹⁾	• Cohesionless (granular) soils • Cohesive soils • Rock	0.65 ⁽¹⁾ 0.70 ⁽¹⁾ 0.50 ⁽¹⁾
Pullout resistance of anchors ⁽²⁾	• Where proof tests are conducted	1.0 ⁽²⁾
Tensile resistance of anchor tendon	• Mild steel (e.g., ASTM A 615M bars) • High strength steel (e.g., ASTM A 722M bars)	0.90 ⁽³⁾ 0.80 ⁽³⁾
Flexural capacity of vertical elements		0.90
Mechanically Stabilized Earth Walls, Gravity Walls, and Semi-Gravity Walls		
Bearing resistance	• Gravity and semi-gravity walls • MSE walls	0.55 0.65
Sliding		1.0
Tensile resistance of metallic reinforcement and connectors	Strip reinforcements ⁽⁴⁾ • Static loading • Combined static/earthquake loading Grid reinforcements ⁽⁴⁾⁽⁵⁾ • Static loading • Combined static/earthquake loading	0.75 1.00 0.65 0.85
Tensile resistance of geosynthetic reinforcement and connectors	• Static loading • Combined static/earthquake loading	0.90 1.20
Pullout resistance of tensile reinforcement	• Static loading • Combined static/earthquake loading	0.90 1.20
Prefabricated Modular Walls		
Bearing		Article 8.5 applies
Sliding		Article 8.5 applies
Passive resistance		Article 8.5 applies

⁽¹⁾ Apply to presumptive ultimate unit bond stresses for preliminary design only in Article 9.9.4.2.

⁽²⁾ Apply where proof test(s) are conducted on every production anchor to a load of 1.0 or greater times the factored load on the anchor.

⁽³⁾ Apply to maximum proof test load for the anchor. For mild steel apply resistance factor to F_y . For high-strength steel apply the resistance factor to guaranteed ultimate tensile strength.

⁽⁴⁾ Apply to gross cross-section less sacrificial area. For sections with holes, reduce gross area in accordance with Article 6.8.3 and apply to net section less sacrificial area.

⁽⁵⁾ Applies to grid reinforcements connected to a rigid facing element, e.g., a concrete panel or block. For grid reinforcements connected to a flexible facing mat or which are continuous with the facing mat, use the resistance factor for strip reinforcements.

9.5.7. Extreme Event Limit State

The applicable load combinations and load factors specified in Table 3.1 shall be investigated.

Unless otherwise specified, all resistance factors shall be taken as 1.0 when investigating the extreme event limit state.

9.6. ABUTMENTS AND CONVENTIONAL RETAINING WALLS

9.6.1. General Considerations

9.6.1.1. General

Rigid gravity and semigravity retaining walls may be used for bridge substructures or grade separation and are generally for permanent applications.

Rigid gravity and semigravity walls shall not be used without deep foundation support where the bearing soil/rock is prone to excessive total or differential settlement.

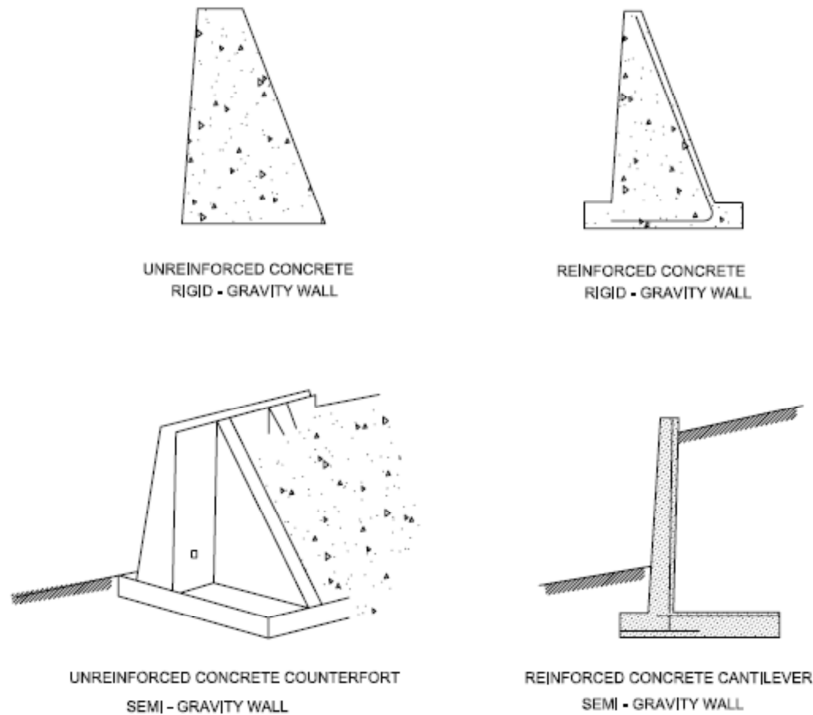


Figure 9.3: Typical Rigid Gravity and Semigravity Walls.

- C Conventional retaining walls are generally classified as rigid gravity or semigravity walls, examples of which are shown in [Figure 9.3](#). These types of walls can be effective for both cut and fill wall applications.
- C Excessive differential settlement can cause cracking, excessive bending or shear stresses in the wall, or rotation of the wall structure.

9.6.1.2. Loading

Abutments and retaining walls shall be investigated for:

- Lateral earth and water pressures, including any live and dead load surcharge;
- The self weight of the abutment/wall;
- Loads applied from the bridge superstructure;
- Temperature and shrinkage deformation effects; and

- Earthquake loads, as specified herein, in [Section 3](#) and elsewhere in these Specifications.

The provisions of Articles [3.10.5](#) and [9.5.5](#) shall apply.

- For stability computations, the earth loads shall be multiplied by the maximum and/or minimum load factors given in [Table 3.2](#), as appropriate.
 - The design shall be investigated for any combination of forces which may produce the most severe condition of loading.
 - The design of abutments on mechanically stabilized earth and prefabricated modular walls shall be in accordance with Articles [9.10.11](#) and [9.11.6](#).
 - For computing load effects in abutments, the weight of filling material directly over an inclined or stepped rear face, or over the base of a reinforced concrete spread footing may be considered as part of the effective weight of the abutment.
 - Where spread footings are used, the rear projection shall be designed as a cantilever supported at the abutment stem and loaded with the full weight of the superimposed material, unless a more exact method is used.
- C Cohesive backfills are difficult to compact. Because of the creep of cohesive soils, walls with cohesive backfills designed for active earth pressures will continue to move gradually throughout their lives, especially when the backfill is soaked by rain or rising groundwater levels. Therefore, Even if wall movements are tolerable, walls backfilled with cohesive soils should be designed with extreme caution for pressures between the active and at-rest cases assuming the most unfavorable conditions.
- C Consideration must be given for the development of pore water pressure within the soil mass in accordance with Article [3.10.3](#).
- C Appropriate drainage provisions should be provided to prevent hydrostatic and seepage forces from developing behind the wall.
- C Highly plastic clay shall not be used for backfill.

9.6.1.3. Integral Abutments

Integral abutments shall be designed to resist and/or absorb creep, shrinkage and thermal deformations of the superstructure.

- C Deformations are discussed in Article [3.11](#).
- C Integral abutments should not be constructed on spread footings founded or keyed into rock unless one end of the span is free to displace longitudinally.

Movement calculations shall consider temperature, creep, and long-term prestress shortening in determining potential movements of abutments.

Maximum span lengths, design considerations, details should comply with recommendations outlined in **FHWA Technical Advisory T 5140.13 (1980)**, except where substantial local experience indicates otherwise.

To avoid water intrusion behind the abutment, the approach slab should be connected directly to the abutment (not to wingwalls), and appropriate provisions should be made to provide for drainage of any entrapped water.

9.6.1.4. Wingwalls

Wingwalls may either be designed as monolithic with the abutments, or be separated from the abutment wall with an expansion joint and designed to be free standing.

The wingwall lengths shall be computed using the required roadway slopes. Wingwalls shall be of sufficient length to retain the roadway embankment and to furnish protection against erosion.

9.6.1.5. Reinforcement

1. Conventional Walls and Abutments

Reinforcement to resist the formation of temperature and shrinkage cracks shall be designed as specified in Article [5.10.6](#).

2. Wingwalls

Reinforcing bars or suitable rolled sections shall be spaced across the junction between wingwalls and abutments to tie them together. Such bars shall extend into the masonry on each side of the joint far enough to develop the strength of the bar as specified for bar reinforcement, and shall vary in length so as to avoid planes of weakness in the concrete at their ends. If bars are not used, an expansion joint shall be provided and the wingwall shall be keyed into the body of the abutment.

9.6.1.6. Expansion and Contraction Joints

Contraction joints shall be provided at intervals not exceeding 9 m and expansion joints at intervals not exceeding 27 m for conventional retaining walls and abutments. All joints shall be filled with approved filling material to ensure the function of the joint. Joints in abutments shall be located approximately midway between the longitudinal members bearing on the abutments.

9.6.2. Movement and Stability at the Service Limit State

9.6.2.1. Abutments

The provisions of Articles [8.6.2.4](#), [8.6.2.5](#), [8.7.2.3](#) through [8.7.2.5](#), [8.8.2.2](#) through [8.8.2.4](#), and [9.5.2](#) shall apply as applicable.

9.6.2.2. Conventional Retaining Walls

The provisions of Articles [8.6.2.4](#), [8.6.2.5](#), [8.7.2.3](#) through [8.7.2.5](#), [8.8.2.2](#) through [8.8.2.4](#), and [9.5.2](#) shall apply as applicable.

C For a conventional reinforced concrete retaining wall, experience suggests that differential wall settlements on the order of 1 in 500 to 1 in 1000 may overstress the wall.

9.6.2.3. Overall Stability

The overall stability of the retaining wall, retained slope and foundation soil or rock shall be evaluated for all walls using limit equilibrium methods of analysis.

The overall stability of temporary cut slopes to facilitate construction shall also be evaluated. Special exploration, testing and analyses may be required for bridge abutments or retaining walls constructed over soft deposits.

The evaluation of overall stability of earth slopes with or without a foundation unit should be investigated at the Service 1 Load Combination and an appropriate resistance factor. In lieu of better information, the resistance factor, ϕ , may be taken as:

- Where the geotechnical parameters are well defined, and the 0.75

slope does not support or contain a structural element

- Where the geotechnical parameters are based on limited information, or the slope contains or supports a structural element 0.65

- C [Figure 9.4](#) shows a retaining wall overall stability failure. Overall stability is a slope stability issue, and, therefore, is considered a service limit state check.
- C The Modified Bishop, simplified Janbu or Spencer methods of analysis may be used.
- C Soft soil deposits may be subject to consolidation and/or lateral flow which could result in unacceptable long-term settlements or horizontal movements.

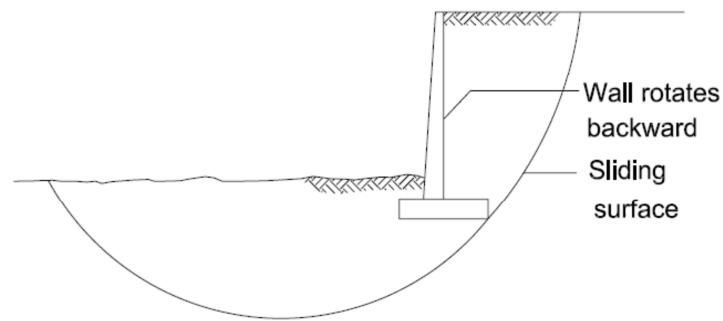


Figure 9.4: Retaining Wall Overall Stability Failure

9.6.3. Bearing Resistance and Stability at the Strength Limit State

9.6.3.1. General

Abutments and retaining walls shall be proportioned to ensure stability against bearing capacity failure, overturning, and sliding. Safety against deep-seated foundation failure shall also be investigated, in accordance with the provisions of Article [8.6.2.5](#).

9.6.3.2. Bearing Resistance

Bearing resistance shall be investigated at the strength limit state using factored loads and resistances, assuming the following soil pressure distributions:

- Where the wall is supported by a soil foundation:
the vertical stress shall be calculated assuming a uniformly distributed pressure over an effective base area as shown in [Figure 9.5](#).
The vertical stress shall be calculated as follows:

$$\sigma_v = \frac{\sum V}{B - 2e} \quad (9.1)$$

where:

$\sum V$ = the summation of vertical forces, and the other variables are as defined in [Figure 9.5](#).

- Where the wall is supported by a rock foundation:

the vertical stress shall be calculated assuming a linearly distributed pressure over an effective base area as shown in [Figure 9.6](#). If the resultant is within the middle one-third of the base,

$$\sigma_{max} = \frac{\sum V}{B} \left(1 + \frac{6e}{B} \right) \quad (9.2)$$

$$\sigma_{min} = \frac{\sum V}{B} \left(1 - \frac{6e}{B} \right) \quad (9.3)$$

where the variables are as defined in [Figure 9.6](#).

If the resultant is outside the middle one-third of the base,

$$\sigma_{vmax} = \frac{2 \sum V}{3 \left[(B/2) - e \right]} \quad (9.4)$$

$$\sigma_{vmin} = 0 \quad (9.5)$$

where the variables are as defined in [Figure 9.6](#).

- C See [Figure 9.29](#) for an example of how to calculate the vertical bearing stress where the loading is more complex. Though this figure shows the application of superposition principles to mechanically stabilized earth walls, these principles can also be directly applied to conventional walls.
- C See commentary in Article [9.5.5](#) for application of load factors for bearing resistance and eccentricity.

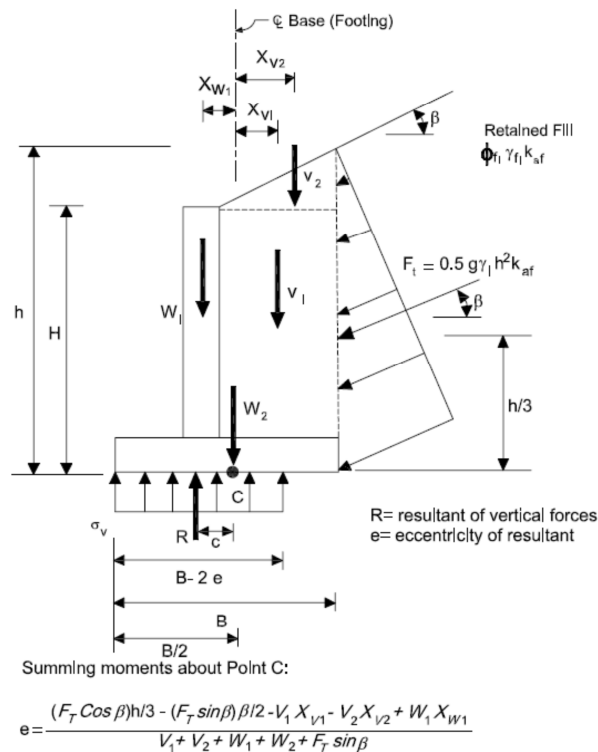
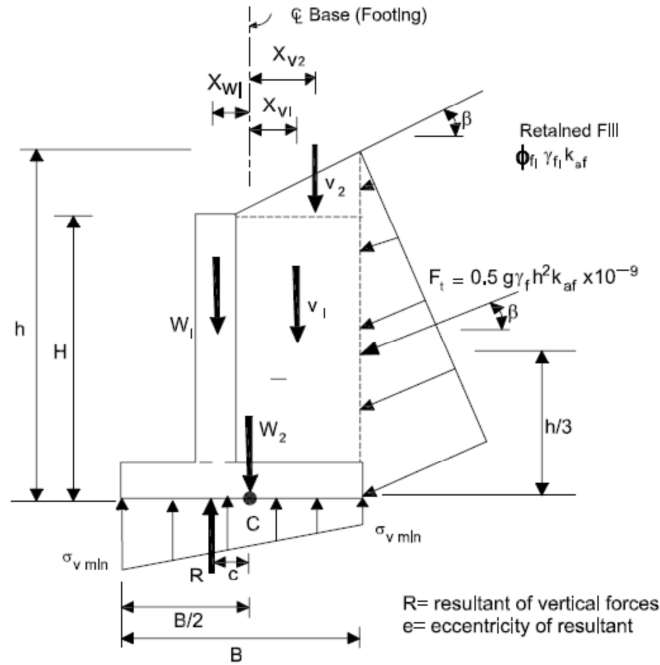


Figure 9.5: Bearing Stress Criteria for Conventional Wall Foundations on Soil.



If $e > B/6$, $\sigma_{v \min}$ will drop to zero, and as "e" increases, the portion of the heel of the footing which has zero vertical stress increases.

Summing moments about Point C:

$$e = \frac{(F_T \cos \beta)h/3 - (F_T \sin \beta)\beta/2 - V_1 X_{V1} - V_2 X_{V2} + W_1 X_{W1}}{V_1 + V_2 + W_1 + W_2 + F_T \sin \beta}$$

Figure 9.6: Bearing Stress Criteria for Conventional Wall Foundations on Rock.

9.6.3.3. Overturning

For foundations on soil, the location of the resultant of the reaction forces shall be within the middle one-half of the base width.

For foundations on rock, the location of the resultant of the reaction forces shall be within the middle three-fourths of the base width.

- C The specified criteria for the location of the resultant, coupled with investigation of the bearing pressure, replace the investigation of the ratio of stabilizing moment to overturning moment.
- C Location of the resultant within the middle one-half of the base width for foundations on soil is based on the use of plastic bearing pressure distribution for the limit state.

9.6.3.4. Subsurface Erosion

For walls constructed along rivers and streams, scour of foundation materials shall be evaluated during design, as specified in Article [2.7.4.4.2](#). Where potential problem conditions are anticipated, adequate protective measures shall be incorporated in the design.

The provisions of Article [8.6.1.2](#) shall apply.

The hydraulic gradient shall not exceed:

- For silts and cohesive soils: 0.20

- For other cohesionless soils: 0.30

C The measures most commonly used to ensure that piping does not occur are:

- Seepage control,
- Reduction of hydraulic gradient, and
- Protective filters.

Where water seeps beneath a wall, the effects of uplift and seepage forces shall be considered.

C Seepage effects may be investigated by constructing a flow net, or in certain circumstances, by using generally accepted simplified methods.

9.6.3.5. Passive Resistance

Passive resistance shall be neglected in stability computations, unless the base of the wall extends below the depth of maximum scour, freeze-thaw or other disturbances. In the latter case, only the embedment below the greater of these depths shall be considered effective.

Where passive resistance is utilized to ensure adequate wall stability, the calculated passive resistance of soil in front of abutments and conventional walls shall be sufficient to prevent unacceptable forward movement of the wall.

The passive resistance shall be neglected if the soil providing passive resistance is, or is likely to become soft, loose, or disturbed, or if the contact between the soil and wall is not tight.

C Unacceptable deformations may occur before passive resistance is mobilized. Approximate deformations required to mobilize passive resistance are discussed in Article 3.10.1, where H in Table 3.22 is the effective depth of passive restraint.

9.6.3.6. Sliding

The provisions of Article 8.6.3.4 shall apply.

9.6.4. Safety against Structural Failure

The structural design of individual wall elements and wall foundations shall comply with the provisions of Section 5 and Section 6.

The provisions of Article 8.6.1.3 shall be used to determine the distribution of contact pressure for structural design of footings.

9.6.5. Seismic Design

The effect of earthquake loading on multi-span bridges shall be investigated using the extreme event limit state of Table 3.1 with resistance factors $\phi=1.0$, an accepted methodology in Article 4.7.4.3, and the provisions of Article 3.9.9.2, 3.9.9.3, or 3.9.9.4, as appropriate.

Earthquake loading on single-span bridges shall be investigated in accordance with Articles 4.7.4.2 and 3.9.9.1.

For foundations on soil and rock, the location of the resultant of the reaction forces shall be within the middle two-thirds of the base for $\gamma_{EQ} = 0.0$ and within the middle eight-tenths of the base for $\gamma_{EQ} = 1.0$.

For values of γ_{EQ} between 0.0 and 1.0, the restrictions of the location of the resultant shall be obtained by linear interpolation of the values given in this Article.

- C In general, the pseudo-static approach developed by Mononobe and Okabe may be used to estimate the equivalent static forces for seismic loads for gravity and semi-gravity retaining walls.
- C The estimation of seismic design forces should account for wall inertia forces in addition to the equivalent static-forces.
- C For flexible cantilevered walls, forces resulting from wall inertia effects may be ignored in estimating the seismic design forces.
- C Where a wall supports a bridge structure, the seismic design forces should also include seismic forces transferred from the bridge through bearing supports which do not freely slide, e.g., elastomeric bearings (see Article [9.13](#)).

Where all of the following conditions are met, seismic lateral loads may be reduced as provided herein, as a result of lateral wall movement due to sliding, from values determined using the Mononobe-Okabe method specified in Article [9.13.1.1.1](#):

- the wall system and any structures supported by the wall can tolerate lateral movement resulting from sliding of the structure.
- the wall base is unrestrained against sliding, other than soil friction along its base and minimal soil passive resistance.
- If the wall functions as an abutment, the top of the wall must also be unrestrained, e.g., the superstructure is supported by sliding bearings.

For overall stability of the retaining wall when earthquake loading is included, a resistance factor, ϕ , of 0.9 shall be used.

- C Procedures reducing seismic load due to lateral wall movement are provided in Article [9.13.1.1.2](#). In general, this reduction only applies to gravity and semi-gravity walls. Though the specifications in Article [9.13.1.1.2](#) relate to gravity and semi-gravity walls, these provisions may also apply to other types of walls provided the previous three conditions are met.
- C More informations are provided in Appendix A9.

9.6.6. Drainage

Backfills behind abutments and retaining walls shall be drained or, if drainage cannot be provided, the abutment or wall shall be designed for loads due to earth pressure, plus full hydrostatic pressure due to water in the backfill.

- C Weep holes or geocomposite panel drains at the wall face do not assure fully drained conditions. Drainage systems should be designed to completely drain the entire retained soil volume behind the retaining wall face.

9.7. PIERS

9.7.1. Load Effects in Piers

- Piers shall be designed to transmit the loads on the superstructure, and the loads acting on the pier itself, onto the foundation.
- The loads and load combinations shall be as specified in [Section 3](#).
- The structural design of piers shall be in accordance with the provisions of [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#), as appropriate.

9.7.2. Pier Protection

9.7.2.1. Collision

Where the possibility of collision exists from highway or river traffic, an appropriate risk analysis should be made to determine the degree of impact resistance to be provided and/or the appropriate protection system. Collision loads shall be determined as specified in Articles [3.6.5](#) and [3.13](#).

9.7.2.2. Collision Walls

Collision walls may be required by railroad owners if the pier is in close proximity to the railroad.

- C Collision walls are usually required by the railroad owner if the column is within 7600 mm of the rail. Some railroad owners require a collision wall 2000 mm above the top of the rail between columns for railroad overpasses.

9.7.2.3. Scour

The scour potential shall be determined and the design shall be developed to minimize failure from this condition as specified in Article [2.7.4.4.2](#).

9.7.2.4. Facing

Where appropriate, the pier nose should be designed to effectively break up or deflect floating ice or drift.

- C In these situations, pier life can be extended by facing the nosing with steel plates or angles, and by facing the pier with granite.

9.8. NONGRAVITY CANTILEVERED WALLS

9.8.1. General

Non-gravity cantilevered walls may be considered for temporary and permanent support of stable and unstable soil and rock masses. The feasibility of using a non-gravity cantilevered wall at a particular location shall be based on the suitability of soil and rock conditions within the depth of vertical element embedment to support the wall.

- C Depending on soil conditions, non-gravity cantilevered walls less than about 3000 to 4600 mm in height are usually feasible, with the exception of cylinder or tangent pile walls, where greater heights can be used.

9.8.2. Loading

The provisions of Article [9.6.1.2](#) shall apply. The load factor for lateral earth pressure (EH) shall be applied to the lateral earth pressures for the design of non-gravity cantilevered walls.

- C Lateral earth pressure distributions for design of non-gravity cantilevered walls are provided in Article [9.6.1.2](#).

9.8.3. Movement and Stability at the Service Limit State

9.8.3.1. Movement

The provisions of Articles [8.7.2.28.8.2.1](#) shall apply.

The effects of wall movements on adjacent facilities shall be considered in the selection of the design earth pressures in accordance with the provisions of Article 3.10.1.

- C Table 3.22 provides approximate magnitudes of relative movements required to achieve active earth pressure conditions in the retained soil and passive earth pressure conditions in the resisting soil.

9.8.3.2. Overall Stability

The provisions of Article 9.6.2.3 shall apply.

- C Use of vertical wall elements to provide resistance against overall stability failure is described in Article 9.9.3.2. Discrete vertical elements penetrating across deep failure planes can provide resistance against overall stability failure. The magnitude of resistance will depend on the size, type, and spacing of the vertical elements.

9.8.4. Safety against Soil Failure at the Strength Limit State

9.8.4.1. Overall Stability

The provisions of Article 9.6.2.3 shall apply.

- C Discrete vertical elements penetrating across deep failure planes can provide resistance against failure. The magnitude of resistance will depend on the size, type, and spacing of vertical elements.

The provisions of Article 9.6.3.5 shall apply.

Vertical elements shall be designed to support the full design earth, surcharge and water pressures between the elements.

- C The maximum spacing between vertical supporting elements depends on the relative stiffness of the vertical elements. Spans of 1800 to 3000 mm are typical, depending on the type and size of facing.

In determining the embedment depth to mobilize passive resistance, consideration shall be given to planes of weakness, e.g., slickensides, bedding planes, and joint sets that could reduce the strength of the soil or rock determined by field or laboratory tests.

Embedment in intact rock, including massive to appreciably jointed rock which should not fail through a joint surface, shall be based on the shear strength of the rock mass.

- C In determining the embedment depth of vertical wall elements, consideration should be given to the presence of planes of weakness in the soil or rock that could result in a reduction of passive resistance.
- C For laminated, jointed, or fractured soils and rocks, the residual strength along planes of weakness should be considered in the design and, where the planes are oriented at other than an angle of $(45^\circ - \phi'_f/2)$ from the horizontal in soil or 45° from the horizontal in rock toward the excavation, the orientation of the planes should also be considered.
- C Where the wall is located on a bench above a deeper excavation, consideration should be given to the potential for bearing failure of a supporting wedge of soil or rock through intact materials along planes of weakness.
- C In designing permanent non-gravity cantilevered walls with continuous vertical elements, the simplified earth pressure distributions in Figure 3.29 may be used with the following procedure (Teng, 1962):
- Determine the magnitude of lateral pressure on the wall due to earth pressure, surcharge loads and differential water pressure over the design height of the wall using k_{a1} .
 - Determine the magnitude of lateral pressure on the wall due to earth pressure, surcharge loads and differential water pressure over the design height of the wall using k_{a2} .
 - Determine in the following equation the value x as defined in Figure 3.29 to determine the distribution of net passive pressure in front of the wall below the design height:

$$x = \frac{\gamma k_{a2} \gamma'_{s1} H}{(\phi k_{p2} - \gamma k_{a2}) \gamma'_{s2}} \quad (9.6)$$

C where:

- γ = load factor for horizontal earth pressure, EH (dim.)
- k_{a2} = the active earth pressure coefficient for soil 2 (dim.)
- γ'_{s1} = the effective soil density for soil 1 (kg/m³)
- H = the design height of the wall (mm)
- ϕ = the resistance factor for passive resistance in front of the wall (dim.)
- k_{p2} = the passive earth pressure coefficient for soil 2 (dim.)
- γ'_{s2} = the effective soil density for soil 2 (kg/m³)

- Sum moments about the point of action of F (the base of the wall) to determine the embedment (D_o) for which the net passive pressure is sufficient to provide moment equilibrium.
- Determine the depth at which the shear in the wall is zero, i.e., the point at which the areas of the driving and resisting pressure diagrams are equivalent.
- Calculate the maximum bending moment at the point of zero shear.
- Calculate the design depth, $D=1.2D_o$, to account for errors inherent in the simplified passive pressure distribution.

9.8.5. Safety against Structural Failure

9.8.5.1. Vertical Wall Elements

Permanent support of excavation typically employs rigid system. Rigid systems consist of slurry walls¹, soldier pile tremie concrete (SPTC) walls², tangent piles walls³, or secant pile walls⁴.

Discrete vertical wall elements include:

- driven piles;
- drilled shafts;
- auger-cast piles, i.e., piles;
- built-up sections installed in pre-augered holes.

Continuous vertical wall elements are continuous throughout both their length and width, although vertical joints may prevent shear and/or moment transfer between adjacent sections. Continuous vertical wall elements include:

- sheet piles;

¹ A slurry wall is a non-structural barrier built under ground to prevent the flow of groundwater

² SPTC walls are constructed in the same sequence as a slurry wall. However, once the trench is excavated, steel beams or girders are lowered into the slurry in addition to reinforcing steel to provide added capacity.

³ Tangent pile (drilled shaft) walls consist of a series of drilled shafts located such that the adjacent shafts touch each other, hence the name tangent wall.

⁴ Secant pile walls are similar to tangent pile walls except that the drilled shafts overlap each other rather than touch each other.

- precast or cast-in-place concrete diaphragm wall panels;
- tangent-piles;
- tangent drilled shafts.

C The maximum bending moments and shears in vertical wall elements may be determined using the loading diagrams in Article 3.10.5.6, and appropriate load and resistance factors.

Vertical wall elements shall be designed to resist all horizontal earth pressure, surcharge, water pressure, and earthquake loadings.

9.8.5.2. Facing

The maximum spacing between discrete vertical wall elements shall be determined based on:

- relative stiffness of the vertical elements and facing;
- type and condition of soil to be supported;
- type and condition of the soil in which the vertical wall elements are embedded.

Facing may be designed assuming simple support between elements, with or without soil arching, or assuming continuous support over several elements.

C In lieu of other suitable methods, for preliminary design the maximum bending moments in facing may be determined as follows:

- For simple spans without soil arching⁽¹⁾:

$$M_{max} = 0.125 pL^2 \quad (9.7)$$

- For simple spans with soil arching⁽²⁾:

$$M_{max} = 0.083 pL^2 \quad (9.8)$$

- For continuous spans without soil arching:

$$M_{max} = 0.1 pL^2 \quad (9.9)$$

- For continuous spans with soil arching:

$$M_{max} = 0.083 pL^2 \quad (9.10)$$

C where:

M_{max} = factored flexural moment on a unit width or height of facing (N-mm/mm)

p = average factored lateral pressure, including earth, surcharge and water pressure acting on the section of facing being considered (MPa/mm)

L = spacing between vertical elements or other facing supports (mm)

C If the variations in lateral pressure with depth are large, moment diagrams should be constructed to provide more accuracy. The facing design may be varied with depth.

C Eq. (9.7) is applicable for simply supported facing behind which the soil will not arch between vertical supports, e.g., in soft cohesive soils or for rigid concrete facing placed tightly against the in-place soil. Eq. (9.8) is applicable for simply supported facing behind which the soil will arch between vertical supports, e.g., in granular or stiff cohesive soils with flexible facing or rigid facing behind which there

¹ Soil will not arch between vertical supports, e.g., in soft cohesive soils or for rigid concrete facing placed tightly against the in-place soil.

² Soil will arch between vertical supports, e.g., in granular or stiff cohesive soils with flexible facing or rigid facing behind which there is sufficient space to permit the in-place soil to arch.

is sufficient space to permit the in-place soil to arch. Eq. (9.9) and (9.10) are applicable for facing which is continuous over several vertical supports, e.g., reinforced shotcrete or concrete.

9.8.6. Seismic Design

The effect of earthquake loading shall be investigated using the Extreme Event I limit state of Table 3.1 with resistance factor $\phi=1.0$ and load factor $\gamma_p = 1.0$ and an accepted methodology.

- C In general, the pseudo-static approach developed by Mononobe and Okabe may be used to estimate the equivalent static forces provided the maximum lateral earth pressure, active and passive are computed using a seismic coefficient $k_h = 0.5A_s$ where A_s is earthquake ground acceleration coefficient as specified in Eq. (3.12) (dim.) (See Article 9.13).
- C Forces resulting from wall inertia effects may be ignored in estimating the seismic lateral earth pressure.

9.8.7. Corrosion Protection

The level and extent of corrosion protection shall be a function of the ground environment and the potential consequences of a wall failure.

- C Corrosion protection for piles and miscellaneous hardware and material should be consistent with the design life of the structure.

9.8.8. Drainage

The provisions of Article 3.10.3 shall apply.

Seepage shall be controlled by installation of a drainage medium behind the facing with outlets at or near the base of the wall.

Drainage panels shall maintain their drainage characteristics under the design earth pressures and surcharge loadings, and shall extend from the base of the wall to a level 300 mm below the top of the wall.

Where thin drainage panels are used behind walls and saturated or moist soil behind the panels may be subjected to freezing and expansion, either insulation shall be provided on the walls to prevent freezing of the soil, or the wall shall be designed for the pressures exerted on the wall by frozen soil.

- C The potential for development of hydrostatic pressures behind walls with discrete vertical elements and lagging is limited due to the presence of openings in the lagging, and the disturbance of soil behind lagging as the wall is constructed. However, the potential for leakage through the wall should not be counted upon where the ground water level exceeds one-third the height of the wall because of the potential for plugging and clogging of openings in the wall with time by migration of soil fines. It is probable that, under such conditions, a wall with continuous vertical elements, i.e., a cutoff wall constructed with a drainage system designed to handle anticipated flows will be required.
- C Water pressures may be considered reduced in design only if positive drainage, e.g., drainage blanket, geocomposite drainage panels, gravel drains with outlet pipes is provided to prevent buildup of hydrostatic pressure behind the wall. Thin drains at the back of the wall face may not completely relieve hydrostatic pressure and may increase seepage forces on the back of the wall face due to rainwater infiltration, Terzaghi and Peck (1967) and Cedergren (1989).
- C The effectiveness of drainage control measures should be evaluated by seepage analyses.

9.9. ANCHORED WALLS

9.9.1. General

Anchored walls, whose elements may be proprietary, employ grouted in anchor elements, vertical wall elements and facing.

Anchored walls, illustrated in [Figure 9.7](#), may be considered for both temporary and permanent support of stable and unstable soil and rock masses.

- C Depending on soil conditions, anchors are usually required for support of both temporary and permanent non-gravity cantilevered walls higher than about 3000 to 4600 mm.
- C The availability or ability to obtain underground easements and proximity of buried facilities to anchor locations should also be considered in assessing feasibility.

The feasibility of using an anchored wall at a particular location should be based on the suitability of subsurface soil and rock conditions within the bonded anchor stressing zone.

- C Anchored walls in cuts are typically constructed from the top of the wall down to the base of the wall. Anchored walls in fill must include provisions to protect against anchor damage resulting from backfill and subsoil settlement or backfill and compaction activities above the anchors.

Where fill is placed behind a wall, either around or above the unbonded length, special designs and construction specifications shall be provided to prevent anchor damage.

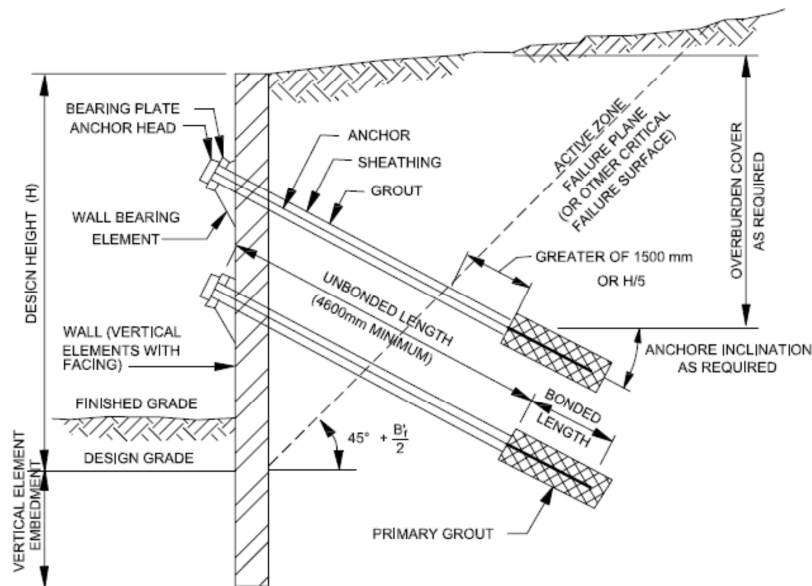


Figure 9.7: Anchored Wall Nomenclature and Anchor Embedment Guidelines.

- C The minimum distance between the front of the bond zone and the active zone behind the wall of 1500 mm or $H/5$ is needed to insure that no load from the bonded zone is transferred into the no load zone due to load transfer through the grout column in the no load zone.

9.9.2. Loading

The provisions of Article [9.6.1.2](#) shall apply, except that shrinkage and temperature effects need not be considered.

- C Lateral earth pressures on anchored walls are a function of the rigidity of the wall-anchor system, soil conditions, method and sequence of construction, and level of prestress imposed by the anchors.
- C Apparent earth pressure diagrams that are commonly used can be found in Article [3.10.5.7](#) and [Sabatini et al. \(1999\)](#).

9.9.3. Movement and Stability at the Service Limit State

9.9.3.1. Movement

The provisions of Articles 8.6.2.2, 8.7.2.2, and 8.8.2.1 shall apply.

The effects of wall movements on adjacent facilities shall be considered in the development of the wall design.

- C Settlement of vertical wall elements can cause reduction of anchor loads, and should be considered in design.
- C The settlement profiles in Figure 9.8 were recommended by Clough and O'Rourke (1990) to estimate ground surface settlements adjacent to braced or anchored excavations caused during the excavation and bracing stages of construction. Significant settlements may also be caused by other construction activities, e.g., dewatering or deep foundation construction within the excavation, or by poor construction techniques, e.g., soldier pile, lagging, or anchor installation.
- C The field measurements used to develop Figure 9.8 were screened by the authors to not include movements caused by other construction activities or poor construction techniques. Therefore, such movements should be estimated separately.
- C Where noted in the definition of the various curves in Figure 9.8, the basal heave ratio, R_{BH} , shall be taken as:

$$R_{BH} = \frac{5.1 S_u}{g \gamma_s H \times 10^{-9} + q_s} \quad (9.11)$$

- C where:

S_u = undrained shear strength of cohesive soil (MPa)

γ_s = density of soil (kg/m^3)

H = height of wall (mm)

q_s = surcharge pressure (MPa)

g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec^2)

- C See Sabatini et al. (1999) for additional information on the effect of anchored wall construction and design on wall movement.

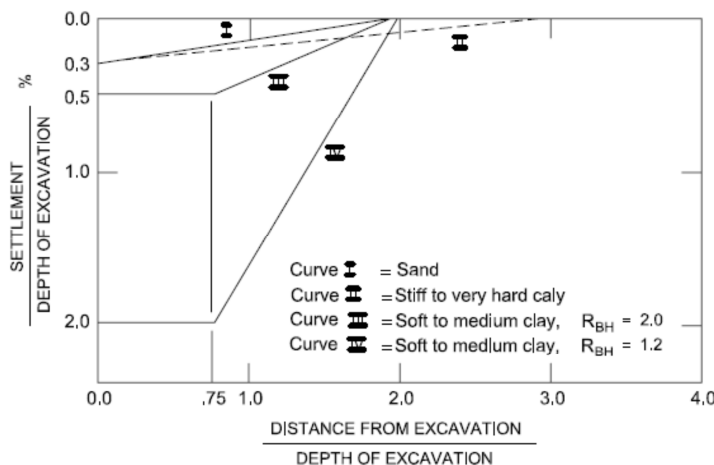


Figure 9.8: Settlement Profiles behind Braced or Anchored Walls (adapted from Clough and O'Rourke, 1990).

9.9.3.2. Overall Stability

The provisions of Article 9.6.2.3 shall apply.

- C Detailed guidance for evaluating the overall stability of anchored wall systems, including how to incorporate anchor forces in limit equilibrium slope stability analyses, is provided by Sabatini et al. (1999).
- C The effect of discrete vertical elements penetrating deep failure planes and acting as in-situ soil improvement may be negligible if the percentage of reinforcement provided by the vertical elements along the failure surface is small. However, it is possible to consider the effect of the discrete vertical elements by modeling the elements as cohesion along the failure surface, or by evaluating the passive capacity of the elements.

9.9.4. Safety against Soil Failure

9.9.4.1. Bearing Resistance

The provisions of Articles 8.6.3, 8.7.3, and 8.8.3 shall apply.

Bearing resistance shall be determined assuming that all vertical components of loads are transferred to the embedded section of the vertical wall elements.

- C For drilled in place vertical wall elements, e.g., drilled-in soldier piles, in sands, if the β -method is used to calculate the skin friction capacity, the depth z should be referenced to the top of the wall. The vertical overburden stress, σ_v' , however, should be calculated with reference to the elevation of the mid-height of the exposed wall, with β and σ_v' evaluated at the midpoint of each soil layer.

9.9.4.2. Anchor Pullout Capacity

- C Anchor pullout capacity is influenced by soil and rock conditions, method of anchor hole advancement, hole diameter, bonded length, grout type and grouting pressure (Information on anchor pullout capacity may be found in Sabatini et al. (1999), PTI (1996), Cheney (1984), and Weatherby (1982)).

Prestressed anchors shall be designed to resist pullout of the bonded length in soil or rock. The factored pullout resistance of a straight shaft anchor in soil or rock, Q_R , is determined as:

$$Q_R = \phi Q_n = \phi \pi d \tau_a L_b \quad (9.12)$$

where:

- ϕ = resistance factor for anchor pullout (dim.)
- Q_n = nominal anchor pullout resistance (N)
- d = diameter of anchor drill hole (mm)
- τ_n = nominal anchor bond stress (MPa)
- L_b = anchor bond length (mm)

For preliminary design, the resistance of anchors may either be based on the results of anchor pullout load tests; estimated based on a review of geologic and boring data, soil and rock samples, laboratory testing and previous experience; or estimated using published soil/rock-grout bond guidelines.

For final design, the contract documents may require preproduction tests such as pullout tests or extended creep tests on sacrificial anchors be conducted to establish anchor lengths and capacities that are consistent with the contractor's chosen method of anchor installation. Either performance or proof tests shall be conducted on every production anchor to 1.0 or greater times the factored load to verify capacity.

- C As a guide, the presumptive values provided in [Table 9.2](#), [Table 9.3](#) and [Table 9.4](#) may be used to estimate the nominal (ultimate) bond for small diameter anchors installed in cohesive soils, cohesionless soils and rock, respectively. It should be recognized that the values provided in the tables may be conservative.

Table 9.2: Presumptive Ultimate Unit Bond Stress for Anchors in Cohesive Soils.

Anchor/Soil Type (Grout Pressure)	Soil Stiffness or Unconfined Compressive Strength (MPa)	Presumptive Ultimate Unit Bond Stress, τ_n (MPa)
Gravity Grouted Anchors (<0.35 MPa)		
Silt-Clay Mixtures	Stiff to Very Stiff 0.096–0.383	0.03 to 0.07
Pressure Grouted Anchors (0.35 – 2.8 MPa)		
High Plasticity Clay	Stiff 0.096–0.239 V. Stiff 0.239–0.383	0.03 to 0.10 0.07 to 0.17
Medium Plasticity Clay	Stiff 0.096–0.239 V. Stiff 0.239–0.383	0.10 to 0.25 0.14 to 0.35
Medium Plasticity Sandy Silt	V. Stiff 0.239–0.383	0.28 to 0.38

Table 9.3: Presumptive Ultimate Unit Bond Stress for Anchors in Cohesionless Soils.

Anchor/Soil Type (Grout Pressure)	Soil Compactness or SPT Resistance ¹	Presumptive Ultimate Unit Bond Stress, τ_n (MPa)
Gravity Grouted Anchors (<0.35 MPa)		
Sand or Sand-Gravel Mixtures	Medium Dense to Dense 11–50	0.07 to 0.14
Pressure Grouted Anchors (0.35– 2.8 MPa)		
Fine to Medium Sand	Medium Dense to Dense 11–50	0.08 to 0.38
Medium to Coarse Sand w/ Gravel	Medium Dense 11–30	0.11 to 0.67
	Dense to Very Dense 30–50+	0.25 to 0.95
Silty Sands	—	0.17 to 0.40
Sandy Gravel	Medium Dense to Dense 11–40	0.21 to 1.4
	Dense to Very Dense 40–50	0.28 to 1.4

¹ Corrected for overburden pressure.

Glacial Till	Dense 31–50	0.30 to 0.52
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Table 9.4: Presumptive Ultimate Unit Bond Stress for Anchors in Rock.

Rock Type	Presumptive Ultimate Unit Bond Stress, τ_n (MPa)
Granite or Basalt	1.7 to 3.1
Dolomitic Limestone	1.4 to 2.1
Soft Limestone	1.0 to 1.4
Slates & Hard Shales	0.80 to 1.4
Sandstones	0.80 to 1.7
Weathered Sandstones	0.70 to 0.80
Soft Shales	0.20 to 0.80

- C The presumptive ultimate anchor bond stress values presented in [Table 9.2](#) through [Table 9.4](#) are intended for preliminary design or evaluation of the feasibility of straight shaft anchors installed in small diameter holes.
- C Pressure-grouted anchors may achieve much higher capacities. The total capacity of a pressure-grouted anchor may exceed 2×10^6 N in soil or 9×10^6 to 13×10^6 N in rock, although such high capacity anchors are seldom used for highway applications. Post-grouting can also increase the load carrying capacity of straight shaft anchors by 20–50 percent or more per phase of post-grouting.
- C The resistance factors in [Table 9.1](#), in combination with the load factor EH for apparent earth pressure for anchored walls ([Table 3.2](#)), are consistent with what would be required based on allowable stress design, for preliminary design of anchors for pullout ([Sabatini et al., 1999](#)). These resistance factors are also consistent with the results of statistical calibration of full scale anchor pullout tests relative to the minimum values of presumptive ultimate unit bond stresses shown in [Table 9.2](#) through [Table 9.4](#). Use of the resistance factors in [Table 9.1](#) and the load factor for apparent earth pressure for anchor walls in [Table 3.2](#), with values of presumptive ultimate unit bond stresses other than the minimum values in [Table 9.2](#) through [Table 9.4](#) could result in unconservative designs unless the Engineer has previous experience with the particular soil or rock unit in which the bond zone will be established.
- C Presumptive bond stresses greater than the minimum values shown in [Table 9.2](#) through [Table 9.4](#) should be used with caution, and be based on past successful local experience, such as a high percentage of passing proof tests in the specified or similar soil or rock unit at the design bond stress chosen, or anchor pullout test results in the specified or similar soil or rock unit. Furthermore, in some cases the specified range of presumptive bond stresses is representative of a range of soil conditions. Soil conditions at the upper end of the specified range, especially if coupled with previous experience with the particular soil unit, may be considered in the selection of anchor bond stresses above the minimum values shown. Selection of a presumptive bond stress for preliminary anchor sizing should consider the risk of failing proof tests if the selected bond stress was to be used for final design. The goal of preliminary anchor design is to reduce the risk of having a significant number of production anchors fail proof or performance tests as well as the risk of having to redesign the anchored wall to accommodate more anchors due to an inadequate easement behind the wall, should the anchor capacities predicted during preliminary design not be achievable.
- C See Article [9.9.8.1](#) for guidance on anchor testing.
- C Significant increases in anchor capacity for anchor bond lengths greater than approximately 12 000 mm cannot be achieved unless specialized methods are used to transfer load from the top of the anchor bond zone towards the end of the anchor. This is especially critical for strain sensitive soils, in which residual soil strength is significantly lower than the peak soil strength.

The anchor load shall be developed by suitable embedment outside of the critical failure surface in the retained soil mass.

Determination of the unbonded anchor length, inclination, and overburden cover shall consider:

- The location of the critical failure surface furthest from the wall,

- The minimum length required to ensure minimal loss of anchor prestress due to long-term ground movements,
 - The depth to adequate anchoring strata, as indicated in [Figure 9.7](#), and
 - The method of anchor installation and grouting.
- C Anchor inclination and spacing will be controlled by soil and rock conditions, the presence of geometric constraints and the required anchor capacity. For tremie-grouted anchors, a minimum angle of inclination of about 10° and a minimum overburden cover of about 4500 mm are typically required to assure grouting of the entire bonded length and to provide sufficient ground cover above the anchorage zone. For pressure-grouted anchors, the angle of inclination is generally not critical and is governed primarily by geometric constraints, and the minimum overburden cover is typically 1800–4500 mm. Steep inclinations may be required to avoid anchorage in unsuitable soil or rock. Special situations may require horizontal or near horizontal anchors, in which case proof of sufficient overburden and full grouting should be required.
- C The minimum horizontal spacing of anchors should be the larger of three times the diameter of the bonded zone, or 1500 mm. If smaller spacings are required to develop the required load, consideration may be given to differing anchor inclinations between alternating anchors¹.
- C Anchors used for walls constructed in fill situations, i.e., bottom-up construction, should be enclosed in protective casing to prevent damage during backfill placement, compaction and settlement.
- C Selection of anchor type depends on anticipated service life, soil and rock conditions, ground water level, subsurface environmental conditions, and method of construction.

9.9.4.3. Passive Resistance

The provisions of Articles [9.6.3.5](#), [9.6.3.6](#), and [9.8.4.1](#) shall apply.

- C It is recommended in [Sabatini et al. \(1999\)](#) that methods such as the Broms Method or the Wang and Reese method be used to evaluate passive resistance and the wall vertical element embedment depth needed. However, these methods have not been calibrated for this application for LRFD as yet.

9.9.5. Safety against Structural Failure

9.9.5.1. Anchors

- C Anchor tendons typically consist of steel bars, wires or strands. The selection of anchor type is generally the responsibility of the contractor.

The horizontal component of anchor design force shall be computed using the provisions of Article [9.9.2](#) and any other horizontal pressure components acting on the wall in Article [3.10](#). The total anchor design force shall be determined based on the anchor inclination. The horizontal anchor spacing and anchor capacity shall be selected to provide the required total anchor design force.

¹ The minimum horizontal spacing specified for anchors is intended to reduce stress overlap between adjacent anchors.

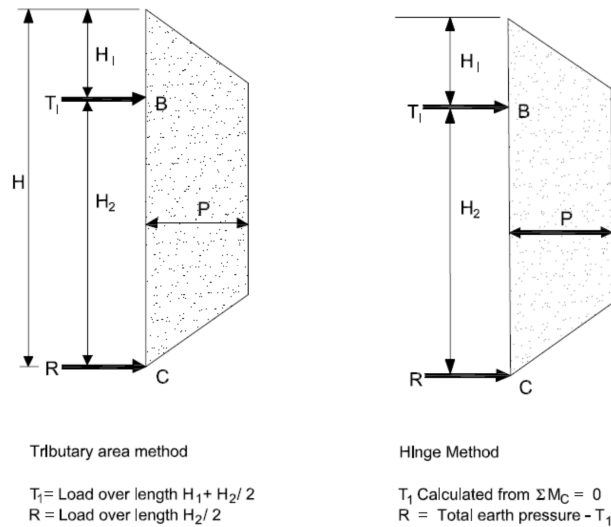


Figure 9.9: Calculation of Anchor Loads for One- Level Wall after Sabatini et al. (1999).

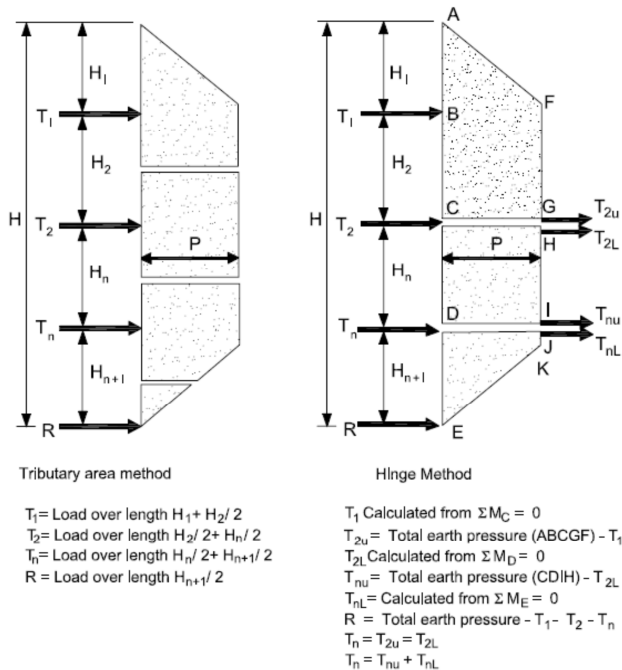


Figure 9.10: Calculation of Anchor Loads for Multilevel Wall after Sabatini et al. (1999).

- C A number of suitable methods for the determination of anchor loads are in common use. Sabatini et al. (1999) provides two methods which can be used: the Tributary Area Method and the Hinge Method. These methods are illustrated in Figure 9.9 and Figure 9.10. These figures assume that the soil below the base of the excavation has sufficient strength to resist the reaction force R . If the soil providing passive resistance below the base of the excavation is weak and is inadequate to carry the reaction force R , the lowest anchor should be designed to carry both the anchor load as shown in the figures as well as the reaction force. See Article 9.8.4.1 for evaluation of passive resistance. Alternatively, soil-structure interaction analyses, e.g., beam on elastic foundation, can be used to design continuous beams with small toe reactions, as it may be overly conservative to assume that all of the load is carried by the lowest anchor.
- C In no case should the maximum test load be less than the factored load for the anchor.

9.9.5.2. Vertical Wall Elements

Vertical wall elements shall be designed to resist all horizontal earth pressure, surcharge, water pressure, anchor, and seismic loadings, as well as the vertical component of the anchor loads and any other vertical loads. Horizontal supports may be assumed at each anchor location and at the bottom of the excavation if the vertical element is sufficiently embedded below the bottom of the excavation.

C Discrete vertical wall elements are continuous throughout their length and include:

- driven piles;
- caissons;
- drilled shafts;
- auger-cast piles, i.e., piles and built-up sections installed in pre-augured holes and backfilled with structural concrete in the passive zone and lean concrete in the exposed section of the wall.

C Continuous vertical wall elements are continuous throughout both their length and width, although vertical joints may prevent shear and/or moment transfer between adjacent sections.

C Continuous vertical wall elements include:

- sheet piles;
- precast or cast-in-place concrete diaphragm wall panels;
- tangent-piles;
- tangent caissons.

C For structural analysis methods, see [Section 4](#).

C For walls supported in or through soft clays with $S_u < 0.15\gamma_s' H \times 10^{-9}$, continuous vertical elements extending well below the exposed base of the wall may be required to prevent heave in front of the wall. Otherwise, the vertical elements are embedded approximately 900 mm or as required for stability or end bearing.

9.9.5.3. Facing

The provisions of Article [9.8.5.2](#) shall apply.

9.9.6. Seismic Design

The provisions of Article [9.8.6](#) shall apply (see commentary in Article [9.8.6](#)).

9.9.7. Corrosion Protection

Prestressed anchors and anchor heads shall be protected against corrosion consistent with the ground and groundwater conditions at the site. The level and extent of corrosion protection shall be a function of the ground environment and the potential consequences of an anchor failure. Corrosion protection shall be applied in accordance with the provisions of MA-100-C-V1/1, Section 8, “Ground Anchors.”

C Corrosion protection for piles, wales, and miscellaneous hardware and material should be consistent with the level of protection for the anchors and the design life of the structure.

9.9.8. Construction and Installation

9.9.8.1. Anchor Stressing and Testing

All production anchors shall be subjected to load testing and stressing in accordance with the provisions of MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 8.6, “Testing and Stressing.” Preproduction load tests may be specified when unusual conditions are encountered to verify the safety with respect to the design load to establish the ultimate anchor load (pullout test), or to identify the load at which excessive creep occurs.

At the end of the testing of each production anchor, the anchor should be locked off to take up slack in the anchored wall system to reduce post-construction wall deformation. The lock-off load should be determined and applied as described in MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 8.6.6.

- C Common anchor load tests include pullout tests performed on sacrificial preproduction anchors, and creep, performance, and proof tests performed the production anchors.
- C None of the production anchor tests determine the actual ultimate anchor load capacity. The production anchor test results only provide an indication of serviceability under a specified load.
- C *Performance tests* consist of incremental loading and unloading of anchors to verify sufficient capacity to resist the test load, verify the free length and evaluate the permanent set of the anchor.
- C *Proof tests*, usually performed on each production anchor, consist of a single loading and unloading cycle to verify sufficient capacity to resist the test load and to prestress the anchor.
- C *Creep tests*, recommended for cohesive soils with a plasticity index greater than 20 percent or a liquid limit greater than 50 percent, and highly weathered, soft rocks, consist of incremental, maintained loading of anchors to assess the potential for loss of anchor bond capacity due to ground creep.
- C Pullout tests should be considered in the following circumstances:
 - If the preliminary anchor design using unit bond stresses provided in the tables above indicate that anchored walls are marginally infeasible, requiring that a more accurate estimate of anchor capacity be obtained during wall design. This may occur due to lack of adequate room laterally to accommodate the estimated anchor length within the available right-of-way or easement;
 - If the anticipated anchor installation method or soil/rock conditions are significantly different than those assumed to develop the presumptive values in [Table 9.2](#) through [Table 9.4](#) and inadequate site specific experience is available to make a reasonably accurate estimate of the soil/rock-grout anchor bond stresses.
- C The FHWA recommends load testing anchors to 125 percent to ISO percent of the unfactored design load, [Cheney \(1984\)](#). Maximum load levels between 125 percent and 200 percent have been used to evaluate the potential for tendon overstress in service, to accommodate unusual or variable ground conditions or to assess the effect of ground creep on anchor capacity. Test load levels greater than ISO percent of the unfactored design load are normally applied only to anchors in soft cohesive soil or unstable soil masses where loss of anchor prestress due to creep warrants evaluation. The area of prestressing steel in the test anchor tendon may require being increased to perform these tests.
- C Note that the test details provided in the MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 8.6, at least with regard to the magnitude of the incremental test loads, were developed for allowable stress design. These incremental test loads should be divided by the load factor for apparent earth pressure for anchored walls provided in [Table 3.2](#) when testing to factored anchor loads.
- C Typically, the anchor lock-off load is equal to 80 to 100 percent of the nominal (unfactored) anchor load to ensure that the slack in the anchored wall system is adequately taken up so that post-construction wall deformation is minimized. However, a minimum lock-off load of 50 percent is necessary to properly engage strand anchor head wedges.

9.9.9. Drainage

The provisions of Article [9.8.8](#) shall apply.

- C Thin drains at the back of the wall face may not completely relieve hydrostatic pressure and may increase seepage forces on the back of the wall face due to rainwater infiltration, [Terzaghi and Peck \(1967\)](#), and [Cedergren \(1989\)](#). The effectiveness of drainage control measures should be evaluated by seepage analyses.

9.10. MECHANICALLY STABILIZED EARTH WALLS

9.10.1. General

MSE walls may be considered where conventional gravity, cantilever, or counterforted concrete retaining walls and prefabricated modular retaining walls are considered, and particularly where substantial total and differential settlements are anticipated.

- C Use of Mechanically Stabilized Earth (MSE) walls to support bridges is a more economical solution than cast-in-place structures. The MSE walls are used for direct support (Abutment resting on a spread footing atop the MSE structure) and indirect support (Abutment on piles with the MSE structure supporting the fill) of bridge structures. The typical components of an MSE wall are shown in [Figure 9.11](#), [Figure 9.12](#) and [Figure 9.13](#).

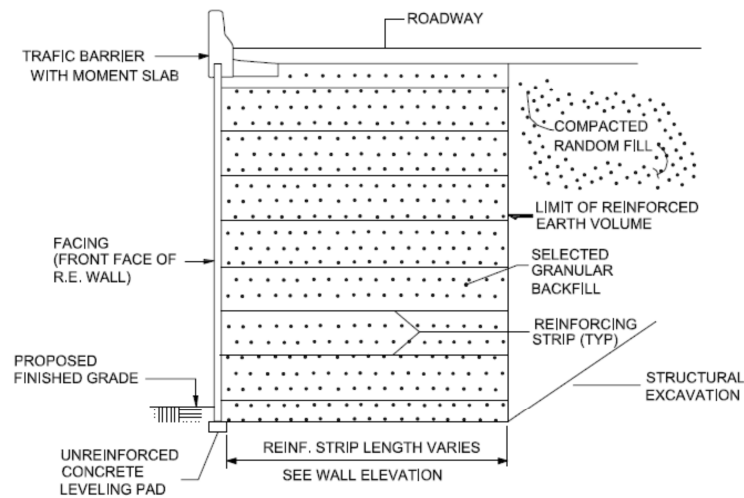


Figure 9.11: Components of an MSE Wall supporting a roadway

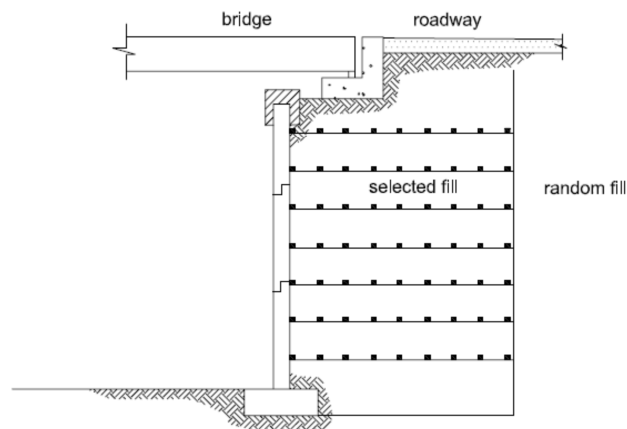


Figure 9.12: Components of an MSE Wall supporting a roadway and bridge

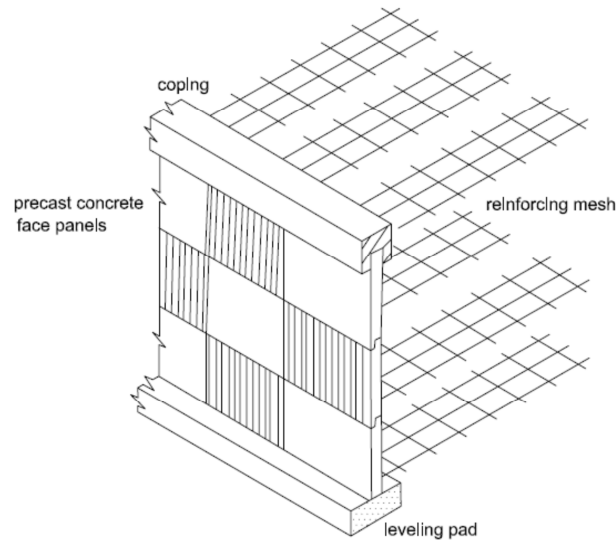


Figure 9.13: 3D-View of an MSE Wall Components

- C Mechanically stabilized earth (MSE) systems, whose elements may be proprietary, employ either metallic (strip or grid type) or geosynthetic (geotextile, strip, or geogrid) tensile reinforcements in the soil mass, and a facing element which is vertical or near vertical. MSE walls behave as a gravity wall, deriving their lateral resistance through the dead weight of the reinforced soil mass behind the facing. For relatively thick facings, the dead weight of the facing may also provide a significant contribution to the capacity of the wall system. Typical MSE walls are shown in [Figure 9.14](#).

When two intersecting walls form an enclosed angle of 70° or less, the affected portion of the wall shall be designed as an internally tied bin structure with at-rest earth pressure coefficients.

MSE walls shall not be used under the following conditions:

- Where utilities other than highway drainage are to be constructed within the reinforced zone unless access is provided to utilities without disrupting reinforcements and breakage or rupture of utility lines will not have a detrimental effect on the stability of the structure.
- Where floodplain erosion or scour may undermine the reinforced fill zone or facing, or any supporting footing.
- With reinforcements exposed to surface or ground water contaminated by acid mine drainage, other industrial pollutants, or other environmental conditions defined as aggressive in Article 9.3.4.3 of the MA-100-C-V1/1, unless environmental-specific, long-term corrosion, or degradation studies are conducted.

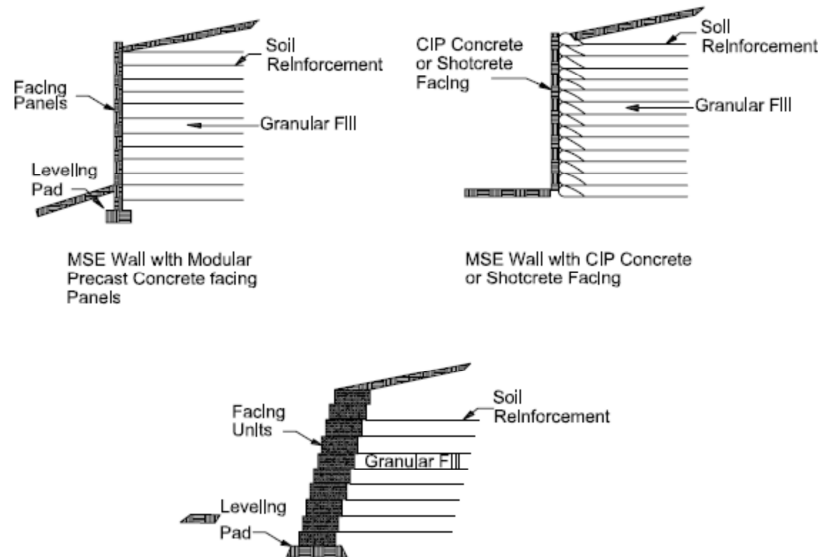


Figure 9.14: Typical Mechanically Stabilized Earth Walls.

- C All available data indicates that corrosion in MSE walls is not accelerated by stray currents from electric rail lines due to the discontinuity of the earth reinforcements in a direction parallel to the source of the stray current. Where metallic reinforcements are used in areas of anticipated stray currents within 60 000 mm of the structure, and the metallic reinforcements are continuously connected in a direction parallel to the source of stray currents, a corrosion expert should evaluate the potential need for corrosion control requirements. More detailed information on stray current corrosion issues is provided by [Sankey and Anderson \(1999\)](#).
- C Where future access to utilities may be gained without disrupting reinforcements and where leakage from utilities would not create detrimental hydraulic conditions or degrade reinforcements, utilities in the reinforced zone may be acceptable.
- C The potential for catastrophic failure due to scour is high for MSE walls if the reinforced fill is lost during a scour occurrence. Consideration may be given to lowering the base of the wall or to alternative methods of scour protection, such as sheetpile walls and/or riprap of sufficient size, placed to a sufficient depth to preclude scour.

MSE walls shall be designed for external stability of the wall system as well as internal stability of the reinforced soil mass behind the facing. Overall and compound stability failure shall be considered. Structural design of the wall facing shall also be considered.

The specifications provided herein for MSE walls do not apply to geometrically complex MSE wall systems such as tiered walls (walls stacked on top of one another), back-to-back walls, or walls which have trapezoidal sections. Design guidelines for these cases are provided in [FHWA publication No. FHWA-NHI-00-043 \(Elias et al., 2001\)](#). Compound stability should also be evaluated for these complex MSE wall systems (see Article [9.10.4.3](#)).

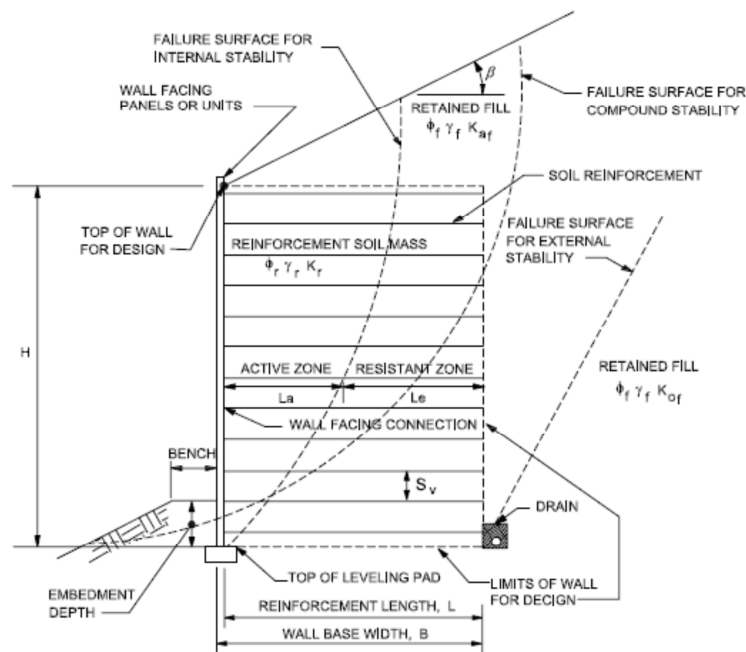
- C For simple structures with rectangular geometry, relatively uniform reinforcement spacing, and a near vertical face, compound failures passing both through the unreinforced and reinforced zones will not generally be critical. However, if complex conditions exist such as changes in reinforced soil types or reinforcement lengths, high surcharge loads, sloping faced structures, a slope at the toe of the wall, or stacked structures, compound failures must be considered.
- C Internal design of MSE wall systems requires knowledge of short- and long-term properties of the materials used as soil reinforcements as well as the soil mechanics which govern MSE wall behavior.

9.10.2. Structure Dimensions

An illustration of the MSE wall element dimensions required for design is provided in [Figure 9.15](#).

The size and embedment depth of the reinforced soil mass shall be determined based on:

- requirements for stability and geotechnical strength, as specified in Article [9.10.5](#) consistent with requirements for gravity walls,
- requirements for structural resistance within the reinforced soil mass itself, as specified in Article [9.10.6](#), for the panel units, and for the development of reinforcement beyond assumed failure zones, and
- traditional requirements for reinforcement length not less than 70 percent of the wall height, except as noted in Article [9.10.2.1](#).



For external and internal stability calculations, the weight and dimensions of the facing element are typically ignored. However, it is acceptable to include the facing dimensions and weight in sliding and bearing capacity calculations. For internal stability calculations, the wall dimensions are considered to begin at the facing elements.

Figure 9.15: MSE Wall Element Dimensions Needed for Design.

9.10.2.1. Minimum Length of Soil Reinforcement

For sheet-, strip-, and grid-type reinforcement, the minimum soil reinforcement length shall be 70 percent of the wall height as measured from the leveling pad.

Reinforcement length shall be increased as required for surcharges and other external loads, or for soft foundation soils.

- C In general, a minimum reinforcement length of 2400 mm, regardless of wall height, has been recommended based on historical practice, primarily due to size limitations of conventional spreading and compaction equipment. Shorter minimum reinforcement lengths, on the order of 1800 mm, but no less than 70 percent of the wall height, can be considered if smaller compaction equipment is used,

facing panel alignment can be maintained, and minimum requirements for wall external stability are met.

- C The requirement for uniform reinforcement length equal to 70 percent of the structure height has no theoretical justification, but has been the basis of many successful designs to-date. Parametric studies considering minimum acceptable soil strengths have shown that structure dimensions satisfying all of the requirements of Article 11.1 0.5 require length to height ratios varying from $0.8H$ for low structures, i.e., 3000 mm, to $0.63H$ for high structures, i.e., 12000 mm.
- C Significant shortening of the reinforcement elements below the minimum recommended ratio of $0.7H$ may only be considered when accurate, site specific determinations of the strength of the unreinforced fill and the foundation soil have been made. Christopher et al. (1990) presents results which strongly suggest that shorter reinforcing length to height ratios, i.e., $0.5H$ to $0.6H$, substantially increase horizontal deformations.

The reinforcement length shall be uniform throughout the entire height of the wall, unless substantiating evidence is presented to indicate that variation in length is satisfactory.

- C A non-uniform reinforcement length may be considered under the following circumstances:
 - Lengthening of the uppermost reinforcement layers to beyond $0.7H$ to meet pullout requirements, or to address seismic or impact loads.
 - Lengthening of the lowermost reinforcement layers beyond $0.7H$ to meet overall (global) stability requirements based on the results of a detailed global stability analysis.
 - Shortening of the bottom reinforcement layers to less than $0.7H$ to minimize excavation requirements, provided the wall is bearing on rock or very competent foundation soil (see below).
- C For walls on rock or very competent foundation soil, e.g., $SPT > 50$, the bottom reinforcements may be shortened to a minimum of $0.4H$ with the upper reinforcements lengthened to compensate for external stability issues in lieu of removing rock or competent soil for construction. Design guidelines for this case are provided in FHWA Publication No. FHWA-NHI-00-043 (Elias et al., 2001).
- C For conditions of marginal stability, consideration must be given to ground improvement techniques to improve foundation stability, or to lengthening of reinforcement.

9.10.2.2. Minimum Front Face Embedment

The minimum embedment depth of the bottom of the reinforced soil mass (top of the leveling pad) shall be based on bearing resistance, settlement, and stability requirements determined in accordance with [Section 8](#).

- C For structures constructed on slopes, minimum horizontal benches are intended to provide resistance to local bearing resistance failure consistent with resistance to general bearing resistance failure and to provide access for maintenance inspections.

Unless constructed on rock foundations, the embedment at the front face of the wall in mm shall not be less than:

- A depth based on the prevailing depth of frost penetration, if the soil below the wall is frost susceptible, and the external stability requirement, and
- 600 mm on sloping ground (4.0H:1V or steeper) or where there is potential for removal of the soil in front of the wall toe due to erosion or future excavation, or 300 mm on level ground where there is no potential for erosion or future excavation of the soil in front of the wall toe.
- C The minimum embedment guidelines provided in [Table 9.5](#) may be used to preclude local bearing resistance failure under the leveling pad or footing due to higher vertical stresses transmitted by the facing.

Table 9.5: Guide for Minimum Front Face Embedment Depth.

Slope in Front of Structures		Minimum Embedment Depth
Horizontal	for walls	H/20.0
	for abutments	H/10.0
3.0H:1.0V	Walls	H/10.0
2.0H:1.0V	Walls	H/7.0
1.5H:1.0V	Walls	H/5.0

For walls constructed along rivers and streams, embedment depths shall be established at a minimum of 600 mm below potential scour depth as determined in accordance with Article 9.6.3.5.

As an alternative to locating the wall base below the depth of frost penetration where frost susceptible soils are present, the soil within the depth and lateral extent of frost penetration below the wall can be removed and replaced with non-frost susceptible clean granular soil.

A minimum horizontal bench width of 1200 mm. shall be provided in front of walls founded on slopes.

The bench may be formed or the slope continued above that level as shown in Figure 9.15.

The lowest backfill reinforcement layer shall not be located above the long-term ground surface in front of the wall.

9.10.2.3. Facing

Facing elements shall be designed to resist the horizontal force in the soil reinforcements at the reinforcement to facing connection, as specified in Articles 9.10.6.2.2 and 9.10.7.3. (See Article 3.10.2 for guidance).

- C Additional information on compaction stresses can be found in Duncan and Seed (1986) and Duncan et al. (1991). Alternatively, compaction stresses can be addressed through the use of facing systems which have a proven history of being able to resist the compaction activities anticipated behind the wall and which have performed well in the long-term.

In addition to these horizontal forces, the facing elements shall also be designed to resist potential compaction stresses occurring near the wall face during erection of the wall.

The tension in the reinforcement may be assumed to be resisted by a uniformly distributed earth pressure on the back of the facing.

The facing shall be stabilized such that it does not deflect laterally or bulge beyond the established tolerances.

1. Stiff or Rigid Concrete and Steel Facing

Facing elements shall be structurally designed in accordance with Section 5 and Section 6 for concrete and steel facings, respectively.

The minimum thickness for concrete panels at, and in the zone of stress influence of, embedded connections shall be 140 mm and 90 mm elsewhere. The minimum concrete cover shall be 38 mm. Reinforcement shall be provided to resist the average loading conditions for each panel. Temperature and shrinkage steel shall be provided as specified in Article 5.10.6.

- C The specified minimum panel thicknesses and concrete cover recognize that MSE walls are often employed where panels may be exposed to salt spray and/or other corrosive environments. The

minimum thicknesses also reflect the tolerances on panel thickness, and placement of reinforcement and connectors that can reasonably be conformed to in precast construction.

The structural integrity of concrete face panels shall be evaluated with respect to the shear and bending moment between reinforcements attached to the facing panel in accordance with [Section 5](#).

For segmental concrete facing blocks, facing stability calculations shall include an evaluation of the maximum vertical spacing between reinforcement layers, the maximum allowable facing height above the uppermost reinforcement layer, inter-unit shear capacity, and resistance of the facing to bulging. The maximum spacing between reinforcement layers shall be limited to twice the width, W_u illustrated in [Figure 9.26](#), of the segmental concrete facing block unit or 810 mm, whichever is less. The maximum facing height up to the wall surface grade above the uppermost reinforcement layer shall be limited to $1.5W_u$ illustrated in [Figure 9.26](#) or 600 mm, whichever is less, provided that the facing above the uppermost reinforcement layer is demonstrated to be stable against a toppling failure through detailed calculations. The maximum depth of facing below the lowest reinforcement layer shall be limited to the width, W_u , of the proposed segmental concrete facing block unit.

- C Based on research by [Allen and Bathurst \(2001\)](#), facings consisting of segmental concrete facing blocks behave as a very stiff facing, due to the ability of the facing blocks to transmit moment in a vertical direction throughout the facing column, and appear to have even greater stiffness than incremental precast concrete panels.
- C Experience has shown that for walls with segmental concrete block facings, the gap between soil reinforcement sections or strips at a horizontal level should be limited to a maximum of one block width to limit bulging of the facing between reinforcement levels or build up of unacceptable stresses that could result in performance problems. The ability of the facing to carry moment horizontally to bridge across the gaps in the reinforcement horizontally should be evaluated if horizontally discontinuous reinforcement is used, i.e., a reinforcement coverage ratio $R_c < 1$.

2. Flexible Wall Facings

If welded wire, expanded metal, or similar facing is used, they shall be designed in a manner which prevents the occurrence of excessive bulging as backfill behind the facing compresses due to compaction stresses or self weight of the backfill. This may be accomplished by limiting the size of individual facing elements vertically and the vertical and horizontal spacing of the soil reinforcement layers, and by requiring the facing to have an adequate amount of vertical slip and overlap between adjacent elements.

- C Experience has shown that for welded wire, expanded metal, or similar facings, vertical reinforcement spacing should be limited to a maximum of 600 mm and the gap between soil reinforcement at a horizontal level limited to a maximum of 900 mm to limit bulging of the panels between reinforcement levels. The section modulus of the facing material should be evaluated and calculations provided to support reinforcement spacings, which will meet the bulging requirements stated in Article [9.10.4.2](#)

The top of the flexible facing at the top of the wall shall be attached to a soil reinforcement layer to provide stability to the top facing.

Geosynthetic facing elements shall not, in general, be left exposed to sunlight (specifically ultraviolet radiation) for permanent walls. If geosynthetic facing elements must be left exposed permanently to sunlight, the geosynthetic shall be stabilized to be resistant to ultraviolet radiation. Product specific test data shall be provided which can be extrapolated to the intended design life and which proves that the product will be capable of performing as intended in an exposed environment.

3. Corrosion Issues for MSE Facing

Steel-to-steel contact between the soil reinforcement connections and the concrete facing steel reinforcement shall be prevented so that contact between dissimilar metals, e.g., bare facing reinforcement steel and galvanized soil reinforcement steel, does not occur.

- C Steel-to-steel contact in this case can be prevented through the placement of a nonconductive material between the soil reinforcement face connection and the facing concrete reinforcing steel. Examples of measures which can be used to mitigate corrosion include, but are not limited to, coatings, sealants, or increased panel thickness.

A corrosion protection system shall be provided where salt spray is anticipated.

9.10.3. Loading

The provisions of Article 9.6.1.2 shall apply, except that shrinkage and temperature effects need not be considered to come in contact with steel wall elements.

9.10.4. Movement and Stability at the Service Limit State

9.10.4.1. Settlement

The provisions of Article 9.6.2 shall apply as applicable.

The allowable settlement of MSE walls shall be established based on the longitudinal deformability of the facing and the ultimate purpose of the structure.

Where foundation conditions indicate large differential settlements over short horizontal distances, vertical full-height slip joints shall be provided.

Differential settlement from the front to the back of the wall shall also be evaluated, especially regarding the effect on facing deformation, alignment, and connection stresses.

- C For systems with rigid concrete facing panels and with a maximum joint width of 19 mm, the maximum tolerable slope resulting from calculated differential settlement may be taken as given in Table 9.6.

Table 9.6: Guide for Limiting Distortion for Precast Concrete Facings of MSE Walls.

Joint Width(mm)	Limiting Differential Settlement	
	Area ≤ 2800000 mm ²	2 800 000 mm ² $\leq$ Area ≤ 7000000 mm ²
19	1/100	1/200
13	1/200	1/300
6	1/300	1/600

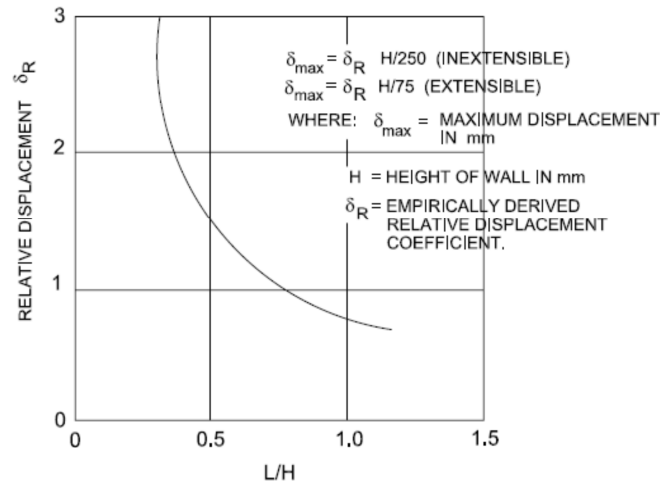
- C For MSE walls with full height precast concrete facing panels, total settlement should be limited to 50 mm, and the limiting differential settlement should be 1/500. For walls with segmental concrete block facings, the limiting differential settlement should be 1/200. For walls with welded wire facings or walls in which cast-in-place concrete or shotcrete facing is placed after wall settlement is essentially complete, the limiting differential settlement should be 1/50. These limiting differential settlement criteria consider only structural needs of the facing. More stringent differential settlement criteria may be needed to meet aesthetic requirements.

9.10.4.2. Lateral Displacement

Lateral wall displacements shall be estimated as a function of overall structure stiffness, compaction intensity, soil type, reinforcement length, slack in reinforcement-

to-facing connections, and deformability of the facing system or based on monitored wall performance.

- C A first order estimate of lateral wall displacements occurring during wall construction for simple MSE walls on firm foundations can be obtained from [Figure 9.16](#). If significant vertical settlement is anticipated or heavy surcharges are present, lateral displacements could be considerably greater. [Figure 9.16](#) is appropriate as a guide to establish an appropriate wall face batter to obtain a near vertical wall or to determine minimum clearances between the wall face and adjacent objects or structures.



Based on 6100 high walls, relative displacement increases approximately 25% for every 0.0192 MPa of surcharge. Experience indicates that for higher walls, the surcharge effect may be greater.

Note: This figure is only a guide. Actual displacement will depend, in addition to the parameters addressed in the figure, on soil characteristics, compaction effort, and contractor workmanship.

Figure 9.16: Empirical Curve for Estimating Anticipated Lateral Displacement during Construction for MSE Walls.

- C For welded wire or similarly faced walls such as gabion faced walls, the maximum tolerable facing bulge between connections, both horizontally and vertically, with soil reinforcement is approximately 50 mm. For geosynthetic facings, the maximum facing bulge between reinforcement layers should be approximately 70 mm for 300 mm vertical reinforcement spacing to 125 mm for 600 mm vertical reinforcement spacing.

9.10.4.3. Overall Stability

The provisions of Article [9.6.2.3](#) shall apply.

Additionally for MSE walls with complex geometrics, compound failure surfaces which pass through a portion of the reinforced soil mass as illustrated in [Figure 9.17](#) shall be investigated, especially where the wall is located on sloping or soft ground where overall stability may be inadequate. The long-term strength of each backfill reinforcement layer intersected by the failure surface should be considered as restoring forces in the limit equilibrium slope stability analysis.

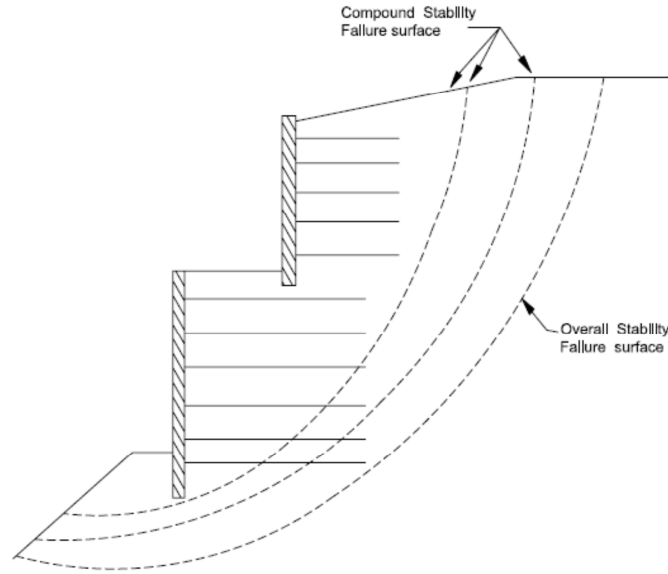


Figure 9.17: Overall and Compound Stability of Complex MSE Wall Systems.

9.10.5. Safety against Soil Failure (External Stability)

9.10.5.1. General

MSE structures shall be proportioned to satisfy eccentricity and sliding criteria normally associated with gravity structures.

Safety against soil failure shall be evaluated by assuming the reinforced soil mass to be a rigid body. The coefficient of active earth pressure, k_a , used to compute the earth pressure of the retained soil behind the reinforced soil mass shall be determined using the friction angle of the retained soil. In the absence of specific data, a maximum friction angle of 30° may be used for granular soils. Tests should be performed to determine the friction angle of cohesive soils considering both drained and undrained conditions.

- C Eccentricity requirements seldom govern design. Sliding and overall stability usually govern design of structures greater than 9000 mm in height, structures constructed on weak foundation soils, or structures loaded with sloping surcharges.

9.10.5.2. Loading

Lateral earth pressure distributions for design of MSE walls shall be taken as specified in Article 3.10.5.8. Application of loads for external and internal stability shall be taken as specified in Articles 9.10.5 and 9.10.6, respectively. Application of surcharge loads shall be taken as specified in Article 9.10.11. Application of load factors for these loads shall be taken as specified in Article 9.5.5.

For external stability calculations only, the active earth pressure coefficients for retained backfill, i.e., fill behind the reinforced soil mass, shall be taken as specified in Article 3.10.5.3 with $\delta = \beta$.

Dead load surcharges, if present, shall be taken into account in accordance with Article 9.10.10.

For investigation of sliding stability and eccentricity, the continuous traffic surcharge loads shall be considered to act beyond the end of the reinforced zone as shown in [Figure 9.18](#). Application of load factors for these loads shall be taken as specified in Article [9.5.5](#).

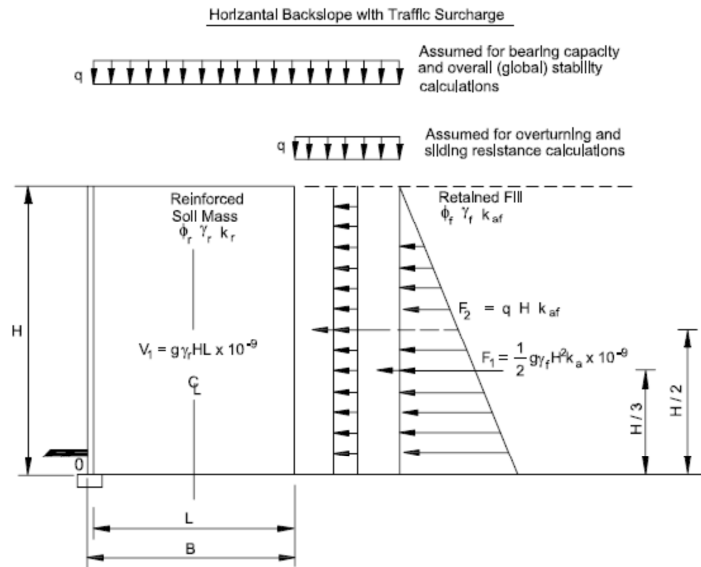


Figure 9.18: External Stability for Wall with Horizontal Backslope and Traffic Surcharge.

- C [Figure 3.36](#), [Figure 3.37](#) and [Figure 3.38](#) illustrate lateral earth pressure distributions for external stability of MSE walls with horizontal backslope, inclined backslope, and broken backslope, respectively.

9.10.5.3. Sliding

The provisions of Article [8.6.3.4](#) shall apply.

The coefficient of sliding friction at the base of the reinforced soil mass shall be determined using the friction angle of the foundation soil. For discontinuous reinforcements, e.g., strips, the angle of sliding friction shall be taken as the lesser of ϕ_r of the reinforced fill and ϕ_f of the foundation soil. For continuous reinforcements, e.g., grids and sheets, the angle of sliding friction shall be taken as the lesser of ϕ_r , ϕ_f and ρ , where ρ is the soil-reinforcement interface friction angle. In the absence of specific data, a maximum friction angle, ϕ_f , of 30° and a maximum soil-reinforcement interface angle, ρ , of $2/3 \phi_f$ may be used.

- C For relatively thick facing elements, it may be desirable to include the facing dimensions and weight in sliding and overturning calculations, i.e., use B in lieu of L as shown in [Figure 9.18](#).

9.10.5.4. Bearing Resistance

For the purpose of computing bearing resistance, an equivalent footing shall be assumed whose length is the length of the wall, and whose width is the length of the reinforcement strip at the foundation level. Bearing pressures shall be computed using a uniform base pressure distribution over an effective width of footing determined in accordance with the provisions of Articles [8.6.3.18.6.3.2](#).

- C The effect of eccentricity and load inclination is accommodated by the introduction of an effective width, $B' = L - 2e$, instead of the actual width.

- C For relatively thick facing elements, it may be reasonable to include the facing dimensions and weight in bearing calculations, i.e., use B in lieu of L as shown in [Figure 9.15](#).
- C Note, when the value of eccentricity e is negative: $B' = L$.
- C Due to the flexibility of MSE walls, a triangular pressure distribution at the wall base cannot develop, even if the wall base is founded on rock, as the reinforced soil mass has limited ability to transmit moment. Therefore, an equivalent uniform base pressure distribution is appropriate for MSE walls founded on either soil or rock.
- C Concentrated bearing stresses from the facing weight on soft soil could create concentrated stresses at the connection between the facing elements and the wall backfill reinforcement.

Where soft soils or sloping ground in front of the wall are present, the difference in bearing stress calculated for the wall reinforced soil zone relative to the local bearing stress beneath the facing elements shall be considered when evaluating bearing capacity. In both cases, the leveling pad shall be embedded adequately to meet bearing capacity requirements.

9.10.5.5. Overturning

The provisions of Article [9.6.3.3](#) shall apply.

9.10.6. Safety against Structural Failure (Internal Stability)

9.10.6.1. General

Safety against structural failure shall be evaluated with respect to pullout and rupture of reinforcement.

A preliminary estimate of the structural size of the stabilized soil mass may be determined on the basis of reinforcement pullout beyond the failure zone, for which resistance is specified in Article [9.10.6.3](#).

- C The resistance factors, specified in Article 11.5.6, are consistent with the use of select backfill in the reinforced zone, homogeneously placed and carefully controlled in the field for conformance with Section 9 of MA-100-C-V1/1. The basis for the factors is the successful construction of thousands of structures in accordance with these criteria, and the use of conservative pullout resistance factors representing high confidence limits.

9.10.6.2. Loading

The load in the reinforcement shall be determined at two critical locations: the zone of maximum stress and the connection with the wall face. Potential for reinforcement rupture and pullout are evaluated at the zone of maximum stress, which is assumed to be located at the boundary between the active zone and the resistant zone in [Figure 9.15](#). Potential for reinforcement rupture and pullout are also evaluated at the connection of the reinforcement to the wall facing.

The maximum friction angle used for the computation of horizontal force within the reinforced soil mass shall be assumed to be 34° , unless the specific project select backfill is tested for frictional strength by triaxial or direct shear testing methods, [AASHTO T 296 and T 297 or T 236](#), respectively. A design friction angle of greater than 40° shall not be used with the Simplified Method even if the measured friction angle is greater than 40° .

- C Loads carried by the soil reinforcement in mechanically stabilized earth walls are the result of vertical and lateral earth pressures, which exist within the reinforced soil mass, reinforcement extensibility, facing stiffness, wall toe restraint, and the stiffness and strength of the soil backfill within the reinforced soil mass.
- C The soil reinforcement extensibility and material type are major factors in determining reinforcement load.

- C In general, inextensible reinforcements¹ consist of metallic strips, bar mats, or welded wire mats, whereas extensible reinforcements consist of geotextiles or geogrids.
- C Inextensible reinforcements reach their peak strength at strains lower than the strain required for the soil to reach its peak strength.
- C Extensible reinforcements reach their peak strength at strains greater than the strain required for soil to reach its peak strength.
- C Internal stability failure modes include soil reinforcement rupture (strength limit state), and excessive reinforcement elongation under the design load (service limit state). The service limit state is not evaluated in current practice for internal stability design.
- C Internal stability is determined by equating the factored tensile load applied to the reinforcement to the factored tensile resistance of the reinforcement, the tensile resistance being governed by reinforcement rupture and pullout.
- C Analysis of full scale wall data in comparison to the Simplified Method or other widely accepted design methods (see Article [9.10.6.2.1](#)) indicates that these methods will significantly underestimate reinforcement loads if design soil friction angles greater than 40° are used. This recommendation applies to soil friction angles as determined using triaxial or direct shear tests, as the Simplified Method was calibrated using triaxial or direct shear soil strengths (see *Allen et al., 2001*).

1. Maximum Reinforcement Loads

Maximum reinforcement loads shall be calculated using the Simplified Method approach. For this approach, the load in the reinforcements shall be obtained by multiplying the vertical earth pressure at the reinforcement by a lateral earth pressure coefficient, and applying the resulting lateral pressure to the tributary area for the reinforcement.

Other widely accepted and published design methods for calculation of reinforcement loads may be used at the discretion of the wall owner or approving agency, provided the designer develops method-specific resistance factors for the method employed.

- C The design specifications provided herein assume that the wall facing combined with the reinforced backfill acts as a coherent unit to form a gravity retaining structure.
- C Research by *Allen and Bathurst (2001)* indicates that reinforcement load is linear with reinforcement spacing to a reinforcement vertical spacing of 810 mm or more, though a vertical spacing of this magnitude should not be attempted unless the facing is considered to be adequately stiff to prevent excessive bulging between layers (see Article [9.10.2.3.2](#)).
- C These MSE wall specifications also assume that inextensible reinforcements are not mixed with extensible reinforcements within the same wall. MSE walls which contain a mixture of inextensible and extensible reinforcements are not recommended.
- C The calculation method for T_{max} is empirically derived, based on reinforcement strain measurements, converted to load based on the reinforcement modulus, from full scale walls at working stress conditions. The load factor EV , on the other hand, was determined in consideration of vertical earth pressure exerted by a soil mass without inclusions, and was calibrated to address uncertainties implied by allowable stress design for external stability for walls. EV is not directly applicable to internal reinforcement loads in MSE walls, since the calibration of EV was not performed with internal stability of a reinforced system in mind.
- C The use of EV for the load factor in this case should be considered an interim measure until research is completed to quantify load prediction bias and uncertainty.

The factored horizontal stress, σ_H , at each reinforcement level shall be determined as:

¹ Inextensible Reinforcements: Reinforcements whose deformation at failure is much less than the deformability of soil. Most steel reinforcements (for example: strips, ladders and bar mats) are inextensible.

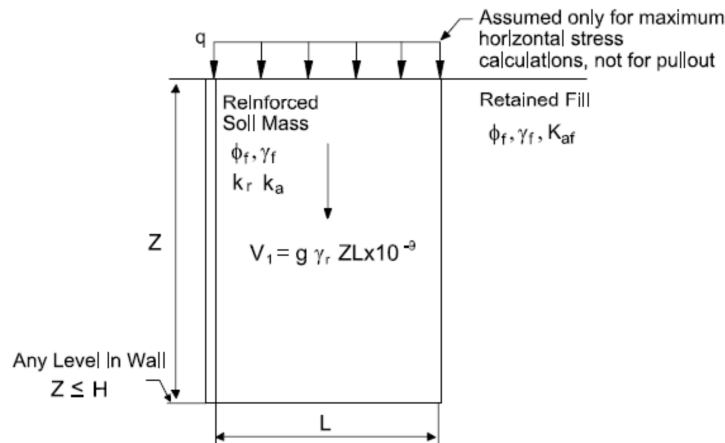
$$\sigma_H = \gamma_P (\sigma_v k_r + \Delta\sigma_H) \quad (9.13)$$

where:

- γ_P = the load factor for vertical earth pressure *EV* from [Table 3.2](#)
- k_r = horizontal pressure coefficient (dim.)
- σ_v = pressure due to resultant of gravity forces from soil self weight within and immediately above the reinforced wall backfill, and any surcharge loads present (MPa)
- $\Delta\sigma_H$ = horizontal stress at reinforcement level resulting from any applicable concentrated horizontal surcharge load as specified in [Article 9.10.10.1](#) (MPa)

Vertical stress for maximum reinforcement load calculations shall be determined as shown in [Figure 9.19](#) and [Figure 9.20](#).

- C Sloping soil surcharges are taken into account through an equivalent uniform surcharge and assuming a level backslope condition.
- C For these calculations, the depth *Z* is referenced from the top of the wall at the wall face, excluding any copings and appurtenances.



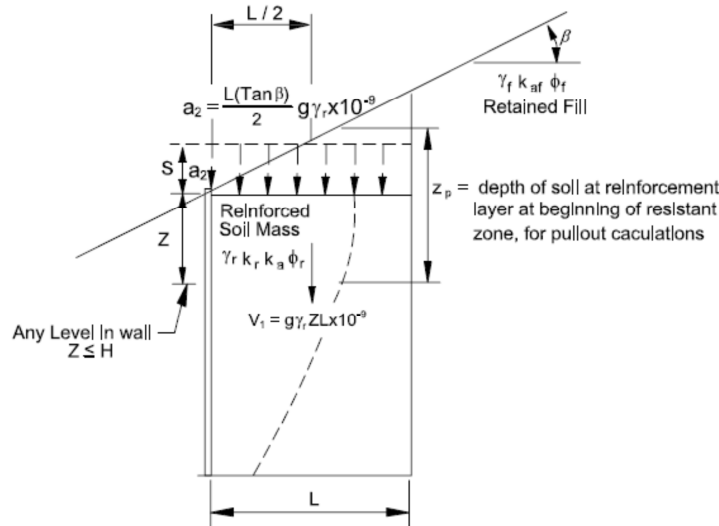
$$\text{Max Stress: } \sigma_v = g \gamma_r Z \times 10^{-9} + q + \Delta\sigma_v$$

$$\text{Pullout: } \sigma_v = g \gamma_r Z \times 10^{-9} + \Delta\sigma_v$$

Note: $\Delta\sigma_v$ is determined from [Figure 9.29](#)

H is the total wall height at the face.

Figure 9.19: Calculation of Vertical Stress for Horizontal Backslope Condition, Including Live Load and Dead Load Surcharges for Internal Stability Analysis.



Max Stress: $S = (1/2)L\tan\beta$

$$\sigma_v = g\gamma_r Z \times 10^{-9} + (1/2) L (\tan\beta) g \gamma_r \times 10^{-9}$$

Determine k_{af} using a slope angle of β

Determine k_r from [Figure 9.21](#)

$$\text{Pullout: } \sigma_v = g \gamma_r Z_p \times 10^{-9} \text{ and } Z_p \geq Z + S$$

Note: H is the total height of the wall at the face.

Figure 9.20: Calculation of Vertical Stress for Sloping Backslope Condition for Internal Stability Analysis.

The lateral earth pressure coefficient k_r is determined by applying a multiplier to the active earth pressure coefficient, k_a , determined using Eq. [\(3.20\)](#), but assuming no wall friction, i.e., $\delta = \beta$.

- C Since it is assumed that $\delta = \beta$, and β is assumed to always be zero for internal stability, for a vertical wall, the Coulomb equation simplifies mathematically to the simplest form of the Rankine equation.

$$k_a = \tan^2 \left(45 - \frac{\phi'_f}{2} \right) \quad (9.14)$$

- C If the wall face is battered, the following simplified form of the Coulomb equation can be used:

$$k_a = \frac{\sin^2(\theta + \phi'_f)}{\sin^3 \theta \left(1 + \frac{\sin \phi'_f}{\sin \theta} \right)^2} \quad (9.15)$$

with variables as defined in [Figure 3.24](#).

- C Based on [Figure 9.21](#), the k_a multiplier is a function of the reinforcement type and the depth of the reinforcement below the wall top. Multipliers for other reinforcement types can be developed as needed through analysis of measurements of reinforcement load and strain in full scale structures.

The k_a multiplier shall be determined as shown in [Figure 9.21](#).

The applied factored load to the reinforcements, T_{max} , shall be determined using a load per unit of wall width basis as follows:

$$T_{max} = \sigma_H S_v \quad (9.16)$$

where:

σ_H = factored horizontal soil stress at the reinforcement (MPa)

S_v = vertical spacing of the reinforcement (mm)

A vertical spacing, S_v , greater than 810 mm should not be used without full scale wall data (e.g., reinforcement loads and strains, and overall deflections) that support the acceptability of larger vertical spacings.

Live loads shall be positioned for extreme force effect. The provisions of Article 3.10.6 shall apply.

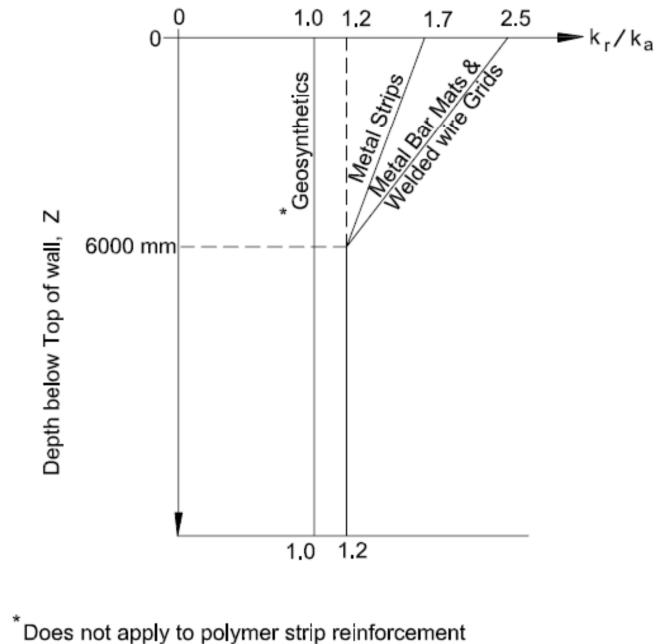


Figure 9.21: Variation of the Coefficient of Lateral Stress Ratio k_r/k_a with Depth in a Mechanically Stabilized Earth Wall.

2. Reinforcement Loads at Connection to Wall Face

The factored tensile load applied to the soil reinforcement connection at the wall face, T_o , shall be equal to the maximum factored reinforcement tension, T_{max} , for all wall systems regardless of facing and reinforcement type.

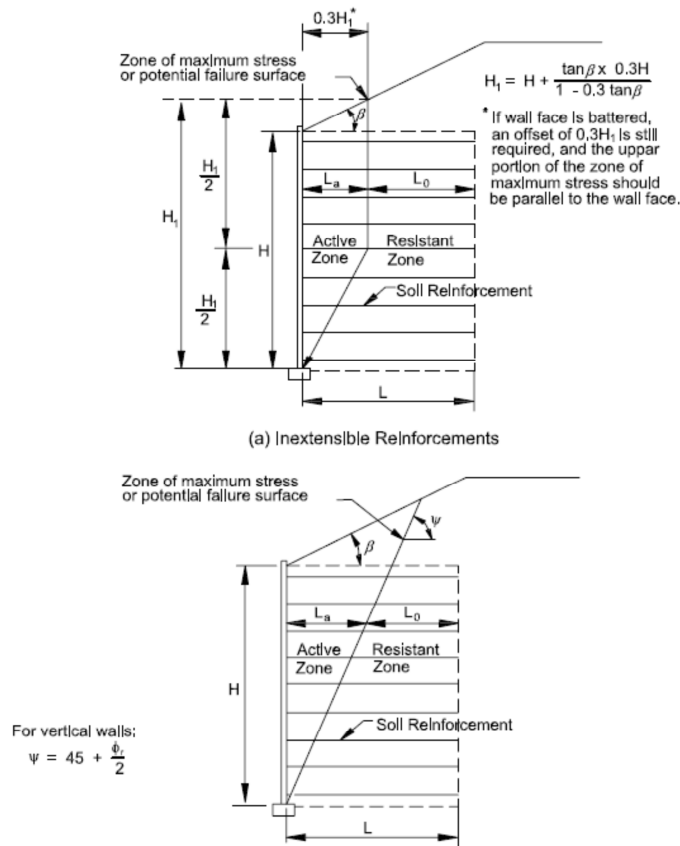
9.10.6.3. Reinforcement Pullout

1. Boundary between Active and Resistant Zones

The location of the zone of maximum stress for inextensible and extensible wall systems, i.e., the boundary between the active and resistant zones, is determined as shown in Figure 9.22. For all wall systems, the zone of maximum stress shall be assumed to begin at the back of the facing elements at the toe of the wall.

For extensible wall systems with a face batter of less than 10° from the vertical, the zone of maximum stress should be determined using the Rankine method. Since the Rankine method cannot account for wall face batter or the effect of concentrated

surcharge loads above the reinforced backfill zone, the Coulomb method shall be used for walls with extensible reinforcement in cases of significant batter, defined as 10° from vertical or more, and concentrated surcharge loads to determine the location of the zone of maximum stress.



For walls with a face batter 10° or more from the vertical,

$$\tan(\Psi - \phi_r) = \frac{-\tan(\phi_r - \beta) + \sqrt{\tan(\phi_r - \beta) [\tan(\phi_r - \beta) + \cot(\phi_r + \theta - 90)] [1 + \tan(\delta + 90 - \theta) \cot(\phi_r + \theta - 90)]}}{1 + \tan(\delta + 90 - \theta) [\tan(\phi_r - \beta) + \cot(\phi_r + \theta - 90)]}$$

with $\delta = \beta$ and all other variables defined in [Figure 3.24](#).

Figure 9.22: Location of Potential Failure Surface for Internal Stability Design of MSE Walls.

2. Reinforcement Pullout Design

The reinforcement pullout resistance shall be checked at each level against pullout failure. Only the effective pullout length which extends beyond the theoretical failure surfaces in [Figure 9.22](#) shall be used in this calculation.

A minimum length, L_e , in the resistant zone of 900 mm shall be used.

The total length of reinforcement required for pullout is equal to $L_a + L_e$ as shown in [Figure 9.22](#).

Note that traffic loads are neglected in pullout calculations (see [Figure 9.19](#))

The effective pullout length shall be determined using the following equation¹:

¹ These pullout calculations assume that the factored long-term strength of the reinforcement (see Article [9.10.6.4.1](#)) in the resistant zone is greater than T_{max} .

$$L_e \geq \frac{T_{max}}{P_r} \quad (9.17)$$

in which P_r is the ultimate pullout resistance per unit of reinforcement as per (9.18).

$$P_r = \phi F^* \alpha \sigma_v C R_c \quad (9.18)$$

where:

- L_e = length of reinforcement in resisting zone (mm)
- T_{max} = applied factored load in the reinforcement from Eq. (9.16) (N/mm)
- ϕ = resistance factor for reinforcement pullout from Table 9.1 (dim.)
- F^* = pullout friction factor (dim.)
- α = scale effect correction factor (dim.)
- σ_v = unfactored vertical stress at the reinforcement level in the resistant zone (MPa)
- C = overall reinforcement surface area geometry factor based on the gross perimeter of the reinforcement and is equal to 2 for strip, grid and sheet-type reinforcements, i.e., two sides (dim.)
- R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio from Article 9.10.6.4.1 (dim.)

F^* and α shall be determined from product-specific pullout tests in the project backfill material or equivalent soil, or they can be estimated empirically/theoretically.

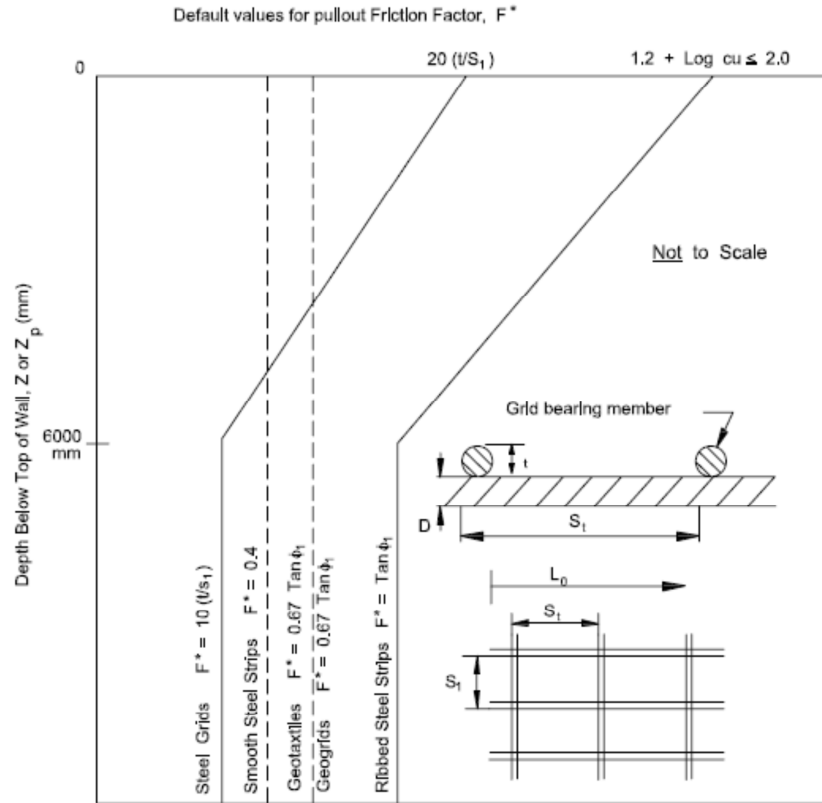
For standard backfill materials (see MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 9.3.4.3), with the exception of uniform sands, i.e., coefficient of uniformity $C_u = D_{60}/D_{10} < 4$, in the absence of test data it is acceptable to use conservative default values for F^* and α as shown in Figure 9.23 and Table 9.7. For ribbed steel strips, if the specific C_u for the wall backfill is unknown at the time of design, a C_u of 4.0 should be assumed for design to determine F^* .

Table 9.7: Default Values for the Scale Effect Correction Factor, α .

Reinforcement Type	Default Value For α
All Steel Reinforcements	1.0
Geogrids	0.8
Geotextiles	0.6

For grids, the spacing between transverse grid elements, S_t , shall be uniform throughout the length of the reinforcement rather than having transverse grid members concentrated only in the resistant zone.

- C Pullout testing and interpretation procedures (and direct shear testing for some parameters), as well as typical empirical data, are provided in *Appendix A of FHWA Publication No. FHWA-NHI-00-043 (Elias et al., 2001)*.
- C Recent experience with pullout test results on new geogrids coming into the market has indicated that some materials have pullout values that are lower than the previous F^* default value of $0.8 \tan \phi$. Data obtained by D'Appolonia (1999) also indicates that $0.8 \tan \phi$ is closer to a mean value rather than a default lower bound value for geogrids. The default values for other reinforcement types shown in Figure 9.23 are more representative of lower bound values. The F^* default value has thus been lowered to a more conservative value of $0.67 \tan \phi$ in consideration of these results.

Figure 9.23: Default Values for the Pullout Friction Factor, F^* .

- C These pullout calculations assume that the factored long-term strength of the reinforcement (see Article 9.10.6.4.1) in the resistant zone is greater than T_{max} .

9.10.6.4. Reinforcement Strength

1. General

- C The serviceability limit state is not specifically evaluated in current practice to design backfill reinforcement for internal stability. A first order estimate of lateral deformation of the entire wall structure, however, can be obtained as shown in Article 9.10.4.2.

The reinforcement strength shall be checked at every level within the wall, both at the boundary between the active and resistant zones (i.e., zone of maximum stress), and at the connection of the reinforcement to the wall face, for applicable strength limit states as follows:

- At the zone of maximum stress:

$$T_{max} \leq \phi T_{al} R_c \quad (9.19)$$

where:

T_{max} = applied factored load to the reinforcement determined from Eq. (9.16) (N/mm)

ϕ = resistance factor for reinforcement tension, specified in Table 9.1 (dim.)

T_{al} = nominal long-term reinforcement design strength (N/mm)

R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio specified in Article 9.10.6.4.1 (dim.)

T_{al} shall be determined as specified in Article 9.10.6.4.3.a for steel reinforcement and Article 9.10.6.4.3.b for geosynthetic reinforcement.

- At the connection with the wall face:

$$T_o \leq \phi T_{ac} R_c \quad (9.20)$$

where:

T_o = applied factored load at reinforcement/facing connection specified in Article 9.10.6.2.2 (N/mm)

ϕ = resistance factor for reinforcement tension in connectors specified in Table 9.1 (dim.)

T_{ac} = nominal long-term reinforcement/facing connection design strength (N/mm)

R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio specified in Article 9.10.6.4.1 (dim.)

T_{ac} shall be determined at the wall face connection as specified in Article 9.10.6.4.4.a for steel reinforcement and Article 9.10.6.4.4.b for geosynthetic reinforcement. The difference in the environment occurring immediately behind the wall face relative to the environment within the reinforcement backfill zone and its effect on the long-term durability of the reinforcement/connection shall be considered when determining T_{ac} .

T_{al} shall be determined on a long-term strength per unit of reinforcement width basis and multiplied by the reinforcement coverage ratio R_c so that it can be directly compared to T_{max} which is determined on a load per unit of wall width basis. (This also applies to T_{ac} and T_{al}).

For discrete, i.e., not continuous, reinforcements, such as steel strips or bar mats, the strength of the reinforcement is converted to a strength per unit of wall width basis as shown in Figure 9.24 and Figure 9.25. For continuous reinforcement layers, $b = 1$ and $R_c = 1$.

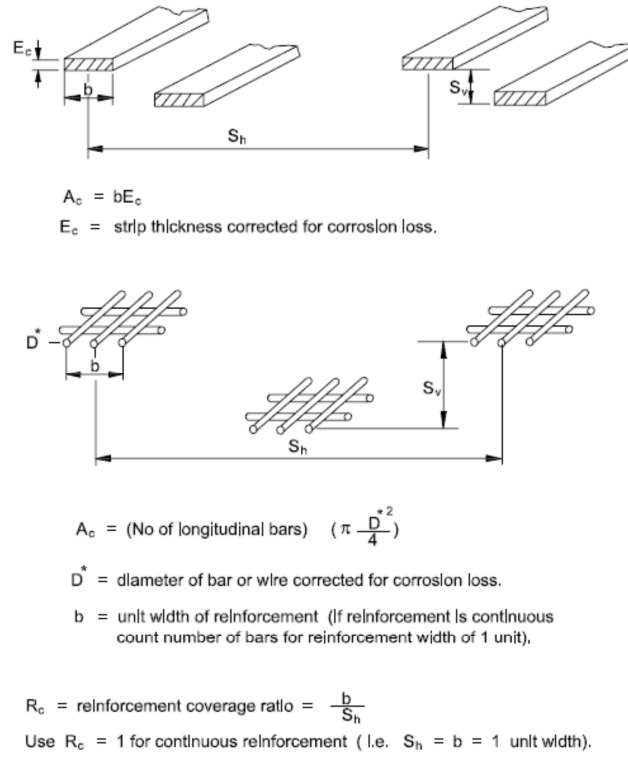


Figure 9.24: Reinforcement Coverage Ratio for Metal Reinforcement.

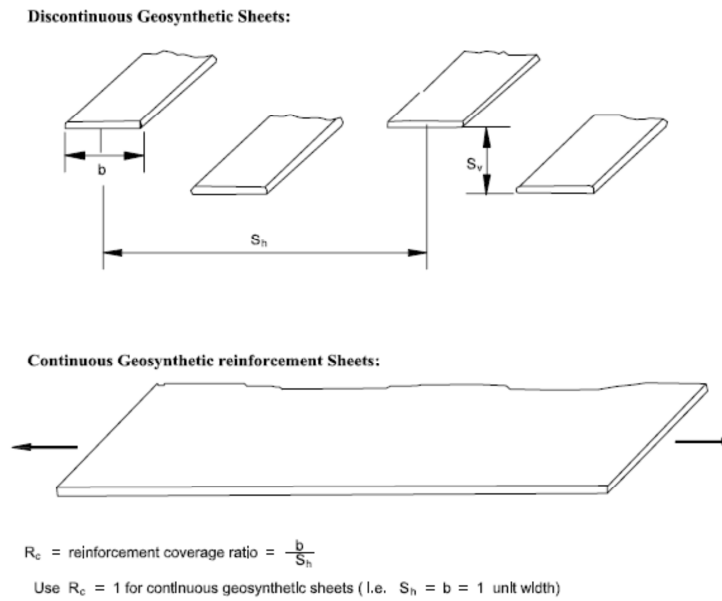


Figure 9.25: Reinforcement Coverage Ratio for Geosynthetic Reinforcement.

2. Design Life Considerations

The provisions of Article [9.5.1](#) shall apply.

a. Steel Reinforcements

Steel soil reinforcements shall comply with the provisions of MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 9.5.4.2, Soil Reinforcement.

- C Corrosion loss rates summarized in [Yannas \(1985\)](#) and supplemented by field data developed under other FHWA research studies have been used to establish the sacrificial thicknesses herein.
- C The backfill Specifications contained in MA-100-C-V1/1, Section 9, for MSE structures using steel reinforcements present minimum electrochemical requirements, which will generally ensure a mild to moderate potential for corrosion. Where deicing salts are used, adequate drainage provisions for salt laden runoff is required. In some cases, an impervious membrane may be required between the pavement structure and the select backfill. Criteria for evaluating potential corrosion losses are given in [Elias \(1990\)](#).

The structural design of steel soil reinforcements and connections shall be made on the basis of a thickness, E_c , as follows:

$$E_c = E_n - E_s \quad (9.21)$$

where:

- E_c = thickness of metal reinforcement at end of service life as shown in [Figure 9.24](#) (mm)
- E_n = nominal thickness of steel reinforcement at construction (mm)
- E_s = sacrificial thickness of metal expected to be lost by uniform corrosion during service life of structure (mm)

For structural design, sacrificial thicknesses shall be computed for each exposed surface as follows, assuming that the soil backfill used is non-aggressive:

- Loss of galvanizing = 0.015 mm/yr. for first 2 years
= 0.004 mm/yr. for subsequent years
 - Loss of carbon steel = 0.012 mm/yr. after zinc depletion
- C These sacrificial thicknesses account for potential pitting mechanisms and much of the uncertainty due to data scatter, and are considered to be maximum anticipated losses for soils which are defined as non-aggressive.
 - C Recommended test methods for soil chemical property determination include [AASHTO T 289-91 I](#) for pH, [AASHTO T 288-91 I](#) for resistivity, [AASHTO T 291-91 I](#) for chlorides and [AASHTO T 290-91 I](#) for sulfates.
 - C These sacrificial thickness requirements are not applicable for soils which do not meet one or more of the nonaggressive soil criteria. Additionally, these sacrificial thickness requirements are not applicable in applications where:
 - The MSE wall will be exposed to a marine or other chloride rich environment,
 - The MSE wall will be exposed to stray currents such as from nearby underground power lines or adjacent electric railways,
 - The backfill material is aggressive,
 - The galvanizing thickness is less than specified in these guidelines.

Soils shall typically be considered non-aggressive if they meet the following criteria:

- pH = 5 to 10

- Resistivity ≥ 3000 ohm-cm
- Chlorides ≤ 100 ppm
- Sulfates ≤ 200 ppm
- Organic Content ≤ 1 percent

If the resistivity is greater than or equal to 5000 ohm-cm, the chlorides and sulfates requirements may be waived. For bar mat or grid-type reinforcements, the sacrificial thickness listed above shall be applied to the radius of the wire or bar when computing the cross-sectional area of the steel remaining after corrosion losses.

- C Each of these situations creates a special set of conditions which should be specifically analyzed by a corrosion specialist. Alternatively, non-corrosive reinforcing elements can be considered. Furthermore, these corrosion rates do not apply to other metals. The use of alloys such as aluminum and stainless steel is not recommended.

Transverse and longitudinal grid members shall be sized in accordance with **ASTM A 185**.

To preclude local overstressing of the longitudinal wires, the transverse wire diameter shall be less than or equal to the longitudinal wire diameter.

Galvanized coatings shall be a minimum of 6.1×10^{-7} kg/mm² or 0.086 mm in thickness, applied in conformance to **AASHTO M 111M/M111 (ASTM A 123/A123M)** for strip-type reinforcements or **ASTM A 641M** for bar mat or grid-type steel reinforcement.

- C Corrosion-resistant coatings should generally be limited to galvanization.
- C There is insufficient evidence at this time regarding the long-term performance of epoxy coatings for these coatings to be considered equivalent to galvanizing.
- C If epoxy-type coatings are used, they should meet the requirements of **ASTM A 884** for bar mat and grid reinforcements, or **AASHTO M 284M/M284** for strip reinforcements, and have a minimum thickness of 0.4 mm.

b. Geosynthetic Reinforcements

Within specific limits of wall application, soil conditions, and polymer type, strength degradation due to environmental factors can be anticipated to be minimal and relatively consistent from product-to-product, and the impact of any degradation which does occur will be minimal. This allows application of a single default reduction factor, *RF*, to the ultimate tensile strength to account for long-term strength losses, as described in Article [9.10.6.4.3.b](#).

- C The durability of geosynthetic reinforcement is influenced by environmental factors such as time, temperature, mechanical damage, stress levels and chemical exposure, e.g., oxygen, water, and pH, which are the most common chemical factors. Microbiological attack may also affect certain polymers, although not most polymers used for carrying load in soil reinforcement applications. The effects of these factors on product durability are dependent on the polymer type used, i.e., resin type, grade, additives, and manufacturing process, and the macrostructure of the reinforcement. Not all of these factors will have a significant effect on all geosynthetic products. Therefore, the response of geosynthetic reinforcements to these long-term environmental factors is product specific.

Where wall application limits, soil aggressiveness and polymer requirements are consistent with the conditions below, a single default reduction factor specified herein may be used:

- Poor performance or failure will not have severe consequences
- The soil is considered non-aggressive
- The polymer material meets the requirements provided in [Table 9.8](#)

b1. Structure Application Issues

Identification of applications for which the consequences of poor performance or failure are severe shall be as described in Article 9.5.1. In such applications, a single default reduction factor shall not be used for final design.

b2. Determination of Soil Aggressiveness

Soil aggressiveness for geosynthetics shall be assessed based on the soil pH, gradation, plasticity, organic content, and in-ground temperature. Soil shall be defined as non-aggressive if the following criteria are met:

- pH, as determined by AASHTO T 289-91 I, ranges between 4.5 to 9 for permanent applications and 3 to 10 for temporary applications;
- Maximum soil particle size is less than 19 mm, unless full scale installation damage tests are conducted in accordance with ASTM D 5818;
- Soil organic content, as determined by AASHTO T 267-86 for material finer than the 2 mm (No. 10) sieve ≤ 1 percent;
- Design temperature at wall site:
 - $\leq 30^{\circ}\text{C}$ for permanent applications
 - $\leq 35^{\circ}\text{C}$ for temporary applications

C The effective design temperature is defined as the temperature which is halfway between the average yearly air temperature and the normal daily air temperature for the warmest month at the wall site. Note that for walls which face the sun, it is possible that the temperature immediately behind the facing could be higher than the air temperature. This condition should be considered when assessing the design temperature, especially for wall sites located in warm, sunny climates.

Soil backfill not meeting these requirements as provided herein shall be considered to be aggressive.

The environment at the face, in addition to that within the wall backfill, shall be evaluated, especially if the stability of the facing is dependent on the strength of the geosynthetic at the face, i.e., the geosynthetic reinforcement forms the primary connection between the body of the wall and the facing.

The chemical properties of the native soil surrounding the mechanically stabilized soil backfill shall also be considered if there is potential for seepage of groundwater from the native surrounding soils to the mechanically stabilized backfill. If this is the case, the surrounding soils shall also meet the chemical criteria required for the backfill material if the environment is to be considered non-aggressive, or adequate long-term drainage around the geosynthetic reinforced mass shall be provided to ensure that chemically aggressive liquid does not enter into the reinforced backfill.

b3. Polymer Requirements

Polymers which are likely to have good resistance to long-term chemical degradation shall be used if a single default reduction factor is to be used, to minimize the risk of the occurrence of significant long-term degradation. The polymer material requirements provided in Table 9.8 shall, therefore, be met if detailed product specific data as described in Elias et al. (2001) and Elias (2000) is not obtained. Polymer materials not meeting the requirements in Table 9.8 may be used if this detailed product specific data extrapolated to the design life intended for the structure are obtained.

C Guidelines for product-specific studies to determine RF are provided in Elias et al. (2001) and Elias (2000).

For applications involving:

- severe consequences of poor performance or failure,
- aggressive soil conditions,
- polymers not meeting the specific requirements set in [Table 9.8](#), or
- a desire to use an overall reduction factor less than the default reduction factor recommended herein,

then product-specific durability studies shall be carried out prior to product use to determine the product-specific long-term strength reduction factor, RF . These product-specific studies shall be used to estimate the short-term and long-term effects of these environmental factors on the strength and deformational characteristics of the geosynthetic reinforcement throughout the reinforcement design life.

Table 9.8: Minimum Requirements for Geosynthetic Products to Allow Use of Default Reduction Factor for Long-Term Degradation.

Polymer Type	Property	Test Method	Criteria to Allow Use of Default RF
Polypropylene	UV Oxidation Resistance	ASTM D 4355	Minimum 70% strength retained after 500 hrs. in weatherometer
Polyethylene	UV Oxidation Resistance	ASTM D 4355	Minimum 70% strength retained after 500 hrs. in weatherometer
Polyester	Hydrolysis Resistance	Intrinsic Viscosity Method (ASTM D 4603) and GRI Test Method GG8, or Determine Directly Using Gel Permeation Chromatography	Minimum Number Average Molecular Weight of 25000
Polyester	Hydrolysis Resistance	GRI Test Method GG7	Maximum of Carboxyl End Group Content of 30
All Polymers	Survivability	Weight per Unit Area (ASTM D 5261)	Minimum 270 g/m ²
All Polymers	% Post-Consumer Recycled Material by Weight	Certification of Materials Used	Maximum of 0%

3. Design Tensile Resistance

a. Steel Reinforcements

The nominal reinforcement tensile resistance is determined by multiplying the yield stress by the cross-sectional area of the steel reinforcement after corrosion losses (see [Figure 9.24](#)). The loss in steel cross-sectional area due to corrosion shall be determined in accordance with Article [9.10.6.4.2.a](#). The reinforcement tensile resistance shall be determined as:

$$T_{al} = \frac{A_c F_y}{b} \quad (9.22)$$

where:

- T_{al} = nominal long-term reinforcement design strength (N/mm)
- F_y = minimum yield strength of steel (MPa)
- A_c = area of reinforcement corrected for corrosion loss (Figure 9.24) (mm²)
- b = unit width of reinforcement (Figure 9.24) (mm)

b. Geosynthetic Reinforcements

The nominal long-term reinforcement tensile strength shall be determined as:

$$T_{al} = \frac{T_{ult}}{RF} \quad (9.23)$$

where:

$$RF = RF_{ID} \times RF_{CR} \times RF_D \quad (9.24)$$

and:

- T_{al} = nominal long-term tensile strength required to prevent rupture calculated on a load per unit of reinforcement width basis. (N/mm)
- T_{ult} = ultimate tensile strength of the reinforcement determined from wide width tensile tests specified in ASTM D 4595 for geotextiles and ASTM D 6637 for geogrids. The value selected for T_{ult} is the minimum average roll value (MARV) for the product to account for statistical variance in the material strength. (N/mm)
- RF = combined strength reduction factor to account for potential long-term degradation due to installation damage, creep and chemical aging (dim.)
- RF_{ID} = strength reduction factor to account for installation damage to reinforcement (dim.)
- RF_{CR} = strength reduction factor to prevent long-term creep rupture of reinforcement (dim.)
- RF_D = strength reduction factor to prevent rupture of reinforcement due to chemical and biological degradation (dim.)

Values for RF_{ID} , RF_{CR} , and RF_D shall be determined from product specific test results as specified in Article 9.10.6.4.2.b. Even with product specific test results, neither RF_{ID} nor RF_D shall be less than 1.1.

- C Guidelines for determination of RF_{ID} , RF_{CR} , and RF_D from product-specific data are provided in Elias et al. (2001) and Elias (2001).

For wall applications which are defined as not having severe consequences should poor performance or failure occur, having non-aggressive soil conditions, and if the geosynthetic product meets the minimum requirements listed in Table 9.9, the long-term tensile strength of the reinforcement may be determined using a default reduction factor for RF as provided in Table 9.9 in lieu of product-specific test results.

Table 9.9 Default and Minimum Values for the Total Geosynthetic Ultimate Limit State Strength Reduction Factor, RF .

Application	Total Reduction Factor, RF
All applications, but with product-specific data obtained and analyzed in accordance with Elias (2001) and Elias et al. (2001)	All reduction factors shall be based on product specific data. Neither RF_{ID} nor RF_D shall be less than 1.1.
Permanent applications not having severe consequences should poor performance or failure occur, non-aggressive soils, and polymers meeting the requirements listed in Table 9.8	7.0
Temporary applications not having severe consequences should poor performance or failure occur, non-aggressive soils, and polymers meeting the requirements listed in Table 9.8 provided product specific data are not available	3.5

4. Reinforcement/Facing Connection Design Strength

a. Steel Reinforcements

Connections shall be designed to resist stresses resulting from active forces, T_o , in Article [9.10.6.2.2](#), as well as from differential movements between the reinforced backfill and the wall facing elements.

Elements of the connection which are embedded in the facing element shall be designed with adequate bond length and bearing area in the concrete to resist the connection forces. The capacity of the embedded connector shall be checked by tests as required in Article [5.16.3](#). Connections between steel reinforcement and the wall facing units, e.g., welds, bolts, pins, etc., shall be designed in accordance with Article [6.13.3](#).

Connection materials shall be designed to accommodate losses due to corrosion in accordance with Article [9.10.6.4.2.a](#). Potential differences between the environment at the face relative to the environment within the reinforced soil mass shall be considered when assessing potential corrosion losses.

b. Geosynthetic Reinforcements

The portion of the connection embedded in the concrete facing shall be designed in accordance with Article [5.16.3](#).

The nominal long-term geosynthetic connection strength T_{ac} on a load per unit reinforcement width basis shall be determined as follows:

$$T_{ac} = \frac{T_{ult} \times CR_{cr}}{RF_D} \quad (9.25)$$

where:

- T_{ac} = nominal long-term reinforcement/facing connection design strength per unit of reinforcement width at a specified confining pressure (N/mm)
- T_{ult} = minimum average roll value (MARV) ultimate tensile strength of soil reinforcement (N/mm)

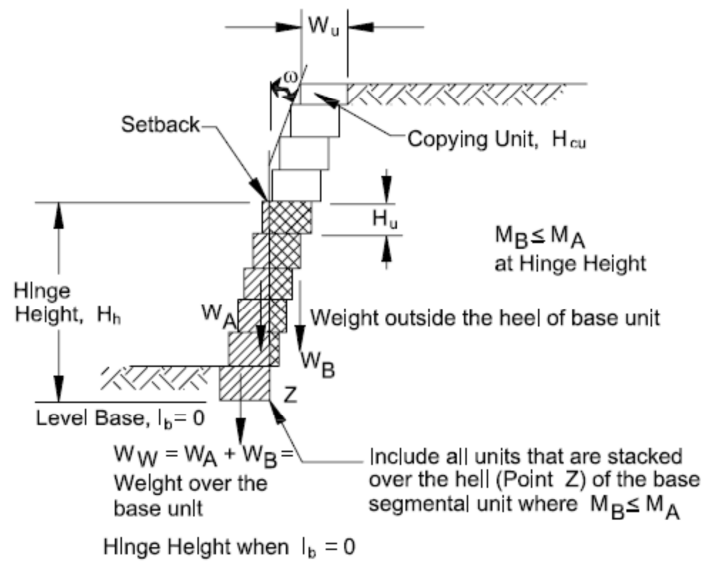
CR_{cr} = long-term connection strength reduction factor to account for reduced ultimate strength resulting from connection (dim.)

RF_D = reduction factor to prevent rupture of reinforcement due to chemical and biological degradation (Article 9.10.6.4.3.b) (dim.)

Values for RF_{CR} and RF_D shall be determined from product-specific test results, except as otherwise specified herein. The environment at the wall face connection may be different than the environment away from the wall face in the wall backfill. This shall be considered when determining RF_{CR} and RF_D .

CR_{cr} shall be determined at the anticipated vertical confining pressure at the wall face between the facing blocks. The vertical confining pressure shall be calculated using the Hinge Height Method as shown in Figure 9.26 for a face batter, ω , of greater than 8° . T_{ac} should not be greater than T_{al} .

Geosynthetic walls may be designed using a flexible reinforcement sheet as the facing using only an overlap with the main soil reinforcement. The overlaps shall be designed using a pullout methodology. By replacing T_{max} with T_o , Eq. (9.17) may be used to determine the minimum overlap length required, but in no case shall the overlap length be less than 900 mm. If $\tan \rho$ is determined experimentally based on soil to reinforcement contact, $\tan \rho$ shall be reduced by 30 percent where reinforcement to reinforcement contact is anticipated, where ρ is soil-reinforcement angle of friction ($^\circ$).



Hinge Height, H_h , The full weight of all segmental facing block units within H_h will be considered to act at the base of the lowermost segmental facing block.

Figure 9.26: Determination of Hinge Height for Segmental Concrete Block Faced MSE Walls.

The hinge height, H_h , shown in Figure 9.26, shall be determined as:

$$H_h = 2[(W_u - G_u - 0.5 H_u \tan i_b) \cos i_b] / \tan (\omega + i_b) \quad (9.26)$$

- H_u = segmental facing block unit height (mm)
 W_u = segmental facing block unit width, front to back (mm)
 G_u = distance to the center of gravity of a horizontal segmental facing block unit, including aggregate fill, measured from the front of the unit (mm)
 ω = wall batter due to setback per course ($^\circ$)
 H = total height of wall (mm)
 H_h = hinge height (mm)

C For more information see Appendix B9.

9.10.7. Seismic Design

9.10.7.1. External Stability

Stability determinations shall be made by applying the sum of:

- static forces;
- horizontal inertial force, P_{IR} ,
- 50 percent of the dynamic horizontal thrust, P_{AE} to the wall.

The locations of P_{AE} and P_{IR} shall be taken as illustrated in [Figure 9.27](#). These forces are combined with the static forces, factored in accordance with Article [3.4.1](#).

The dynamic horizontal thrust, P_{AE} , shall be evaluated using the pseudo-static Mononobe-Okabe method and shall be applied to the back surface of the reinforced fill at the height of $0.6H$ from the base and the horizontal inertial force shall be applied at the center of dynamic mass of the structure.

A_m , the maximum acceleration coefficient at the wall centroid, shall be determined as:

$$A_m = (1.45 - A_s) A_s \quad (9.27)$$

where:

- A_s = peak seismic ground acceleration coefficient modified by short-period site factor specified in Article [3.9.4](#) (dim.)

Values of P_{AE} and P_{IR} for structures with horizontal backfill may be determined using the following simplified equations:

$$P_{AE} = 0.375 \gamma_{EQ} A_m g \gamma_s H^2 \times 10^{-9} \quad (9.28)$$

$$P_{IR} = 0.5 \gamma_{EQ} A_m g \gamma_s H^2 \times 10^{-9} \quad (9.29)$$

where:

- γ_{EQ} = load factor for EQ loads from [Table 3.1](#) (dim.)
 A_m = maximum wall acceleration coefficient at the centroid of the wall mass (dim.)

- γ_s = soil density (kg/m³)
 H = height of wall (mm)
 g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec.²)

- C The equation for P_{AE} was developed assuming a friction angle of 30°. P_{AE} may be calculated using the Mononobe-Okabe method, with the horizontal acceleration k_h equal to A_m and k_v equal to zero, multiplied by the load factor γ_{EQ} .
- C The seismic earth pressure calculated using the Mononobe-Okabe method may be reduced in accordance with Article 9.6.5 for walls which can displace laterally. If it is desired to apply the procedures provided in Article 9.6.5 to account for the effect of lateral displacement in reducing seismic lateral earth pressures, calculate A_m as follows:

$$A_m = (1.45 - k_h) k_h \quad (9.30)$$

- C where k_h is obtained from Eq.(A9.9).
- C It is recommended that this reduced acceleration value only be used for external stability calculations, including wall inertial forces as well as seismic earth pressures behind the wall, to be consistent with the concept of the MSE wall behaving as a rigid block.
- C Internally, the lateral deformation response of the MSE wall is much more complex, and it is not clear at this time how much the acceleration coefficient could decrease due to the allowance of some lateral deformation during seismic loading internally in the MSE wall.
- C If either A_s or k_h is greater than 0.45, set $A_m = A_s$ or $A_m = k_h$, respectively, as this equation has not been specifically validated for higher accelerations, and a value of A_m less than A_s or k_h would result.
- C The seismic design procedures provided herein do not directly account for the lateral deformation that may occur during large earthquake seismic loading. It is, therefore, recommended that if the anticipated ground acceleration is greater than 0.29g, a detailed lateral deformation analysis of the structure during seismic loading should be performed, such as a Newmark sliding analysis or numerical modeling.

For structures with sloping backfills, the inertial force, P_{IR} , shall be based on an effective mass having a height H_2 and a base width equal to $0.5H_2$ determined as follows:

$$H_2 = H + \frac{0.5H \tan(\beta)}{[1 - 0.5 \tan(\beta)]} \quad (9.31)$$

where β = slope of backfill (°)

P_{IR} for sloping backfills shall be determined as:

$$P_{IR} = P_{ir} + P_{is} \quad (9.32)$$

where:

$$P_{ir} = 0.5 \gamma_{EQ} A_m \gamma_s H_2 H \quad (9.33)$$

$$P_{is} = 0.125 \gamma_{EQ} A_m \gamma_s (H_2)^2 \tan(\beta) \quad (9.34)$$

where:

- P_{ir} = the inertial force caused by acceleration of the reinforced backfill (N/mm)
 P_{is} = the inertial force caused by acceleration of the sloping soil surcharge above the reinforced backfill (N/mm)

The width of mass contributing to P_{IR} shall be equal to $0.5H_2$. P_{IR} shall act at the combined centroid of P_{ir} and P_{is} .

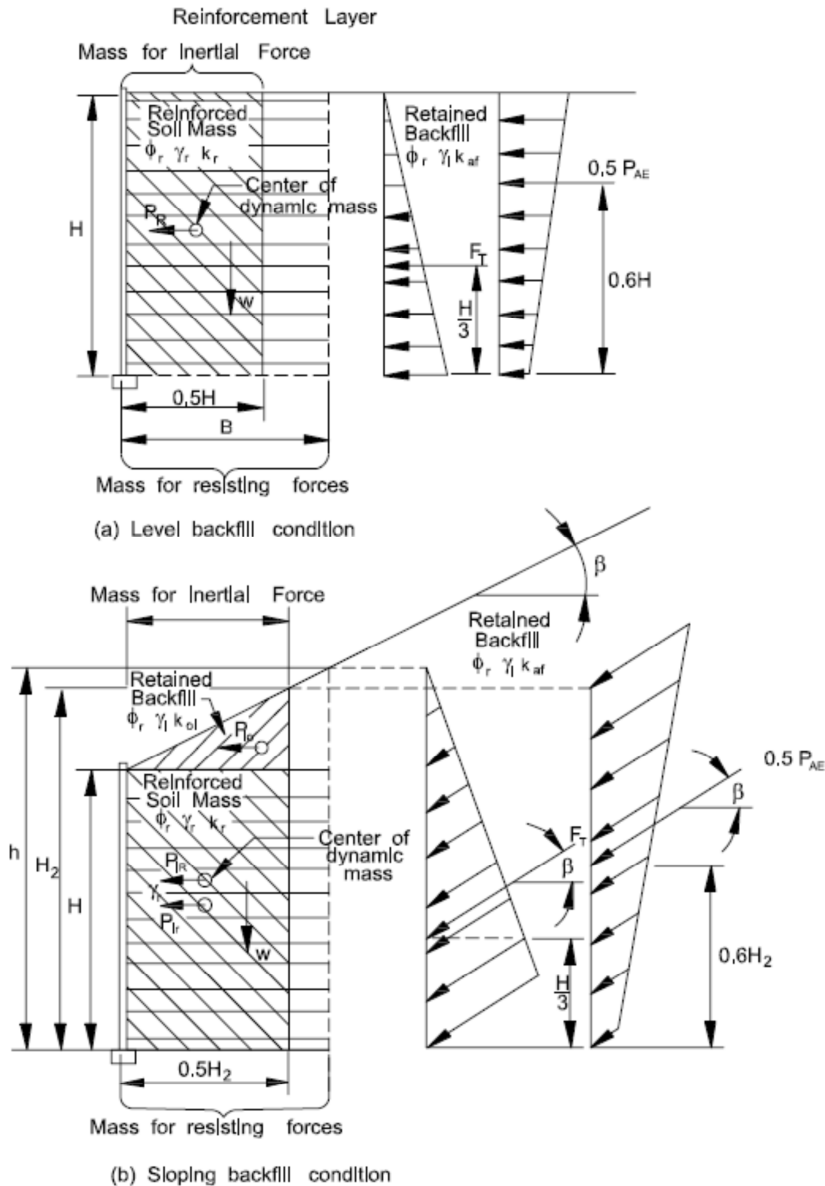


Figure 9.27: Seismic External Stability of a MSE Wall.

9.10.7.2. Internal Stability

Reinforcements shall be designed to withstand horizontal forces generated by the internal inertia force, P_i , and the static forces. The total inertia force, P_i , per unit length of structure shall be considered equal to the mass of the active zone times the maximum wall acceleration coefficient A_m . This inertia force shall be distributed to the reinforcements proportionally to their resistant areas on a load per unit width of wall basis as follows:

$$T_{md} = \gamma P_i \frac{L_{ei}}{\sum_{i=1}^m (L_{ei})} \quad (9.35)$$

where:

T_{md} = factored incremental dynamic inertia force at Layer i (N/mm)

γ = load factor for EQ loads from [Table 3.1](#) (dim.)

P_i = internal inertia force due to the weight of backfill within the active zone, i.e., the shaded area on [Figure 9.28](#) (N/mm)

$$= A_m W_a$$

where W_a is the weight of the active zone and A_m given by Eq. [\(9.27\)](#)

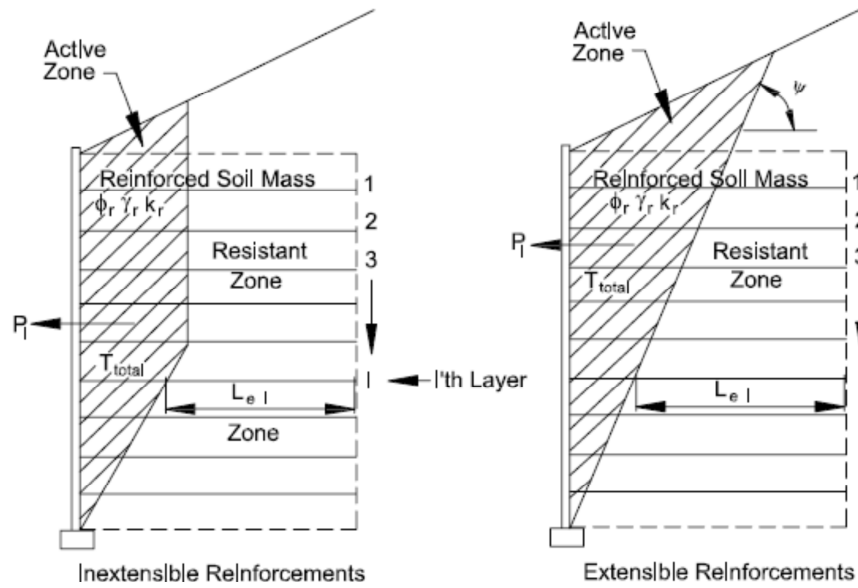
L_{ei} = effective reinforcement length for layer i (mm)

The total factored load applied to the reinforcement on a load per unit of wall width basis as shown in [Figure 9.28](#) is determined as follows:

$$T_{total} = T_{max} + T_{md} \quad (9.36)$$

where:

T_{max} = the factored static load applied to the reinforcements determined using Eq. [\(9.16\)](#)



- P_i = Internal inertial force due to the weight of the backfill within the active zone.
 L_{el} = The length of reinforcement in the resistant zone of the l 'th layer.
 T_{max} = The factored load per unit wall width applied to each reinforcement layer due to static forces,
 T_{md} = The factored load per unit wall width applied to each reinforcement layer due to dynamic forces.
 The total factored load per unit wall width applied to each reinforcement layer,
 $T_{total} = T_{max} + T_{md}$

Figure 9.28: Seismic Internal Stability of a MSE Wall.

For geosynthetic reinforcement rupture, the reinforcement shall be designed to resist the static and dynamic components of the load determined as:

- For the static component:

$$S_{rs} \geq \frac{T_{max} RF}{\phi R_c} \quad (9.37)$$

- For the dynamic component:

$$S_{rd} \geq \frac{T_{md} RF_{ID} RF_D}{\phi R_c} \quad (9.38)$$

where:

- ϕ = resistance factor for combined static/earthquake loading from [Table 9.1](#) (dim.)
 S_{rs} = ultimate reinforcement tensile resistance required to resist static load component (N/mm)
 S_{rd} = ultimate reinforcement tensile resistance required to resist dynamic load component (N/mm)
 R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio specified in Article [9.10.6.4.1](#) (dim.)

RF = combined strength reduction factor to account for potential long-term degradation due to installation damage, creep, and chemical aging specified in Article 9.10.6.4.3.b (dim.)

RF_{ID} = strength reduction factor to account for installation damage to reinforcement specified in Article 9.10.6.4.3.b (dim.)

RF_D = strength reduction factor to prevent rupture of reinforcement due to chemical and biological degradation specified in Article 9.10.6.4.3.b (dim.)

- C The reinforcement must be designed to resist the dynamic component of the load at any time during its design life.
- C Design for static loads requires the strength of the reinforcement at the end of the design life to be reduced to account for creep and other degradation mechanisms. Strength loss in polymeric materials due to creep requires long term, sustained loading.
- C The dynamic component of load for seismic design is a transient load and does not cause strength loss due to creep. The resistance of the reinforcement to the static component of load, T_{max} must, therefore, be handled separately from the dynamic component of load, T_{md} .
- C The strength required to resist T_{max} must include the effects of creep, but the strength required to resist T_{md} should not include the effects of creep.

The required ultimate tensile resistance of the geosynthetic reinforcement shall be determined as:

$$T_{ult} = S_{rs} + S_{rt} \quad (9.39)$$

For pullout of steel or geosynthetic reinforcement:

$$L_e \geq \frac{T_{total}}{\phi (0.8F^* \alpha \sigma_v C R_c)} \quad (9.40)$$

where:

- L_e = length of reinforcement in resisting zone (mm)
- T_{total} = maximum factored reinforcement tension from Eq. (9.40) (N/mm)
- ϕ = resistance factor for reinforcement pullout from Table 9.1 (dim.)
- F^* = pullout friction factor (dim.)
- α = scale effect correction factor (dim.)
- σ_v = unfactored vertical stress at the reinforcement level in the resistant zone (MPa)
- C = overall reinforcement surface area geometry factor (dim.)
- R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio specified in Article 9.10.6.4.1 (dim.)

For seismic loading conditions, the value of F^* , the pullout resistance factor, shall be reduced to 80 percent of the value used for static design, unless dynamic pullout tests are performed to directly determine the F^* value.

9.10.7.3. Facing Reinforcement Connections

Facing elements shall be designed to resist the seismic loads determined as specified in Article 9.10.7.2, i.e., T_{total} . Facing elements shall be designed in accordance with applicable provisions of Section 5 and Section 6 for reinforced concrete and steel respectively.

For segmental concrete block faced walls, the blocks located above the uppermost backfill reinforcement layer shall be designed to resist toppling failure during seismic loading.

For geosynthetic connections subjected to seismic loading, the factored long-term connection strength, ϕT_{ac} , must be greater than $T_{max} + T_{md}$. If the connection strength is partially or fully dependent on friction between the facing blocks and the reinforcement, the connection strength to resist seismic loads shall be reduced to 80 percent of its static value as follows:

For the static component of the load:

$$S_{rs} \geq \frac{T_{max} RF_D}{0.8 \phi CR_{cr} R_c} \quad (9.41)$$

For the dynamic component of the load:

$$S_{rt} \geq \frac{T_{md} RF_D}{0.8 \phi CR_u R_c} \quad (9.42)$$

where:

- S_{rs} = ultimate reinforcement tensile resistance required to resist static load component (N/mm)
- T_{max} = applied load to reinforcement (N/mm)
- RF_D = reduction factor to prevent rupture of reinforcement due to chemical and biological degradation specified in Article 9.10.6.4.4.b (dim.)
- ϕ = resistance factor from Table 9.1 (dim.)
- CR_{cr} = long-term connection strength reduction factor to account for reduced ultimate strength resulting from connection (dim.)
- R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio from Article 9.10.6.4.1 (dim.)
- S_{rt} = ultimate reinforcement tensile resistance required to resist dynamic load component (N/mm)
- T_{md} = factored incremental dynamic inertia force (N/mm)
- CR_u = short-term reduction factor to account for reduced ultimate strength resulting from connection as specified in Article 9.10.6.4.4.b (dim.)

For mechanical connections that do not rely on a frictional component, the 0.8 multiplier may be removed from Eqs. (9.41) and (9.42)

The required ultimate tensile resistance of the geosynthetic reinforcement at the connection is:

$$T_{ult} = S_{rs} + S_{rt} \quad (9.43)$$

For structures in Seismic Design Categories C or D, facing connections in segmental block faced walls shall use shear resisting devices between the facing blocks and soil reinforcement such as shear keys, pins, etc., and shall not be fully dependent on frictional resistance between the soil reinforcement and facing blocks.

For steel reinforcement connections, resistance factors for combined static and seismic loads may be increased by 33 percent of factors used for static loading. Based

on these resistance factors, the available factored connection strength must be greater than T_{total} .

- C The connection capacity of a facing/reinforcement connection system that is fully dependent on the shear resisting devices for the connection capacity will not be significantly influenced by the normal stress between facing blocks. The percentage of connection load carried by the shear resisting devices relative to the frictional resistance to meet the specification requirements should be determined based on past successful performance of the connection system.

9.10.8. Drainage

Internal drainage measures shall be considered for all structures to prevent saturation of the reinforced backfill and to intercept any surface flows containing aggressive elements.

MSE walls in cut areas and side-hill fills with established groundwater levels shall be constructed with drainage blankets in back of, and beneath, the reinforced zone.

For MSE walls supporting roadways which are chemically deiced in the winter, an impervious membrane may be required below the pavement and just above the first layer of soil reinforcement to intercept any flows containing deicing chemicals. The membrane shall be sloped to drain away from the facing to an intercepting longitudinal drain outletted beyond the reinforced zone. Typically, a roughened surface PVC, HDPE or LLDPE geomembrane with a minimum thickness of 0.76 mm should be used. All seams in the membrane shall be welded to prevent leakage.

9.10.9. Subsurface Erosion

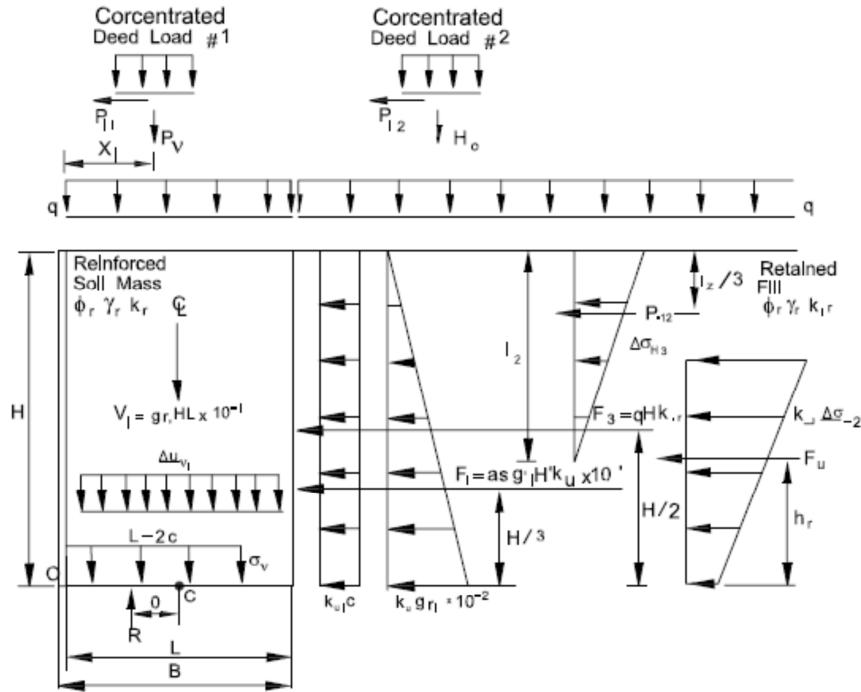
The provisions of Article [9.6.3.5](#) shall apply.

9.10.10. Special Loading Conditions

9.10.10.1. Concentrated Dead Loads

The distribution of stresses within and behind the wall resulting from concentrated loads applied to the wall top or behind the wall shall be determined in accordance with Article [3.10.6.5](#).

[Figure 9.29](#) illustrates the combination of loads using superposition principles to evaluate external and internal wall stability. Depending on the size and location of the concentrated dead load, the location of the boundary between the active and resistant zones may have to be adjusted as shown in [Figure 9.30](#).



Note: These equations assume that concentrated dead load #2 is located within the active zone behind the reinforced soil mass.

Note: For relatively thick facing elements, (e.g., segmental concrete facing blocks), it is acceptable to include the facing dimensions and weight in sliding, overturning, and bearing capacity calculations (i.e., use B in lieu of L).

Note: P_{V1} , P_{H1} , $\Delta\sigma_{v1}$, $\Delta\sigma_{H2}$, and I_2 are as determined from [Figure 3.45](#) and [Figure 3.46](#), and F_p results from P_{V2} (i.e., $K\Delta\sigma_{v2}$ from [Figure 3.45](#)). H is the total wall height at the face.

Figure 9.29: Superposition of Concentrated Dead Loads for External and Internal Stability Evaluation.

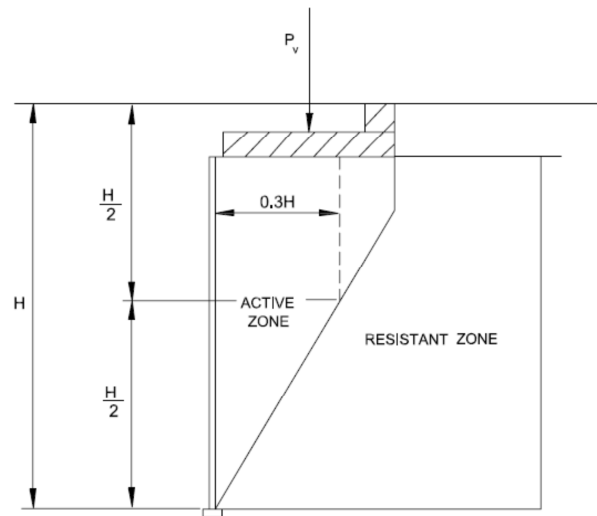


Figure 9.30: Location of Maximum Tensile Force Line in Case of Large Surcharge Slabs (Inextensible Reinforcements).

9.10.10.2. Traffic Loads and Barriers

- C The force distribution for pullout calculations is different than that used for tensile calculations because the entire base slab must move laterally to initiate a pullout failure due to the relatively large deformation required.

Traffic loads shall be treated as uniform surcharge loads in accordance with the criteria outlined in Article [3.10.6.2](#).

The live load surcharge pressure shall not be less than 600 mm of earth.

Parapets and traffic barriers, constructed over or in line with the front face of the wall, shall be designed to resist overturning moments by their own mass.

Base slabs shall not have any transverse joints, except construction joints, and adjacent slabs shall be joined by shear dowels.

The upper layer(s) of soil reinforcements shall have sufficient tensile capacity to resist a concentrated horizontal load of γP_H where $P_H = 44.5 \text{ kN}$ distributed over a barrier length of 1.5 m. This force distribution accounts for the local peak force in the soil reinforcements in the vicinity of the concentrated load. This distributed force would be equal to γP_{H1} where $P_{H1} = 30 \text{ kN/m}$, and is applied as shown in [Figure 3.46-a](#). γP_{H1} would be distributed to the reinforcements assuming b_f equal to the width of the base slab.

Adequate space shall be provided laterally between the back of the facing panels and the traffic barrier/slab to allow the traffic barrier and slab to resist the impact load in sliding and overturning without directly transmitting load to the top facing units.

For checking pullout safety of the reinforcements, the lateral traffic impact load shall be distributed to the upper soil reinforcement using [Figure 3.46-a](#), assuming b_f equal to the width of the base slab.

The full-length of reinforcements shall be considered effective in resisting pullout due to the impact load.

The upper layer(s) of soil reinforcement shall have sufficient pullout capacity to resist a horizontal load of γP_{H1} where $P_{H1} = 44.5 \text{ kN}$ distributed over a 6 m. base slab length.

Due to the transient nature of traffic barrier impact loads, when designing for reinforcement rupture, the geosynthetic reinforcement must be designed to resist the static and transient (impact) components of the load as follows:

- For the static component, see Eq. [\(9.37\)](#).
- For the transient components:

$$\Delta\sigma_H S_v \leq \frac{\phi S_{rt} R_c}{RF_{ID} RF_D} \quad (9.44)$$

where:

$\Delta\sigma_H$ = traffic barrier impact stress applied over reinforcement tributary area per Article [9.10.10.1](#) (MPa)

S_v = vertical spacing of reinforcement (mm)

S_{rt} = ultimate reinforcement tensile resistance required to resist dynamic load component (N/mm)

R_c = reinforcement coverage ratio from Article [9.10.6.4.1](#) (dim.)

RF_{ID} = strength reduction factor to account for installation damage to reinforcement from Article [9.10.6.4.3.b](#) (dim.)

RF_D = strength reduction factor to prevent rupture of reinforcement due to chemical and biological degradation from Article [9.10.6.4.3.b](#) (dim.)

- C Refer to Article [9.10.7.2](#) which applies to transient loads, such as impact loads on traffic barriers, as well as earthquake loads.

The reinforcement strength required for the static load component must be added to the reinforcement strength required for the transient load component to determine the required total ultimate strength using Eq. [\(9.43\)](#).

Parapets and traffic barriers shall satisfy crash testing requirements as specified in [Section 11](#). The anchoring slab shall be strong enough to resist the ultimate strength of the standard parapet.

Flexible post and beam barriers, when used, shall be placed at a minimum distance of 900 mm from the wall face, driven 1500 mm below grade, and spaced to miss the reinforcements where possible. If the reinforcements cannot be missed, the wall shall be designed accounting for the presence of an obstruction as described in Article [9.10.10.4](#). The upper two rows of reinforcement shall be designed for an additional horizontal load γP_{H1} , where $P_{H1} = 4.4$ kN/m. of wall, 50 percent of which is distributed to each layer of reinforcement.

9.10.10.3. Hydrostatic Pressures

For structures along rivers and streams, a minimum differential hydrostatic pressure equal to 900 mm of water shall be considered for design. This load shall be applied at the high-water level. Effective densities shall be used in the calculations for internal and external stability beginning at levels just below the application of the differential hydrostatic pressure.

- C Situations where the wall is influenced by tide or river fluctuations may require that the wall be designed for rapid drawdown conditions, which could result in differential hydrostatic pressure considerably greater than 900 mm, or alternatively rapidly draining backfill material such as shot rock or open graded coarse gravel can be used as backfill. Backfill material meeting the gradation requirements in the MA-100-C-V1/1 for MSE structure backfill is not considered to be rapid draining.

9.10.10.4. Obstructions in the Reinforced Soil Zone

If the placement of an obstruction in the wall soil reinforcement zone such as a catch basin, grate inlet, signal or sign foundation, guardrail post, or culvert cannot be avoided, the design of the wall near the obstruction shall be modified using one of the following alternatives:

- 1) Assuming reinforcement layers must be partially or fully severed in the location of the obstruction, design the surrounding reinforcement layers to carry the additional load which would have been carried by the severed reinforcements.
 - 2) Place a structural frame around the obstruction capable of carrying the load from the reinforcements in front of the obstruction to reinforcements connected to the structural frame behind the obstruction as illustrated in [Figure 9.31](#).
 - 3) If the soil reinforcements consist of discrete strips and depending on the size and location of the obstruction, it may be possible to splay the reinforcements around the obstruction. Typically, the splay of reinforcements is limited to a maximum of 15°.
- C Field cutting of longitudinal or transverse wires of metal grids, e.g., bar mats, should not be allowed unless one of the previous alternatives is followed and compensating adjustment is made in the wall design.

For the first alternative, the portion of the wall facing in front of the obstruction shall be made stable against a toppling (overturning) or sliding failure. If this cannot be accomplished, the soil reinforcements between the obstruction and the wall face can be structurally connected to the obstruction such that the wall face does not topple, or the facing elements can be structurally connected to adjacent facing elements to prevent this type of failure.

For the second alternative, the frame and connections shall be designed in accordance with [Section 6](#) for steel frames.

For the third alternative, the splay angle, measured from a line perpendicular to the wall face, shall be small enough that the splaying does not generate moment in the reinforcement or the connection of the reinforcement to the wall face. The tensile resistance of the splayed reinforcement shall be reduced by the cosine of the splay angle.

If the obstruction must penetrate through the face of the wall, the wall facing elements shall be designed to fit around the obstruction such that the facing elements are stable, i.e., point loads should be avoided, and such that wall backfill soil cannot spill through the wall face where it joins the obstruction. To this end, a collar next to the wall face around the obstruction may be needed.

If driven piles or drilled shafts must be placed through the reinforced zone, the recommendations provided in Article [9.10.11](#) shall be followed.

- C Note that it may be feasible to connect the soil reinforcement directly to the obstruction depending on the reinforcement type and the nature of the obstruction.

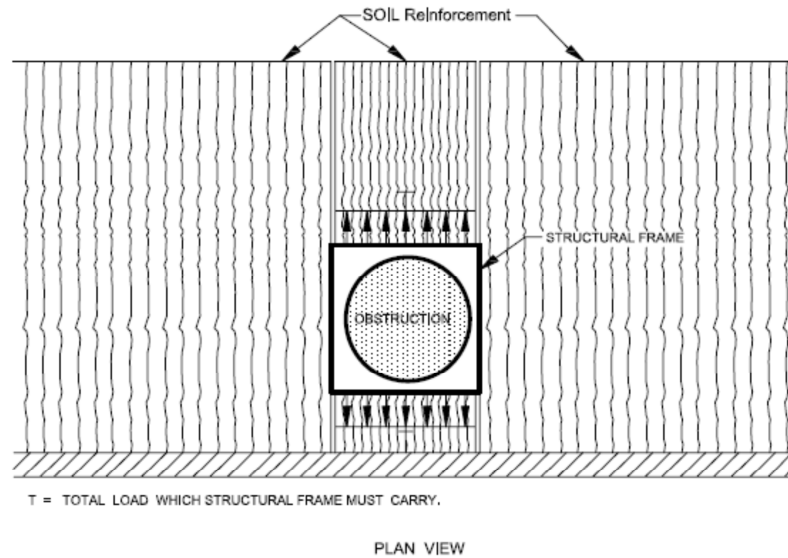


Figure 9.31: Structural Connection of Soil Reinforcement around Backfill Obstructions.

9.10.11. Abutments on MSE Walls

Abutments on MSE walls shall be proportioned to meet the criteria specified in Article [9.6.2](#) through [9.6.6](#).

The MSE wall below the abutment footing shall be designed for the additional loads imposed by the footing pressure and supplemental earth pressures resulting from

horizontal loads applied at the bridge seat and from the backwall. The footing load may be distributed as described in Article 9.10.10.1.

The factored horizontal force acting on the reinforcement at any reinforcement level, T_{max} , shall be taken as:

$$T_{max} = \sigma_{Hmax} S_v \quad (9.45)$$

where:

- σ_{Hmax} = factored horizontal stress at layer i , as defined by Eq. (9.46) (MPa)
 S_v = vertical spacing of reinforcement (mm)

Horizontal stresses in abutment reinforced zones shall be determined by superposition as follows, and as specified in Article 9.10.10.1:

$$\sigma_{Hmax} = \gamma_p (\sigma_v k_r + \Delta\sigma_v k_r + \Delta\sigma_H) \quad (9.46)$$

where:

- γ_p = load factor for vertical earth pressure in Table 3.2
 $\Delta\sigma_H$ = magnitude of lateral pressure due to surcharge (MPa)
 σ_v = vertical soil stress over effective base width ($B-2e$) (MPa)
 $\Delta\sigma_v$ = vertical soil stress due to footing load (MPa)
 k_r = earth pressure coefficient varying as a function of k_a as specified in Article 9.10.6.2.1 where k_a is the active earth pressure coefficient specified in Article 3.10.5.8

The effective length used for calculations of internal stability under the abutment footing shall be as described in Article 9.10.10.1 and Figure 9.30.

- C The minimum length of reinforcement, based on experience, has been the greater of 6700 mm or $0.6(H + d) + 2000$ mm. The length of reinforcement should be constant throughout the height to limit differential settlements across the reinforced zone. Differential settlements could overstress the reinforcements.

The minimum distance from the centerline of the bearing on the abutment to the outer edge of the facing shall be 1070 mm. The minimum distance between the back face of the panel and the footing shall be 150 mm.

- C The permissible level of differential settlement at abutment structures should preclude damage to superstructure units. This subject is discussed in Article 8.6.2.2. In general, abutments should not be constructed on mechanically stabilized embankments if anticipated differential settlements between abutments or between piers and abutments are greater than one-half the limiting differential settlements described in Article 8.5.2.2.

Where significant frost penetration is anticipated, the abutment footing shall be placed on a bed of compacted coarse aggregate 900 mm thick as described in Article 9.10.2.2.

The density, length, and cross-section of the soil reinforcements designed for support of the abutment shall be carried on the wingwalls for a minimum horizontal distance equal to 50 percent of the height of the abutment.

In pile or drilled shaft supported abutments, the horizontal forces transmitted to the deep foundation elements shall be resisted by the lateral capacity of the deep foundation elements by provision of additional reinforcements to tie the drilled shaft or pile cap into the soil mass, or by batter piles. Lateral loads transmitted from the deep

foundation elements to the reinforced backfill may be determined using a P-Y lateral load analysis technique. The facing shall be isolated from horizontal loads associated with lateral pile or drilled shaft deflections. A minimum clear distance of 460 mm shall be provided between the facing and deep foundation elements. Piles or drilled shafts shall be specified to be placed prior to wall construction and cased through the fill if necessary.

The equilibrium of the system should be checked at each level of reinforcement below the bridge seat.

- C Moments should be taken at each level under consideration about the centerline of the reinforced mass to determine the eccentricity of load at each level. A uniform vertical stress is then calculated using a fictitious width taken as $(B-2e)$, and the corresponding horizontal stress should be computed by multiplying by the appropriate coefficient of lateral earth pressure.

Due to the relatively high bearing pressures near the panel connections, the adequacy and ultimate capacity of panel connections should be determined by conducting pullout and flexural tests on full-sized panels.

9.11. PREFABRICATED MODULAR WALLS

9.11.1. General

Prefabricated modular systems may be considered where conventional gravity, cantilever or counterfort concrete retaining walls are considered.

- C Prefabricated modular wall systems, whose elements may be proprietary, generally employ interlocking soil-filled reinforced concrete or steel modules or bins, rock filled gabion baskets, precast concrete units, or dry cast segmental masonry concrete units (without soil reinforcement) which resist earth pressures by acting as gravity retaining walls.
- C Prefabricated modular walls may also use their structural elements to mobilize the dead weight of a portion of the wall backfill through soil arching to provide resistance to lateral loads.
- C Typical prefabricated modular walls are shown in [Figure 9.32](#).

Prefabricated modular wall systems shall not be used under the following conditions:

- On curves with a radius of less than 240 m, unless the curve can be substituted by a series of chords.
- Steel modular systems shall not be used where the groundwater or surface runoff is acid contaminated or where deicing spray is anticipated.

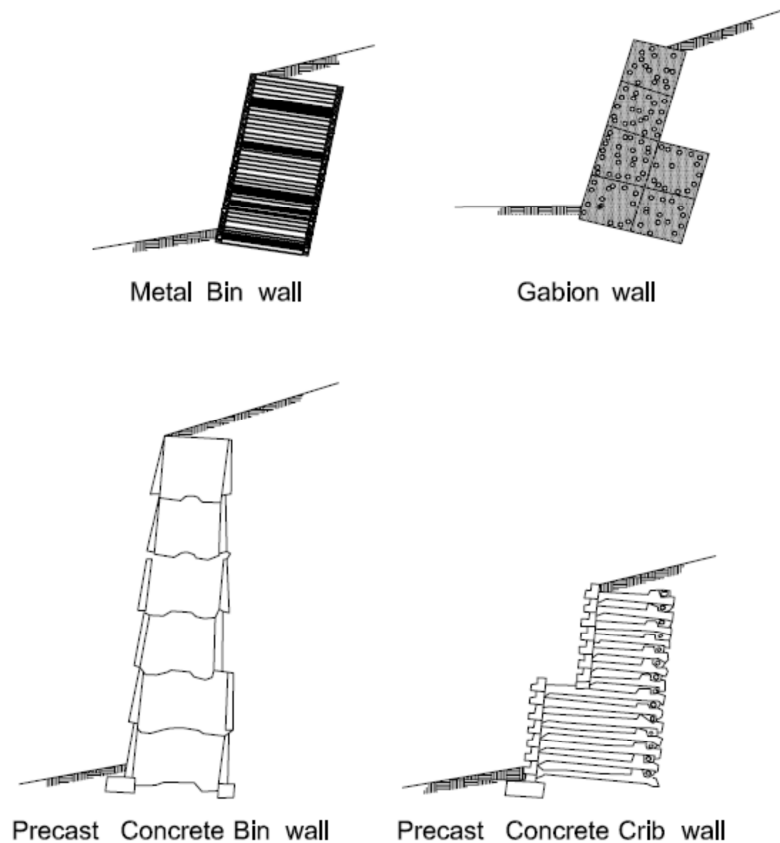


Figure 9.32: Typical Prefabricated Modular Gravity Walls.

9.11.2. Loading

The provisions of Articles [9.6.1.2](#) and [3.10.5.9](#) shall apply, except that shrinkage and temperature effects need not be considered.

9.11.3. Movement at the Service Limit State

The provisions of Article [9.6.2](#) shall apply as applicable.

- C Calculated longitudinal differential settlements along the face of the wall should result in a slope less than 1/200.

9.11.4. Safety against Soil Failure

9.11.4.1. General

For sliding and overturning stability, the system shall be assumed to act as a rigid body. Determination of stability shall be made at every module level.

Passive pressures shall be neglected in stability computations, unless the base of the wall extends below the depth of maximum scour, freeze-thaw, or other disturbance. For these cases only, the embedment below the greater of these depths may be considered effective in providing passive resistance.

9.11.4.2. Sliding

The provisions of Article [9.6.3.4](#) shall apply.

Computations for sliding stability may consider that the friction between the soil-fill and the foundation soil, and the friction between the bottom modules or footing and the foundation soil are effective in resisting sliding.

The coefficient of sliding friction between the soil-fill and foundation soil at the wall base shall be the lesser of ϕ_f of the soil fill and ϕ_f of the foundation soil.

The coefficient of sliding friction between the bottom modules or footing and the foundation soil at the wall base shall be reduced, as necessary, to account for any smooth contact areas.

In the absence of specific data, a maximum friction angle of 30° shall be used for ϕ_f for granular soils. Tests should be performed to determine the friction angle of cohesive soils considering both drained and undrained conditions.

9.11.4.3. Bearing Resistance

The provisions of Article 8.6.3 shall apply.

- C Concrete modular systems are relatively rigid and are subject to structural damage due to differential settlements, especially in the longitudinal direction. Therefore, bearing resistance for footing design should be determined as specified in Article 8.6.

Bearing resistance shall be computed by assuming that dead loads and earth pressure loads are resisted by point supports per unit length at the rear and front of the modules or at the location of the bottom legs. A minimum of 80 percent of the soil weight inside the modules shall be considered to be transferred to the front and rear support points. If foundation conditions require a footing under the total area of the module, all of the soil weight inside the modules shall be considered.

9.11.4.4. Overturning

The provisions of Article 9.6.3.3 shall apply.

- C The entire volume of soil within the module cannot be counted on to resist overturning, as some soil will not arch within the module. A maximum of 80 percent of the soil-fill inside the modules is effective in resisting overturning moments.
- C If a structural bottom is provided to retain the soil within the module, no reduction of the soil weight to compute overturning resistance is warranted.

9.11.4.5. Subsurface Erosion

Bin walls may be used in scour-sensitive areas only where their suitability has been established. The provisions of Article 9.6.3.5 shall apply.

9.11.4.6. Overall Stability

The provisions of Article 9.6.2.3 shall apply.

9.11.4.7. Passive Resistance and Sliding

The provisions of Articles 8.6.3.4 and 9.6.3.6 shall apply, as applicable.

9.11.5. Safety against Structural Failure

9.11.5.1. Module Members

- C Structural design of module members is based on the difference between pressures developed inside the modules (bin pressures) and those resulting from the thrust of the backfill. The recommended bin pressure relationships are based on relationships obtained for long trench geometry, and are generally conservative.

Prefabricated modular units shall be designed for the factored earth pressures behind the wall and for factored pressures developed inside the modules. Rear face surfaces shall be designed for both the factored earth pressures developed inside the modules during construction and the difference between the factored earth pressures behind and inside the modules after construction. Strength and reinforcement requirements for concrete modules shall be in accordance with [Section 5](#).

Strength requirements for steel modules shall be in accordance with [Section 5](#). The net section used for design shall be reduced in accordance with Article [9.10.6.4.2.a](#).

Factored bin pressures shall be the same for each module and shall not be less than:

$$P_b = \gamma g \gamma_s b \times 10^{-9} \quad (9.47)$$

where:

- P_b = factored pressure inside bin module (MPa)
- γ_s = soil density (kg/m³)
- γ = load factor for vertical earth pressure specified in [Table 3.2](#)
- b = width of bin module (mm)
- g = gravitational acceleration (m/sec.²)

Steel reinforcing shall be symmetrical on both faces unless positive identification of each face can be ensured to preclude reversal of units. Corners shall be adequately reinforced.

9.11.6. Seismic Design

The provisions of Article [9.6.5](#) shall apply.

9.11.7. Abutments

Abutment seats constructed on modular units shall be designed by considering earth pressures and supplemental horizontal pressures from the abutment seat beam and earth pressures on the backwall. The top module shall be proportioned to be stable under the combined actions of normal and supplementary earth pressures. The minimum width of the top module shall be 1800 mm. The centerline of bearing shall be located a minimum of 600 mm from the outside face of the top precast module. The abutment beam seat shall be supported by, and cast integrally with, the top module.

The front face thickness of the top module shall be designed for bending forces developed by supplemental earth pressures. Abutment beam-seat loadings shall be carried to foundation level and shall be considered in the design of footings.

Differential settlement provisions, specified in Article [9.10.4](#), shall apply.

9.11.8. Drainage

In cut and side-hill fill areas, prefabricated modular units shall be designed with a continuous subsurface drain placed at, or near, the footing grade and outletted as required. In cut and side-hill fill areas with established or potential groundwater levels above the footing grade, a continuous drainage blanket shall be provided and connected to the longitudinal drain system. For systems with open front faces, a surface drainage system shall be provided above the top of the wall.

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9.13. APPENDIX A9: SEISMIC DESIGN OF ABUTMENTS AND GRAVITY RETAINING STRUCTURES

9.13.1. General

The numerous case histories of damage to or failure of bridges induced by abutment failure or displacement during earthquakes have clearly demonstrated the need for careful attention to abutment design and detailing in seismic areas. Damage is typically associated with fill settlement or slumping, displacements induced by high seismically caused lateral earth pressures, or the transfer of high longitudinal or transverse inertia forces from the bridge structure itself. Settlement of abutment backfill, severe abutment damage, or bridge deck damage induced by the movement of abutments may cause loss of bridge access; hence abutments must be considered a vital link in the overall seismic design process for bridges.

The nature of abutment movement or damage during past earthquakes has been well documented in the literature. [Evans \(1971\)](#) examined the abutments of 39 bridges within 48.3 km of the 1968 M7 Inangahua earthquake in New Zealand, of which 23 showed measurable movement and 15 were damaged. Movements of free-standing abutments followed the general pattern of outward motion and rotation about the top after contact with and restraint by the superstructures. Fill settlements were observed to be 10 to 15 percent of the fill height. Damage effects on bridge abutments in the M7.1 Madang earthquake in New Guinea, reported by [Ellison \(1971\)](#), were similar; abutment movement, as much as 500 mm, was noted. Damage to abutments in the 1971 San Fernando earthquake is described by [Fung et al. \(1971\)](#). Numerous instances of abutment displacement and associated damage have been reported in publications on Niigata and Alaskan earthquakes. However, these failures were primarily associated with liquefaction of foundation soils.

Design features of abutments vary tremendously and depend on the nature of the bridge site, foundation soils, bridge span length, and load magnitudes. Abutment types include free-standing gravity walls, cantilever walls, tied back walls, and monolithic diaphragms. Foundation support may use spread footings, vertical piles, or battered piles, whereas connection details to the superstructure may incorporate roller supports, elastomeric bearings, or fixed bolted connections. Considering the number of potential design variables, together with the complex nature of soil abutment superstructure interaction during earthquakes, it is clear that the seismic design of abutments necessitates many simplifying assumptions.

9.13.1.1. Free-Standing Abutments

For free-standing abutments, such as gravity or cantilever walls, which are able to yield laterally during an earthquake, i.e., superstructure supported by bearings that are able to slide freely, the well-established Mononobe-Okabe pseudo-static approach, outlined below, is widely used to compute earth pressures induced by earthquakes.

For free-standing abutments in highly seismic areas, design of abutments to provide zero displacement under peak ground accelerations may be unrealistic, and design for an acceptable small lateral displacement may be preferable. A recently developed method for computing the magnitude of relative wall displacement during a given earthquake is outlined in this Article. On the basis of this simplified approach, recommendations are made for the selection of a pseudo-static seismic coefficient and the corresponding displacement level for a given effective peak ground acceleration.

1. Mononobe-Okabe Analysis

The method most frequently used for the calculation of the seismic soil forces acting on a bridge abutment is a static approach developed in the 1920s by **Mononobe (1929)** and **Okabe (1926)**. The Mononobe-Okabe analysis is an extension of the Coulomb sliding-wedge theory, taking into account horizontal and vertical inertia forces acting on the soil. The analysis is described in detail by **Seed and Whitman (1970)** and **Richards and Elms (1979)**. The following assumptions are made:

1. The abutment is free to yield sufficiently to enable full soil strength or active pressure conditions to be mobilized. If the abutment is rigidly fixed and unable to move, the soil forces will be much higher than those predicted by the Mononobe-Okabe analysis.
2. The backfill is cohesionless, with a friction angle of ϕ .
3. The backfill is unsaturated, so that liquefaction problems will not arise.

Equilibrium considerations of the soil wedge behind the abutment, as shown in [Figure 9.1](#), then lead to a value, E_{AE} , of the active force exerted on the soil mass by the abutment and vice versa. When the abutment is at the point of failure E_{AE} is given by the expression:

$$E_{AE} = 1/2 g \gamma H^2 (1 - k_v) K_{AE} \times 10^{-9} \quad (\text{A9.1})$$

where the seismic active pressure coefficient K_{AE} is:

$$K_{AE} = \frac{\cos^2(\phi - \theta - \beta)}{\cos \theta \cos^2 \beta \cos(\delta + \beta + \theta)} \times \left[1 - \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta) \sin(\phi - \theta - i)}{\cos(\delta + \beta + \theta) \cos(i - \beta)}} \right]^{-2} \quad (\text{A9.2})$$

where:

- g = acceleration of gravity (mlsec.²)
- γ = density of soil (kg/m³)
- H = height of soil face (mm)
- ϕ = angle of friction of soil (°)
- θ = $\arctan(k_h / (1 - k_v))$ (°)
- δ = angle of friction between soil and abutment (°)
- k_h = horizontal acceleration coefficient (dim.)
- k_v = vertical acceleration coefficient (dim.)
- i = backfill slope angle (°)
- β = slope of wall to the vertical, negative as shown (°)

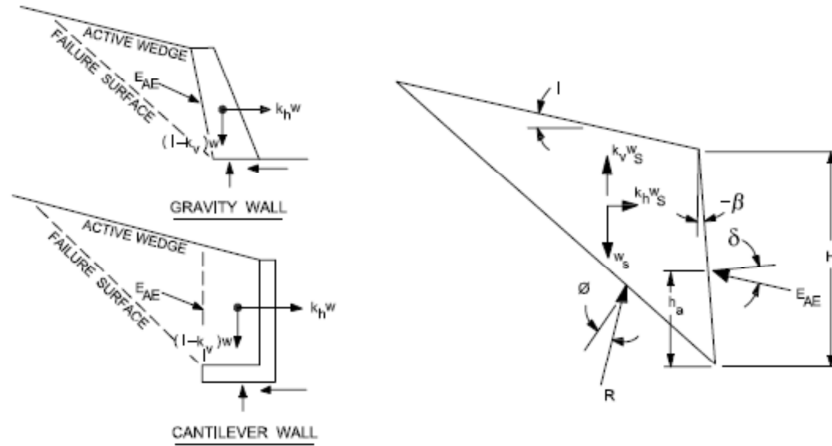


Figure A9.1: Active Wedge Force Diagram.

The equivalent expression for passive force if the abutment is being pushed into the backfill is:

$$E_{PE} = \frac{1}{2} g \gamma H^2 (1 - k_v) K_{PE} \times 10^{-9} \quad (\text{A9.3})$$

where:

$$K_{PE} = \frac{\cos^2(\phi - \theta + \beta)}{\cos \theta \cos^2 \beta \cos(\delta - \beta + \theta)} \times \left[1 - \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta) \sin(\phi - \theta + i)}{\cos(\delta - \beta + \theta) \cos(i - \beta)}} \right]^{-2} \quad (\text{A9.4})$$

As the seismic inertial angle θ increases, the values of K_{AE} and K_{PE} approach each other and, for vertical backfill, become equal when $\theta = \phi$.

Despite the relative simplicity of the approach, the accuracy of Eq. (A9.1) has been substantiated by model tests (Seed and Whitman, 1970), and back calculation from observed failures of flood channels walls (Clough and Frigaszy, 1977). In the latter case, however, the displacements were large; and this, as will be seen, can modify the effective values of k_h at which failure occurs.

The value of h_a , the height at which the resultant of the soil pressure acts on the abutment, may be taken as $H/3$ for the static case with no earthquake effects involved. However, it becomes greater as earthquake effects increase.

This has been shown empirically by tests and theoretically by Wood (1973), who found that the resultant of the dynamic pressure acted approximately at mid height. Seed and Whitman have suggested that h could be obtained by assuming that the static component of the soil force (computed from Eq. (A9.1) with $\theta = k_v = 0$) acts at $H/3$ from the bottom of the abutment, whereas the additional dynamic effect should be taken to act at a height of $0.6H$. For most purposes, it is sufficient to assume $h = H/2$ with a uniformly distributed pressure.

Although the Mononobe-Okabe expression for active thrust is easily evaluated for any particular geometry and friction angle, the significance of the various parameters is not obvious. Figure A9.2 shows the variation of K_{AE} against k_h for different values of ϕ and k_v ; obviously K_{AE} is very sensitive to the value of ϕ . Also, for a constant value of

ϕ , K_{AE} doubles as k_h increases from 0.0 to 0.35 for 0.0 vertical acceleration, and thereafter it increases more rapidly.

In order to evaluate the increase in soil active pressure due to earthquake effects more easily, K_{AE} can be normalized by dividing by its static value K_A to give a thrust factor.

$$F_T = \frac{K_{AE}}{K_A} \quad (A9.5)$$

Whereas Figure A9.2 shows that K_{AE} is sensitive to changes in the soil friction angle, the plots of F_T against ϕ in Figure A9.3 indicate that the value of ϕ has little effect on the thrust factor until quite suddenly, over a short range of ϕ , F_T increases rapidly and becomes infinite for specific critical values of ϕ . The reason for this behavior may be determined by examining Eq. (A9.2). The contents of the radical must be positive for a real solution to be possible, and, for this, it is necessary that:

$$\phi \geq i + \theta = i + \arctan \left(\frac{K_h}{1 - K_v} \right) \quad (A9.6)$$

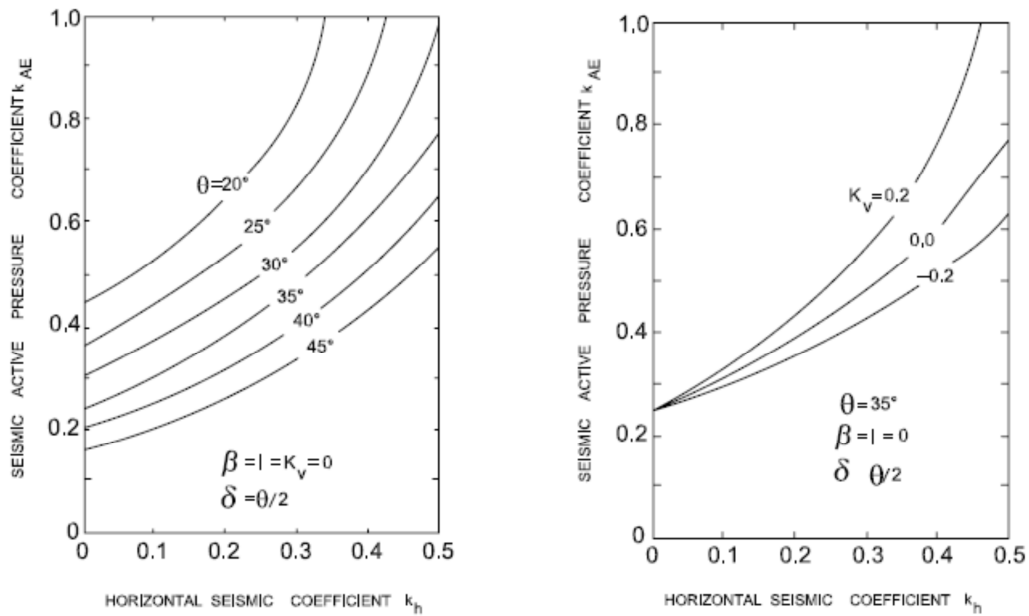


Figure A9.2 : Effects of Seismic Coefficient and Soil Friction Angle on Seismic Active Pressure Coefficient.

This condition could also be thought of as specifying a limit to the horizontal acceleration coefficient that could be sustained by any structure in a given soil. The limiting condition is:

$$k_h \leq (1 - k_v) \tan(\phi - i) \quad (A9.7)$$

For 0.0 vertical acceleration and backfill angle and for a soil friction angle of 35°, the limiting value of k_h is 0.7.

This is a figure of some interest in that it provides an absolute upper-bound for the seismic acceleration that can be transmitted to any structure whatsoever built on soil with the given strength characteristics.

Figure A9.4 shows the effect on F_T of changes in the vertical acceleration coefficient k_v . Positive values of k_v have a significant effect for values of k_h greater than 0.2. The effect is greater than ten percent above and to the right of the dashed line. As is to be expected from Eq. (A9.4), K_{AE} and F_T are also sensitive to variations in backfill slope, particularly for higher values of horizontal acceleration coefficient when the limit, implied by Eq. (A9.4), is approached. This effect is shown in Figure A9.5.

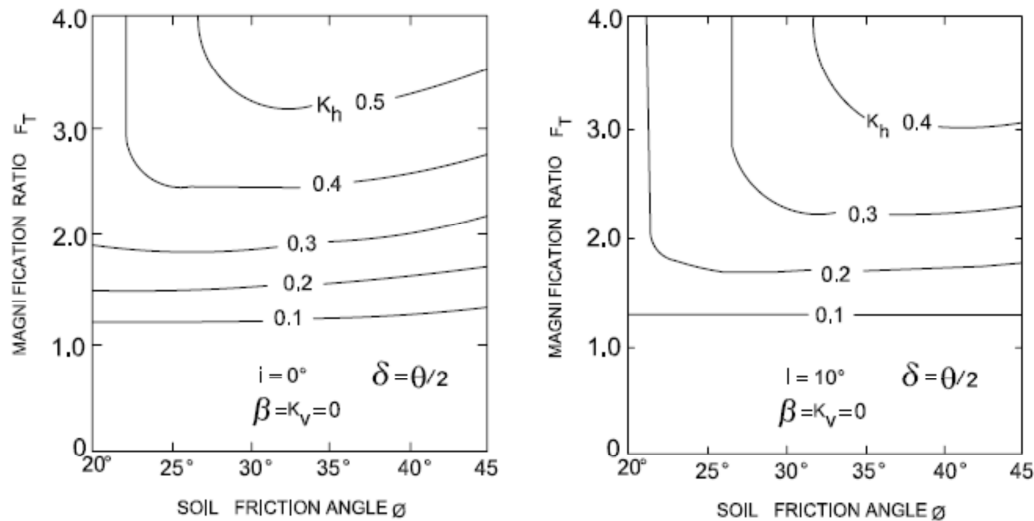


Figure A9.3: Influence of Soil Friction Angle on Magnification Ratio.

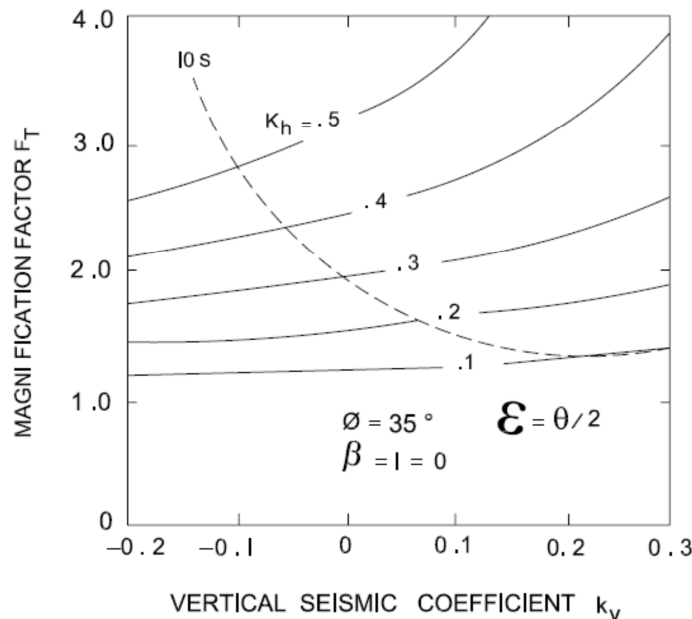


Figure A9.4: Influence of Vertical Seismic Coefficient on Magnification Ratio.

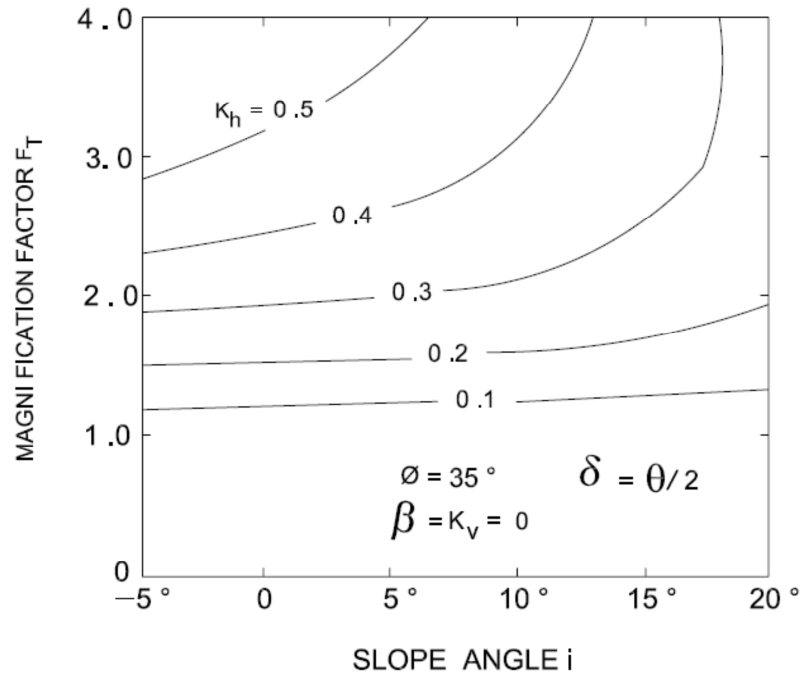


Figure A9.5: Influence of Backfill slope Angle on Magnification Ratio.

The effects of abutment inertia are not taken into account in the Mononobe-Okabe analysis. Many current procedures assume that the inertia forces due to the mass of the abutment itself may be neglected in considering seismic behavior and seismic design. This is not a conservative assumption, and for those abutments relying on their mass for stability, it is also an unreasonable assumption in that to neglect the mass is to neglect a major aspect of their behavior. The effects of wall inertia are discussed further by [Richards and Elms \(1979\)](#), who show that wall inertia forces should not be neglected in the design of gravity-retaining walls.

2. Design for Displacement

If peak ground accelerations are used in the Mononobe-Okabe analysis method, the size of gravity-retaining structures will often be excessively great. To provide a more economic structure, design for a small tolerable displacement, instead of no displacement, may be preferable.

Tests have shown that a gravity-retaining wall fails in an incremental manner in an earthquake. For any earthquake ground motion, the total relative displacement may be calculated using the sliding block method suggested by [Newmark \(1965\)](#). The method assumes a displacement pattern similar to that of a block resting on a plane rough horizontal surface subjected to an earthquake, with the block being free to move against frictional resistance in one direction only. [Figure A9.6](#) shows how the relative displacement relates to the acceleration and velocity time histories of soil and wall. At a critical value of k_h , the wall is assumed to begin sliding; relative motion will continue until wall and soil velocities are equal. [Figure A9.7](#) and [Figure A9.8](#) show the results by [Richards and Elms \(1979\)](#) of a computation of wall displacement for $k_h = 0.1$ for the [EI Centro 1940 N-S record](#).

Newmark computed the maximum displacement response for four earthquake records and plotted the results after scaling the earthquakes to a common maximum

acceleration and velocity. Franklin and Chang (1977) repeated the analysis for a large number of both natural and synthetic records and added their results to the same plot. Upper-bound envelopes for their results are shown in Figure A9.9. All records were scaled to a maximum acceleration coefficient of 0.5 and a maximum velocity, V , of 762 mm/sec. The maximum resistance of coefficient N is the maximum acceleration coefficient sustainable by a sliding block before it slides. In the case of a wall designed using the Mononobe-Okabe method, the maximum coefficient is, of course, k_h .

Figure A9.9 shows that the displacement envelopes for all the scaled records have roughly the same shape.

An approximation of the curves for relatively low displacements is given by the relations, expressed in any consistent set of units,

$$d = 0.087 \frac{V^2}{Ag} \left(\frac{N}{A} \right)^{-4} \quad (\text{A9.8})$$

where d is the total relative displacement of a wall subjected to an earthquake ground motion whose maximum acceleration coefficient and maximum velocity are A and V , respectively. This displacement is drawn as a straight line on Figure A9.9. Because this expression has been derived from envelope curves, it will overestimate d for most earthquakes.

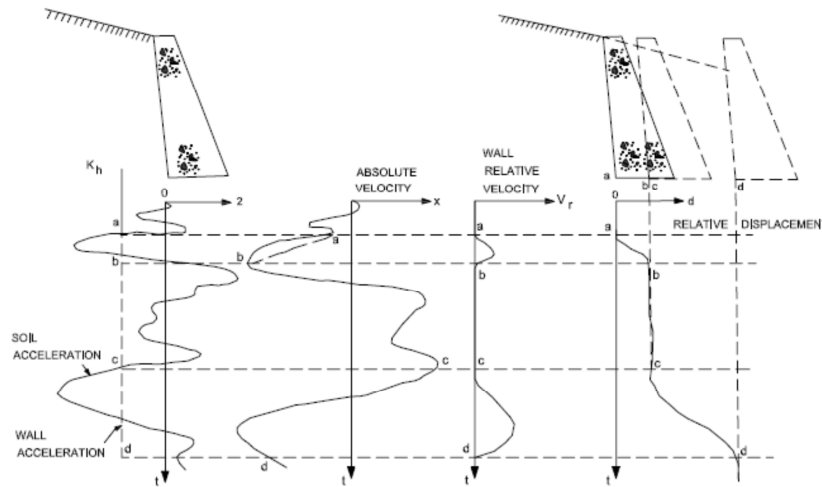


Figure A9.6: Relation between Relative Displacement and Acceleration and Velocity Time Histories of Soil and Wall.

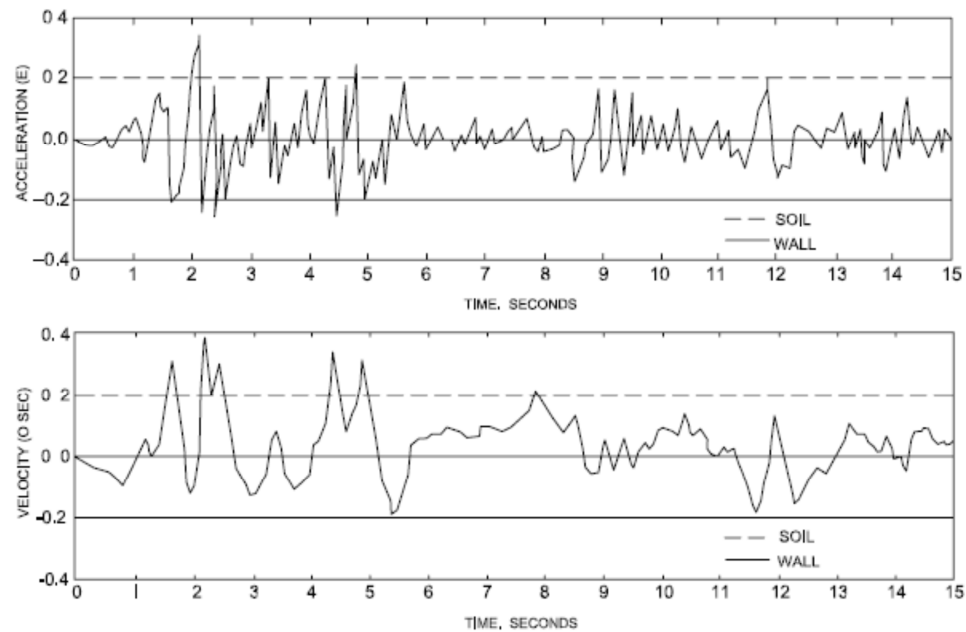


Figure A9.7 : Acceleration and Velocity Time Histories of Soil and Wall (EI Centro 1940 N-S Record).

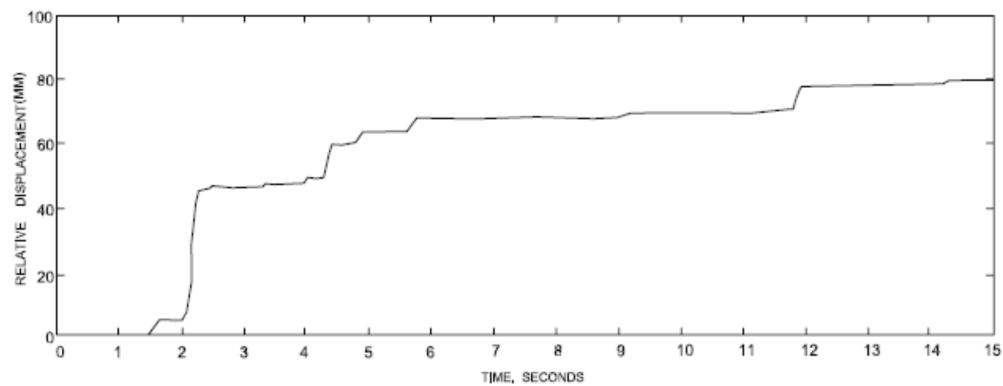


Figure A9.8 : Relative Displacement of Wall (EI Centro 1940 N-S Record).

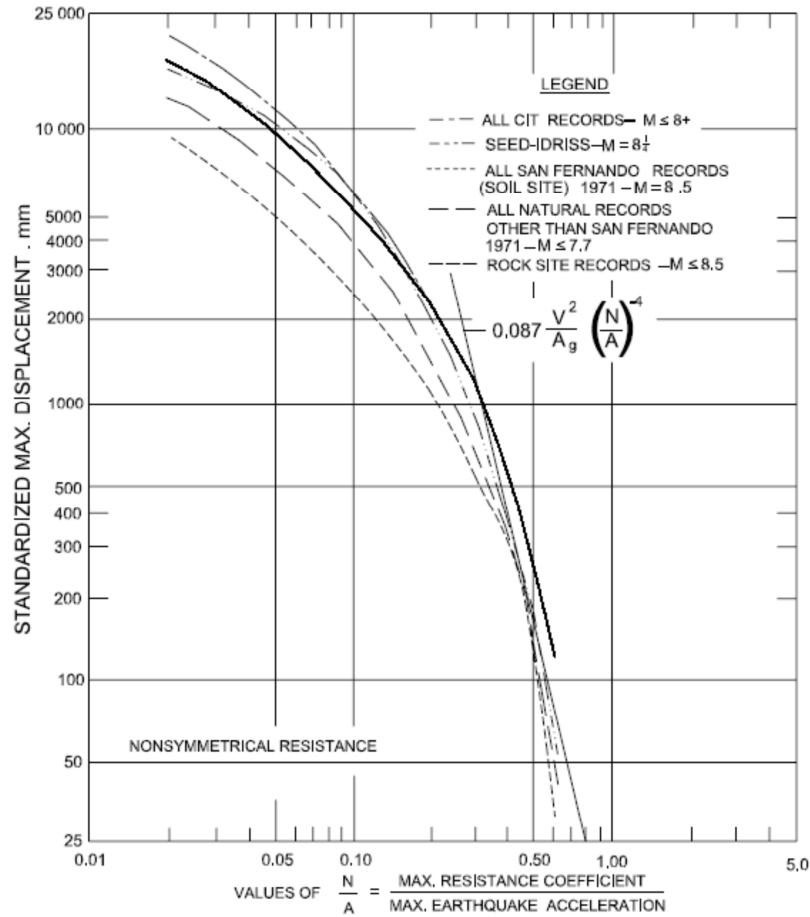


Figure A9.9: Upper-Bound Envelope Curves of Permanent Displacements for all Natural and Synthetic Records Analyzed by Franklin and Chang (1977).

One possible design procedure would be to choose a desired value of maximum wall displacement, d , together with appropriate earthquake parameters and to use Eq. (A9.8) to derive a value of the seismic acceleration coefficient for which the wall should be designed. The wall connections, if any, could then be detailed to allow for this displacement.

By applying the above procedure to several simplified examples, Elms and Martin (1979) have shown that a value of $k_h = A_s / 2$ is adequate for most design purposes, provided that allowance is made for an outward displacement of the abutment of up to $254A_s$ mm.

Kavazanjian et al. (1997) further simplified the relationship provided in Eq. (A9.8) as follows, assuming that the velocity, in the absence of information on the time history of the ground motion, is equal to $30A$:

$$k_h = 1.66A_s \left(\frac{A_s}{d} \right)^{0.25} \quad (\text{A9.9})$$

where:

A_s = earthquake ground acceleration coefficient as specified in Eq. (3.12) (dim.)

k_h = horizontal seismic acceleration coefficient (dim.)

d = the lateral wall displacement (mm)

This equation should not be used for displacements of less than 25 mm or greater than approximately 200 mm, as this equation is an approximation of a more rigorous Newmark analysis.

In general, typical practice among states of USA located in seismically active areas is to design walls for reduced seismic pressures corresponding to 50 mm to 100 mm of displacement.

However, the amount of deformation which is tolerable will depend on the nature of the wall and what it supports, as well as what is in front of the wall.

In addition to whether or not the wall can tolerate lateral deformation, it is recommended that this simplified approach not be used for walls which have a complex geometry, such as stacked walls, MSE walls with trapezoidal sections, or back-to-back walls supporting narrow ramps, for walls which are very tall (over 15 000 mm), nor for walls where the ground acceleration coefficient, A_s , is 0.3 or higher. In such cases, a specialist should be retained to evaluate the anticipated deformation response of the structure, as potentially unacceptable permanent lateral and vertical wall deformations could occur even if design criteria based on this pseudo static approach are met.

For bridges classified as Seismic Design Categories B, C or D, more detailed consideration of the mechanism of transfer of structural inertia forces through bridge bearings to free-standing abutments is required, particularly for bridges classified as Seismic Design Category C, where continued bridge accessibility after a major earthquake is required.

For sliding steel bearings or pot bearings, force diagrams describing limiting equilibrium conditions for simple abutments are shown in [Figure A9.10:](#). Where bearings comprise unconfined elastomeric pads, the nature of the forces transferred to the abutment becomes more complex because such bearings are capable of transferring significant force.

The magnitude of the force initially depends on the relative movement between the superstructure and the abutment, and force magnitudes can become quite large before slip will occur.

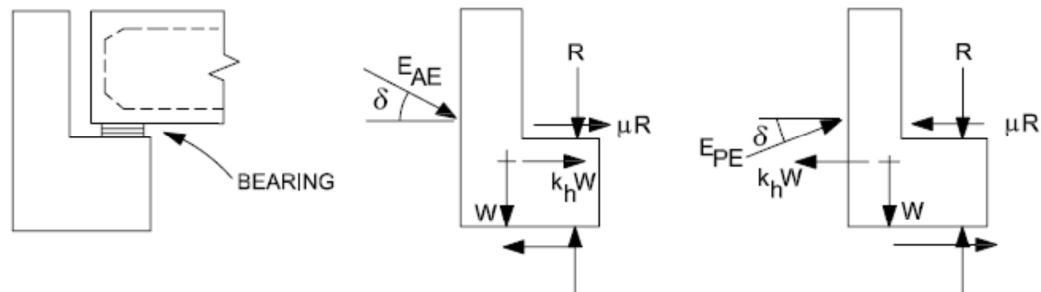


Figure A9.10: Force Diagrams including Bearing Friction

For bridges classified as Seismic Design Category D, additional consideration should be given to the use of linkage bolts and buffers to minimize damage. A typical

abutment support detail used by the New Zealand Ministry of Works is shown in [Figure A9.11](#). It may be seen that linkage bolts are incorporated to prevent spans from dropping off supports. The rubber rings act as buffers to prevent impact damage in the event that the lateral displacement clearance provided is inadequate. The knock-off back wall accommodates differential displacement between the abutment and superstructure, with minimum structural damage. A more typical design provision in United States practice is to seal the gap between superstructure and abutment with bitumen to minimize impact damage. It must be recognized, however, that in this case some damage and possible abutment rotation will occur in strong earthquakes.

In [Figure A9.11](#) and [Figure A9.12](#), the use of a settlement or approach slab, which has the effect of providing bridge access in the event of backfill settlement, is also noted. The slab also provides an additional abutment friction anchorage against lateral movement.

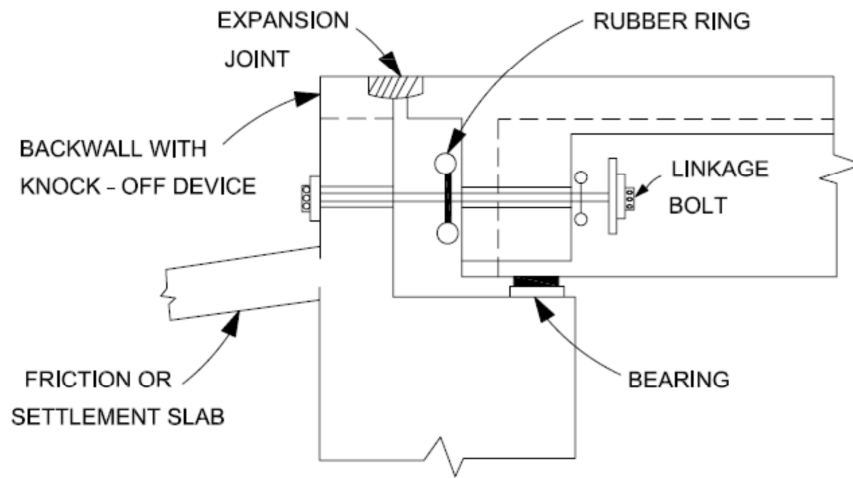


Figure A9.11 : Possible Abutment Details.

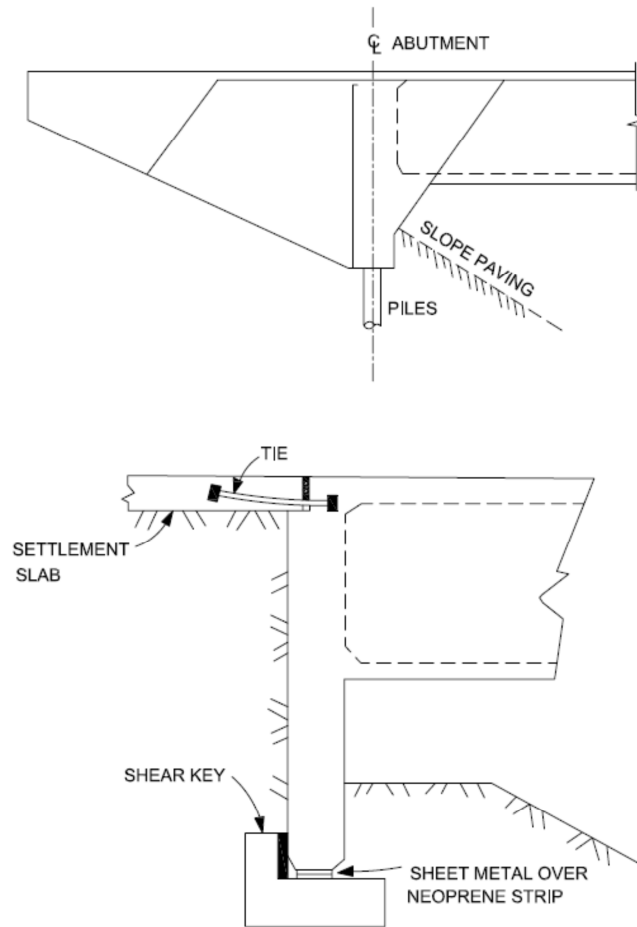


Figure A9.12 : Typical Monolithic Abutment.

3. Non-yielding Abutments

As previously noted, the Mononobe-Okabe analysis assumes that the abutment is free to laterally yield a sufficient amount to mobilize peak soil strengths in the soil backfill. For granular soils, peak strengths can be assumed to be mobilized if deflections at the top of the wall are about 0.5 percent of the abutment height. For abutments restrained against lateral movement by tiebacks or batter piles, lateral pressures induced by inertia forces in the backfill will be greater than those given by a Mononobe-Okabe analysis. Simplified elastic solutions presented by [Wood \(1973\)](#) for rigid non-yielding walls also indicate that pressures are greater than those given by Mononobe-Okabe. The use of a factor of 1.5 in conjunction with peak ground accelerations is suggested for design where doubt exists that an abutment can yield sufficiently to mobilize soil strengths.

9.13.1.2. Monolithic Abutments

Monolithic or end diaphragm abutments, such as shown in [Figure A9.12](#), are commonly used for single and for two span bridges in California. As shown, the end diaphragm is cast monolithically with the superstructure and may be directly supported on piles, or provision may be made for beam shortening during post-tensioning. The

diaphragm acts as a retaining wall with the superstructure acting as a prop between abutments.

Such abutments have performed well during earthquakes, avoiding problems such as backwall and bearing damage associated with yielding abutments and reducing the lateral load taken by columns or piers. On the other hand, higher longitudinal and transverse superstructure inertia forces are transmitted directly into the backfill, and provision must be made for adequate passive resistance to avoid excessive relative displacements.

Although free-standing or seat-type abutments allow the engineer more control over development of soil forces, the added joint introduces a potential collapse mechanism into the structure. To avoid this collapse mechanism, monolithic abutments are particularly recommended for bridges classified as Seismic Design Category D. Although damage may be heavier than that for free-standing abutments because of the higher forces transferred to backfill soils, with adequate abutment reinforcement, the collapse potential is low. In making estimates of monolithic abutment stiffness and associated longitudinal displacements during transfer of peak earthquake forces from the structure, it is recommended that abutments be proportioned to restrict displacements to 91.4 mm or less in order to minimize damage.

9.14. APPENDIX B9: COMMENTARY ON ARTICLE 9.10.6.4.4.B

The long-term creep reduced geosynthetic strength at the connection with the wall facing is obtained by reducing T_{ult} by CR_{cr} using the connection/seam strength determined in accordance with long-term connection strength test protocol as described in [Appendix A of Elias et al. \(2001\)](#). The connection test is similar in nature to a wide width tensile test ([ASTM D 4595](#) or [ASTM D 6637](#)), except that one end of the reinforcement material is sandwiched between two courses of concrete blocks to form one of the grips. This protocol consists of a series of connection creep tests carried out over an extended period of time to evaluate the potential for creep rupture at the connection. CR_{cr} is taken as the creep reduced connection strength, T_{cr} , extrapolated to the specified design life, divided by the ultimate wide width tensile strength ([ASTM D 4595](#) or [D 6637](#)) for the reinforcement material lot used for the connection strength testing, T_{lot} .

CR_{cr} may also be obtained from short-term connection test ([ASTM D 4884](#) for seam connections, or [NCMA Test Method SRWU-I](#) in [Simac et al. \(1993\)](#) for segmental concrete block connections) results, which are to obtain a short-term ultimate connection strength reduction factor CR_u . CR_u is taken as the ultimate connection strength $T_{ultconn}$ from [SRWU-I](#) or [ASTM D 4884](#), divided by T_{lot} as described above. In this case, CR_u must be further reduced by the creep reduction factor RF_{CR} (Article [9.10.6.4.3.b](#)) in order to account for the potential of creep rupture as follows:

$$CR_{cr} = \frac{CR_u}{RF_{CR}} \quad (B9.1)$$

For reinforcements connected to the facing through embedment between facing elements, e.g., segmental concrete block faced walls, the capacity of the connection is conceptually governed by one of two failure modes: rupture, or pullout of the reinforcement. This is consistent with the evaluation of internal wall stability in the reinforced backfill zone, where both the rupture and pullout mode of failure must be considered.

The objective of the connection design is to assess the long-term capacity of the connection. If rupture is the mode of failure, the long-term effects of creep and durability on the geosynthetic reinforcement at the connection, as well as on the connector materials, must be taken into account, as the capacity of the connection is controlled by the reinforcement or connector long-term strength. If pullout is the mode of failure, the capacity of the connection is controlled by the frictional interface between the facing blocks and the geosynthetic reinforcement. It is assumed for design that this interface is not significantly affected by time dependent mechanisms such as creep or chemical degradation. This again is consistent with the design of the soil reinforcement within the wall backfill. The load bearing fibers or ribs of the geosynthetic do not necessarily have to experience rupture in the connection test for the mode of failure to be rupture. If the connector is a material that is susceptible to creep, failure of the connectors between blocks due to creep rupture of the connector could result in long-term connection strength losses. In these cases, the value of CR_{cr} and RF_D to be used in Eq. [\(B9.1\)](#) *equation reference goes here* should be based on the durability of the connector, not the geosynthetic.

Regardless of the failure mode, the long-term connection test referenced in [Elias et al. \(2001\)](#) addresses the long-term capacity of the connection. Eq. [\(B9.1\)](#) above should also be considered to conservatively apply to both failure modes, if the long-term connection test is not performed.

If the connectors between blocks are intended to be used for maintaining block alignment during wall construction and are not intended for long-term connection shear capacity, the alignment connectors should be removed before assessing the connection capacity for the selected block-geosynthetic combination. If the pins or other connection devices are to be relied upon for long-term capacity, the durability of the connector material must be established.

Guidelines for determining RF_{CR} and RF_D from product-specific data are provided in [Elias et al. \(2001\)](#) and [Elias \(2001\)](#). The use of default reduction factors may be acceptable where the reinforcement load is maximum, i.e., in the middle of the wall backfill, and still not be acceptable at the facing connection if the facing environment is defined as aggressive.

SECTION 10. BURIED STRUCTURES

10.1. SCOPE

This Section provides requirements for the selection of structural properties and dimensions of buried structures, e.g., culverts, and steel plate used to support tunnel excavations in soil.

Buried structure systems considered herein are metal pipe, structural plate pipe, long-span structural plate, structural plate box, reinforced concrete pipe, reinforced concrete cast-in-place and precast arch, box and elliptical structures, and thermoplastic pipe.

The type of liner plate considered is cold-formed steel panels.

- C For buried structures, refer to [Article 2.6.6 for hydraulic design considerations and FHWA \(1985\)](#) for design methods related to location, length, and waterway openings.

10.2. DEFINITIONS

<i>Abrasion</i>	: Loss of section or coating of a culvert by the mechanical action of water conveying suspended bed load of sand, gravel, and cobble-size particles at high velocities with appreciable turbulence.
<i>Buried Structure</i>	: A generic term for a structure built by embankment or trench methods.
<i>Corrosion</i>	: Loss of section or coating of a buried structure by chemical and/or electrochemical processes.
<i>Culvert</i>	: A curved or rectangular buried conduit for conveyance of water, vehicles, utilities, or pedestrians.
<i>FEM</i>	: Finite Element Method
<i>Narrow Trench Width</i>	: The outside span of rigid pipe, plus 300 mm.
<i>Projection Ratio</i>	: Ratio of the vertical distance between the outside top of the pipe and the ground or bedding surface to the outside vertical height of the pipe, applicable to reinforced concrete pipe only.
<i>Soil Envelope</i>	: Zone of controlled soil backfill around culvert structure required to ensure anticipated performance based on soil-structure interaction considerations.
<i>Soil-Structure Interaction System</i>	: A buried structure whose structural behavior is influenced by interaction with the soil envelope.
<i>Tunnel</i>	: A horizontal or near horizontal opening in soil excavated to a predesigned geometry by tunneling methods exclusive of cut-and-cover methods.

10.3. NOTATION

A	=	wall area (mm ² /mm)
A_{eff}	=	effective wall area (mm ² /mm)
A_g	=	gross wall area within a length of one period (mm ²)
A_L	=	axle load, taken as 50 percent of all axle loads that can be placed on the structure at one time (N); sum of all axle loads in an axle group (N); total axle load on single axle or tandem axles (N)
A_s	=	tension reinforcement area (mm ² /mm)
A_{smax}	=	minimum flexural reinforcement area without stirrups (mm ² /mm)
A_T	=	area of the top portion of the structure above the springline (mm ²)
A_{vr}	=	stirrup reinforcement area to resist radial tension forces on cross-section of unit width in each line of stirrups at circumferential spacing, s_v (mm ² /mm)
A_{vs}	=	required area of stirrups for shear reinforcement (mm ² /mm)
B	=	width of culvert (mm)
B'	=	non-uniform stress distribution factor
B_c	=	outside diameter or width of the structure (mm)
B'_c	=	out-to-out vertical rise of pipe (mm)
B_d	=	horizontal width of trench at top of pipe (mm)
B_{FE}	=	earth load bedding factor
B_{FLL}	=	live load bedding factor
B_I	=	crack control coefficient for effect of cover and spacing of reinforcement
b	=	element effective width (mm)
C_A	=	constant corresponding to the shape of the pipe
C_c	=	load coefficient for positive pipe projection
C_d	=	load coefficient for trench installation
C_{dt}	=	load coefficient for tunnel installation
C_H	=	adjustment factor for shallow cover heights over metal box culverts
C_L	=	live load distribution coefficient
$C_{\ell\ell}$	=	live load adjusted for axle loads, tandem axles, and axles with other than four wheels; $C_1 C_2 AL$ (N)
C_N	=	parameter that is a function of the vertical load and vertical reaction
C_s	=	construction stiffness for tunnel liner plate (N/mm)
C_1	=	1.0 for single axles and $0.5 + S/15\,000 \leq 1.0$ for tandem axles; adjustment coefficient for number of axles; crack control coefficient for various types of reinforcement
C_2	=	adjustment factor for number of wheels on a design axle as specified in Table 10.10 ; adjustment coefficient for number of wheels per axle
c	=	distance from inside face to neutral axis of thermoplastic pipe (mm); distance from inside surface to neutral axis (mm); distance from neutral axis to extreme fiber (mm)

D	= straight leg length of haunch (mm); pipe diameter (mm); required D-load capacity of reinforced concrete pipe (N/mm); diameter to centroid of pipe wall (mm)
$D\text{-load}$	= resistance of pipe from three-edge bearing test load to produce a 0.25-mm crack (N/mm)
D_e	= effective diameter of thermoplastic pipe (mm)
D_f	= shape factor
D_i	= inside diameter of pipe (mm)
D_o	= outside diameter of pipe (mm)
d	= required envelope width adjacent to the structure (mm); distance from compression face to centroid of tension reinforcement (mm)
d'	= width of warped embankment fill to provide adequate support for skewed installation (mm)
d_1	= distance from the structure (mm)
E	= modulus of elasticity of the plastic (MPa)
E_m	= modulus of elasticity of metal (MPa)
$E(x)$	= lateral unbalanced distributed load on culvert below sloping ground and skewed at end wall (N)
E_{50}	= 50-year modulus of elasticity (MPa)
F	= concentrated load acting at the crown of a culvert (N)
F_c	= curvature correction factor
F_{cr}	= factor for adjusting crack control relative to average maximum crack width of 0.25 mm corresponding to $F_{cr} = 1.0$
F_d	= factor for crack depth effect resulting in increase in diagonal tension, shear, and strength with decreasing
F_e	= soil-structure interaction factor for embankment installations
FF	= flexibility factor (mm/N)
F_n	= coefficient for effect of thrust on shear strength
F_{rp}	= factor for process and local materials affecting radial tension strength of pipe
F_{rt}	= factor for pipe size effect on radial tension strength
F_t	= soil-structure interaction factor for trench installations
F_u	= specified minimum tensile strength (MPa)
F_{vp}	= factor for process and local materials that affect the shear strength of the pipe
F_y	= yield strength of metal (MPa)
f'_c	= compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
f_{cr}	= critical buckling stress (MPa)
f_s	= maximum stress in reinforcing steel at service limit state (MPa)
f_y	= specified minimum yield point for reinforcing steel (MPa)
g	= acceleration due to gravity (m/sec. ²)

H	=	rise of culvert (mm); height of cover from the box culvert rise to top of pavement (mm); height of cover over crown (mm); height of fill above top of pipe or box (mm)
HAF	=	horizontal arching factor
H_{design}	=	design height of cover above top of culvert or above crown of arches or pipes (mm)
H_L	=	headwall strip reaction (N)
H_s	=	depth of water table above springline of pipe (mm)
H_1	=	depth of crown of culvert below ground surfaces (mm); height of cover above the footing to traffic surface (mm)
H_2	=	actual height of cover above top of culvert or above crown of arches or pipes (mm); height of cover from the structure springline to traffic surface (mm)
h	=	vertical distance from the top of cover for design height to point of horizontal load application (mm); wall thickness of pipe or box culvert (mm); height of ground surface above top of pipe (mm)
h_w	=	height of water surface above top of pipe (mm)
I	=	moment of inertia (mm ⁴ /mm)
ID	=	inside diameter (mm)
i	=	coefficient for effect of axial force at service limit state, f_s
j	=	coefficient for moment arm at service limit state, f_s
K	=	ratio of the unit lateral effective soil pressure to unit vertical effective soil pressure, i.e., Rankine coefficient of active earth pressure
K_h	=	lateral earth pressure for culvert under sloping ground (MPa/mm)
K_{h1}	=	lateral earth pressure distribution acting on upslope surface of culvert (MPa/mm)
K_{h2}	=	lateral earth pressure distribution acting on downslope surface of culvert (MPa/mm)
k	=	soil stiffness factor; edge support coefficient
L	=	distance along length of culvert from expansion joint to the centerline of the headwall (mm); length of stiffening rib on leg (mm)
L_w	=	lane width (mm); horizontal live load distribution width in the circumferential direction, at the elevation of the crown (mm)
M_{dl}	=	dead load moment (N-mm/mm); sum of the nominal crown and haunch dead load moments (N-mm/mm)
M_{dlu}	=	factored dead load moment as specified in Article 10.10.4.2 (N-mm)
$M_{\ell\ell}$	=	live load moment (N-mm/mm); sum of the nominal crown and haunch live load moments (N-mm/mm)
$M_{\ell\ell u}$	=	factored live load moment as specified in Article 10.10.4.2 (N-mm)
M_{nu}	=	factored moment acting on cross-section of unit width as modified for effects of compressive or tensile thrust (N-mm/mm)
M_{pc}	=	crown plastic moment capacity (N-mm/mm)
M_{ph}	=	haunch plastic moment capacity (N-mm/mm)

M_s	= bending moment at service limit state (N-mm/mm); moment acting on a cross-section of unit width at service limit state taken as an absolute value in design equations (N-mm/mm); constrained soil modulus specified in Table 10.24 (MPa); soil modulus (MPa)
M_u	= ultimate moment acting on cross-section of unit width (N-mm/mm)
N_s	= axial thrust acting on a cross-section of unit width at service limit state taken as positive when compressive and negative when tensile (N/mm)
N_u	= axial thrust acting on cross-section of unit width at strength limit state (N/mm)
n	= number of adjoining traffic lanes
P_c	= proportion of total moment carried by crown of metal box culvert
P_F	= factored vertical crown pressure (MPa)
P_L	= factored design crown pressure (MPa); pressure due to live load (LL) and dynamic load allowance (IM) (MPa)
P_{sp}	= geostatic earth pressure (EV), does not include hydrostatic pressure (MPa)
P_w	= hydrostatic water pressure (MPa)
P_l	= horizontal pressure from the structure at a distance, d_l (MPa)
p	= positive projection ratio
p'	= negative projection ratio
q	= ratio of the total lateral pressure to the total vertical pressure
R	= rise of structure (mm); rise of box culvert or long-span structural plate structures (mm); radius of centroid of culvert wall (mm); radius of pipe (mm); radius to centroid of pipe wall profile (mm)
R_{AL}	= axle load correction factor
R_c	= corner radius of the structure (mm); concrete strength correction factor
R_d	= ratio of resistance factors specified Section 5 for shear and moment
R_f	= factor related to required relieving slab thickness, applicable for box structures where the span is less than 8000 mm
R_H	= horizontal footing reaction component (N/mm)
R_h	= haunch moment reduction factor
R_n	= nominal resistance (N/mm)
R_r	= factored resistance (N/mm); factored resistance to thrust (N/mm)
R_T	= top arc radius of long-span structural plate structures (mm)
R_V	= vertical footing reaction component (N/mm)
R_w	= water buoyancy factor
r	= radius of gyration (mm); radius to centerline of concrete pipe wall (mm)
r_c	= radius of crown (mm)
r_h	= radius of haunch (mm)
r_s	= radius of the inside reinforcement (mm)
r_{sd}	= settlement ratio parameter

S	=	pipe, tunnel, or box diameter or span (mm); span of structure between springlines of long-span structural plate structures (mm); box culvert span (mm)
S_H	=	hoop stiffness factor
S_i	=	internal diameter or horizontal span of the pipe (mm)
S_ℓ	=	spacing of circumferential reinforcement (mm)
S_1, S_2	=	shear forces acting along culvert bearing lines (N)
s_v	=	spacing of stirrups (mm)
T	=	total dead load and live load thrust in the structure (N/mm)
T_L	=	factored thrust (N/mm)
t	=	required thickness of cement concrete relieving slab (mm); thickness of element (mm)
t_b	=	basic thickness of cement concrete relieving slab (mm); clear cover over reinforcement (mm)
V	=	footing reaction in the direction of the box culvert straight side (N/mm)
VAF	=	vertical arching factor
V_c	=	factored shear force acting on cross-section of unit width which produces diagonal tension failure without stirrup reinforcement (N/mm)
V_{DL}	=	$g[H_2(S) - A_T]\gamma_s/(2 \times 10^9)$ (N/mm)
V_L	=	headwall strip reaction (N)
V_{LL}	=	$n(AL)/(2400 + 2 H_l)$ (N/mm)
V_n	=	nominal shear resistance of pipe section without radial stirrups per unit length of pipe (N/mm)
V_r	=	factored shear resistance per unit length (N/mm)
V_u	=	ultimate shear force acting on cross-section of unit width (N/mm)
W_E	=	total earth load on pipe or liner (N/mm)
W_F	=	fluid load in the pipe (N/mm)
W_L	=	total live load on pipe or liner (N/mm)
W_T	=	total dead and live load on pipe or liner (N/mm)
w	=	total clear width of element between supporting elements (mm)
x	=	parameter which is a function of the area of the vertical projection of the pipe over which active lateral pressure is effective
α	=	skew angle between the highway centerline or tangent thereto and the culvert headwall ($^\circ$)
β	=	angle of fill slope measured from horizontal ($^\circ$)
γ_{EV}	=	load factor for vertical pressure from dead load of earth fill
γ_{LL}	=	load factor for live load
γ_p	=	maximum load factor for permanent load resulting from Vertical Earth Pressure (EV) for the case of flexible buried structures other than metal box culverts, specified in
γ_s	=	density of backfill (kg/m^3); soil density (kg/m^3)

γ_w	= density of water (kg/m ³)
γ_{WA}	= load factor for hydrostatic pressure
Δ	= return angle of the structure (°); haunch radius included angle (°); allowable deflection of pipe, reduction of vertical diameter due to bending (mm)
ϵ_{bu}	= factored bending strain = $\gamma_B \epsilon_b$ (mm/mm)
ϵ_{tt}	= factored long-term tension strain (mm/mm)
ϵ_t	= allowable tension strain
η_{EV}	= load modifier, specified in Article 1.3.2 , as they apply to vertical earth loads on culverts
η_{LL}	= load modifier as they apply to live loads on culverts
λ	= slenderness factor
μ	= coefficient of friction between the pipe and soil
ρ	= effective width factor
ϕ	= resistance factor
ϕ_f	= resistance factor for flexure
ϕ_s	= coefficient of friction between the fill material and the sides of the trench
ϕ_r	= resistance factor for radial tension
ϕ_s	= resistance factor for soil stiffness, $\phi_s = 0.9$
Ψ	= central angle of pipe subtended by assumed distribution of external reactive force (°)
ω	= spacing of corrugation (mm)

10.4. SOIL AND MATERIAL PROPERTIES

10.4.1. Determination of Soil Properties

10.4.1.1. General

Subsurface exploration shall be carried out to determine the presence and influence of geologic and environmental conditions that may affect the performance of buried structures.

For buried structures supported on footings and for pipe arches and large diameter pipes, a foundation investigation should be conducted to evaluate the capacity of foundation materials to resist the applied loads and to satisfy the movement requirements of the structure.

C The following information may be useful for design:

- Strength and compressibility of foundation materials;
- Chemical characteristics of soil and surface waters, e.g., pH, resistivity, and chloride content of soil and pH, resistivity, and sulfate content of surface water;
- Stream hydrology, e.g., flow rate and velocity, maximum width, allowable headwater depth, and scour potential;
- Performance and condition survey of culverts in the vicinity.

10.4.1.2. Foundation Soils

The type and anticipated behavior of the foundation soil shall be considered for stability of bedding and settlement under load.

- C Refer to Article [8.4](#) for general guidance regarding foundation soil properties. The performance of rigid pipes is dependent on foundation and bedding stability.

10.4.1.3. Envelope Backfill Soils

The type, compacted density and strength properties of the soil envelope adjacent to the buried structure shall be established. The backfill soils comprising the soil envelope shall conform to the requirements of **AASHTO M 145** as follows:

- For standard flexible pipes and concrete structures: A-1, A-2, or A-3;
 - For metal box culverts and long-span structures with cover less than 3600 mm: A-1, A-2-4, A-2-5, or A-3;
 - For long-span metal structures with cover not less than 3600 mm: A-1 or A-3.
- C Refer to Sections 25 and 26, MA-100-C-V1/1, for compaction criteria of soil backfill for flexible and rigid culverts, respectively.
- C Wall stresses in buried structure are sensitive to the relative stiffness of the soil and pipe. Buckling stability of flexible culverts is dependant on soil stiffness.
- C In the selection of a type of backfill for the envelope, the quality of the material and its suitability for achieving the requirements of the design should be considered. The order of preference for selecting envelope backfill based on quality may be taken as follows:
- Angular, well-graded sand and gravel;
 - Non-angular, well-graded sand and gravel;
 - Flowable materials, e.g., cement-soil-fly ash mixtures, which result in low density/low strength backfill, for trench applications only;
 - Uniform sand or gravel, provided that placement is confirmed to be dense and stable, but which may require a soil or geofabric filter to prevent the migration of fines;
 - Clayey sand or gravel of low plasticity; and
 - Stabilized soil, which should be used only under the supervision of an Engineer familiar with the behavior of the material.

10.4.2. Materials

10.4.2.1. Aluminum Pipe and Structural Plate Structures

Aluminum for corrugated metal pipe and pipe-arches shall comply with the requirements of **AASHTO M 196 (ASTM B 745M)**. Aluminum for structural plate pipe, pipe-arch, arch, and box structures shall meet the requirements of **AASHTO M 219 (ASTM B 746M)**.

10.4.2.2. Concrete

Concrete shall conform to Article [5.4](#), except that f'_c may be based on cores.

10.4.2.3. Precast Concrete Pipe

Precast concrete pipe shall comply with the requirements of **AASHTO M 170M (ASTM C 76M)** and **M 242 M/M 242 (ASTM C 655M/C 655)**. Design wall thickness, other than the standard wall dimensions, may be used, provided that the design complies with all applicable requirements of this Section.

10.4.2.4. Precast Concrete Structures

Precast concrete arch, elliptical, and box structures shall comply with the requirements of AASHTO M 206M/M 206 (ASTM C 506M and C 506), M 207M/M 207 (ASTM C 507M and C 507), M 259 (ASTM C 789), and M 273M (ASTM C 850).

10.4.2.5. Steel Pipe and Structural Plate

Structures Steel for corrugated metal pipe and pipe-arches shall comply with the requirements of **AASHTO M 36 (ASTM A 760M)**. Steel for structural plate pipe, pipe-arch, arch, and box structures shall meet the requirements of **AASHTO M 167M/M 167 (ASTM A 761/A 761M)**.

10.4.2.6. Steel Reinforcement

Reinforcement shall comply with the requirements of Article **5.4.3**, and shall conform to one of the following **AASHTO M 31M/M 31 (ASTM A 615/A 615M)**, **M 32M/M 32 (ASTM A 82/A 82M)**, **M 55M/M 55 (ASTM A 185/A 185M)**, **M 221M/M 221 (ASTM A 497)**, or **M 225M (ASTM A 496/A 496M)**.

For smooth wire and smooth welded wire fabric, the yield strength may be taken as 450 MPa. For deformed welded wire fabric, the yield strength may be taken as 480 MPa.

10.4.2.7. Thermoplastic Pipe

Plastic pipe may be solid wall, corrugated, or profile wall and may be manufactured of polyethylene (PE) or polyvinyl chloride (PVC).

PE pipe shall comply with the requirements of **ASTM F 714** for solid wall pipe, **AASHTO M 294** for corrugated pipe, and **ASTM F 894** for profile wall pipe.

PVC pipe shall comply with the requirements of **AASHTO M 278** for solid wall pipe, **ASTM F 679** for solid wall pipe, and **AASHTO M 304** for profile wall pipe.

10.5. LIMIT STATES AND RESISTANCE FACTORS

10.5.1. General

Buried structures and their foundations shall be designed by the appropriate methods specified in Articles **10.7** through **10.13** so that they resist the factored loads given by the load combinations specified in Articles **10.5.2** and **10.5.3**.

The factored resistance, R_r , shall be calculated for each applicable limit state as:

$$R_r = \phi R_n \quad (10.1)$$

where:

R_n = the nominal resistance

ϕ = the resistance factor specified in **Table 10.1**

C Procedures for determining nominal resistance are provided in Articles **10.8** through **10.13** for:

- Metal pipe, pipe arches, and arch structures;
- Long-span structural plate;
- Structural plate box structures;
- Reinforced precast concrete pipe;
- Reinforced concrete cast-in-place and precast box structures; and

- Thermoplastic pipe.

10.5.2. Service Limit State

Buried structures shall be investigated at Service Load Combination I, as specified in [Table 3.1](#).

- Deflection of metal structures, tunnel liner plate, and thermoplastic pipe.
 - Crack width in reinforced concrete structures.
- C Deflection of a tunnel liner depends significantly on the amount of over-excavation of the bore and is affected by delay in backpacking or inadequate backpacking. The magnitude of deflection is not primarily a function of soil modulus or the liner plate properties, so it cannot be computed with usual deflection formulae.
- C Where the tunnel clearances are important, the designer should oversize the structure to allow for deflection.

10.5.3. Strength Limit State

Buried structures and tunnel liners shall be investigated for construction loads and at Strength Load Combinations I and II, as specified in [Table 3.1](#), as follows:

For metal structures:

- wall area
- buckling
- seam failure
- flexibility limit for construction
- flexure of box structures only

For concrete structures:

- flexure
- shear
- thrust
- radial tension

For thermoplastic pipe:

- wall area
- buckling
- flexibility limit
- Creep

For tunnel liner plate:

- wall area
- buckling
- seam strength
- construction stiffness

- C Strength Load Combinations III and IV and the extreme event limit state do not control due to the relative magnitude of loads applicable to buried structures as indicated in Article [10.6.1](#). Buried structures have been shown not to be controlled by fatigue.
- C Thermoplastic pipe have many profile wall geometries and some of these are made up of thin sections that may be limited based on local buckling. The strength limit state for wall area includes evaluating the section capacity for local buckling.

10.5.4. Load Modifiers and Load Factors

Load modifiers shall be applied to buried structures and tunnel liners as specified in Article [1.3](#), except that the load modifiers for construction loads should be taken as 1.0.

For strength limit states, buried structures shall be considered non-redundant under earth fill and redundant under live load and dynamic load allowance loads.

Operational importance shall be determined on the basis of continued function and/or safety of the roadway.

10.5.5. Resistance Factors

- Resistance factors for buried structures shall be taken as specified in [Table 10.1](#).
 - Values of resistance factors for the geotechnical design of foundations for buried structures shall be taken as specified in [Section 8](#).
- C The standard installations for direct design of concrete pipe were developed based on extensive parameter studies using the soil structure interaction program, SPIDA. Although past research validates that SPIDA soil structure models correlate well with field measurements, variability in culvert installation methods and materials suggests that the design for Type I installations be modified. This revision reduces soil structure interaction for Type I installations by ten percent until additional performance documentation on installation in the field is obtained.

Table 10.1 Resistance Factors for Buried Structures.

Structure Type	Resistance Factor
Metal Pipe, Arch, and Pipe Arch Structures	
Helical pipe with lock seam or fully welded seam: Minimum wall area and buckling	1.00
Annular pipe with spot-welded, riveted, or bolted seam: - Minimum wall area and buckling - Minimum longitudinal seam strength - Bearing resistance to pipe arch foundations	1.00 0.67 Refer to Section 8
Structural plate pipe: - Minimum wall area and buckling - Minimum longitudinal seam strength - Bearing resistance to pipe arch foundations	1.00 0.67 Refer to Section 8
Long-Span Structural Plate and Tunnel Liner Plate Structures	
- Minimum wall area - Minimum seam strength - Bearing resistance of pipe arch foundations	0.67 0.67 Refer to Section 8
Structural Plate Box Structures	
- Plastic moment strength - Bearing resistance of pipe arch foundations	1.00 Refer to Section 8
Reinforced Concrete Pipe	
Direct design method:	
Type 1 installation:	
- Flexure - Shear - Radial tension	0.90 0.82 0.82
Other type installations:	
- Flexure - Shear - Radial tension	1.00 0.90 0.90
Reinforced Concrete Cast-in-Place Box Structures	
- Flexure - Shear	0.90 0.85
Reinforced Concrete Precast Box Structures	
- Flexure - Shear	1.00 0.90
Reinforced Concrete Precast Three-Sided Structures	
- Flexure - Shear	0.95 0.90
Thermoplastic Pipe	
PE and PVC pipe:	
- Minimum wall area and buckling - Flexure	1.00 1.00

10.5.6. Flexibility Limits and Construction Stiffness

10.5.6.1. Corrugated Metal Pipe and Structural Plate Structures

Flexibility factors for corrugated metal pipe and structural plate structures shall not exceed the values specified in [Table 10.2](#).

- C Limits on construction stiffness and plate flexibility are construction requirements that do not represent any limit state in service.

Table 10.2 Flexibility Factor Limit.

Type of Construction Material	Corrugation Size (mm)	Flexibility Factor (mm/N)
Steel Pipe	6.35	0.25
	12.7	0.25
	25.4	0.19
Aluminum Pipe	6.35 and 12.7	0.18
	1.52 Material Thk.	0.35
	1.90 Material Thk.	0.53
	All Others	0.34
Steel Plate	25.4	0.11
	150 × 50	0.17
	Pipe	0.17
	Pipe-Arch	0.17
Aluminum Plate	Arch	0.17
	230 × 64	0.14
	Pipe	0.21
	Pipe-Arch	0.21
	Arch	0.21

10.5.6.2. Spiral Rib Metal Pipe and Pipe Arches

Flexibility factors for spiral rib metal pipe and pipe arches shall not exceed the values, specified in [Table 10.3](#), for embankment installations conforming to the provisions of Articles [10.6.4.2](#) and [10.6.4.3](#) and for trench installations conforming to the provisions of Articles [10.6.4.1](#) and [10.6.4.3](#).

Table 10.3 Flexibility Factor Limits.

Material	Condition	Corrugation Size(mm)	Flexibility Factor (mm/N)
Steel	Embankment	19 × 19 × 190	$0.049 I^{1/3}$
		19 × 25 × 290	$0.031 I^{1/3}$
	Trench	19 × 19 × 190	$0.059 I^{1/3}$
		19 × 25 × 290	$0.037 I^{1/3}$
Aluminum	Embankment	19 × 19 × 190	$0.076 I^{1/3}$
		19 × 25 × 290	$0.039 I^{1/3}$
	Trench	19 × 19 × 190	$0.094 I^{1/3}$
		19 × 25 × 290	$0.048 I^{1/3}$

Values of inertia, I , for steel and aluminum pipes and pipe arches shall be taken as tabulated in [Table A10.2](#) and [Table A10.5](#).

10.5.6.3. Thermoplastic Pipe

Flexibility factor, FF , of thermoplastic pipe shall not exceed 0.54 mm/N.

- C PVC (Polyvinyl chloride) and PE (Polyethylene) are thermoplastic materials that exhibit higher flexibility factors at high temperatures and lower flexibility factors at low temperatures. The specified flexibility factor limits are defined in relation to pipe stiffness values in accordance with [ASTM D 2412](#) at 23°C.

10.5.6.4. Steel Tunnel Liner Plate

Construction stiffness, C_s , in N/mm, shall not be less than the following:

- Two-flange liner plate

$$C_s \geq 8.75 \text{ (N/mm)}$$

- Four-flange liner plate

$$C_s \geq 19.5 \text{ (N/mm)}$$

- C Assembled liner using two- and four-flange liner plates does not provide the same construction stiffness as a full steel ring with equal stiffness.

10.6. GENERAL DESIGN FEATURES

10.6.1. Loading

[Table 10.4](#) recapitulates the loads to be applied on buried structures.

Table 10.4: Application of Loads on Buried Structures

Load	Applicability	Domain of application
horizontal and vertical earth pressure, pavement load, live load, vehicular dynamic load allowance	Applicable	All buried structures
Earth surcharge, live load surcharge, downdrag loads, and external hydrostatic pressure	Applicable where construction or site conditions warrant	All buried structures
Water buoyancy	Applicable (refer to Article 3.7.2)	buried structures with inverts below the water table to control flotation
Earthquake loads	Applicable where buried structures cross active faults	All buried structures
Wind, temperature, vehicle braking, and centrifugal forces	Not Applicable	All buried structures
Structure dead load, pedestrian live load, and ice loads	Not Applicable	All buried structures
External hydrostatic pressure	Applicable	Buried pipes

Vehicular collision forces	Applicable	Appurtenances such as headwalls and railings
Water, other than buoyancy and vessel collision loads	Applicable in the non-critical longitudinal direction	Culverts

For vertical earth pressure, the maximum load factor from [Table 3.2](#) shall apply.

Wheel loads shall be distributed through earth fills according to the provisions of Article [3.6.1.2.6](#).

Due to the absence or low magnitude of some loads in [Table 10.4](#), Service Load Combination I, Strength Load Combinations I and II, or construction loads control the design.

- C The loading conditions that cause the maximum flexural moment and thrust are not necessarily the same, nor are they necessarily the conditions that will exist at the final configuration.

10.6.2. Service Limit State

10.6.2.1. Tolerable Movement

Tolerable movement criteria for buried structures shall be developed based on the function and type of structure, anticipated service life, and consequences of unacceptable movements.

10.6.2.2. Settlement

1. General

Settlement shall be determined as specified in Article [8.6.2](#). Consideration shall be given to potential movements resulting from:

- Longitudinal differential settlement along the length of the pipe,
- Differential settlement between the pipe and backfill, and
- Settlement of footings and unbalanced loading of skewed structures extending through embankment slopes.

2. Longitudinal Differential Settlement

The purpose of this provision is to minimize downdrag loads.

Differential settlement along the length of buried structures shall be determined in accordance with Article [10.6.2.2.4](#). Pipes and culverts subjected to longitudinal differential settlements shall be fitted with positive joints to resist disjoining forces meeting the requirements of Sections 25 and 26, MA-100-C-V1/1.

Camber may be specified for an installation to ensure hydraulic flow during the service life of the structure.

3. Differential Settlement between Structure and Backfill

- C The purpose of this provision is to minimize downdrag loads.

Where differential settlement of arch structures is expected between the structure and the side fill, the foundation should be designed to settle with respect to the backfill.

Pipes with inverts shall not be placed on foundations that will settle much less than the adjacent side fill, and a uniform bedding of loosely compacted granular material should be provided.

4. Footing Settlement

Footings shall be designed to provide uniform longitudinal and transverse settlement. The settlement of footings shall be large enough to provide protection against possible downdrag forces caused by settlement of adjacent fill. If poor foundation materials are encountered, consideration shall be given to excavation of all or some of the unacceptable material and its replacement with compacted acceptable material.

- C Metal pipe arch structures, long-span arch structures, and box culvert structures should not be supported on foundation materials that are relatively unyielding compared with the adjacent side-fill.
- C The use of massive footings or piles to prevent settlement of such structures is not recommended.
- C In general, provisions to accommodate uniform settlement between the footings are desirable, provided that the resulting total settlement is not detrimental to the function of the structure.

Footing design shall comply with the provisions of Article [8.6](#).

Footing reactions for metal box culvert structures shall be determined as specified in Article [10.10.4.5](#).

The effects of footing depth shall be considered in the design of arch footings. Footing reactions shall be taken as acting tangential to the arch at the point of connection to the footing and to be equal to the thrust in the arch at the footing.

5. Unbalanced Loading

Buried structures skewed to the roadway alignment and extending through an embankment fill shall be designed in consideration of the influence of unsymmetrical loading on the structure section.

- C Disregard of the effect of lateral unbalanced forces in the headwall, design can result in failure of the headwall and adjacent culvert sections.
- C Due to the complexity of determining the actual load distribution on a structure subjected to unbalanced loading, the problem can be modeled using numerical methods or the following approximate method.
- C The approximate method consists of analyzing 300-mm wide culvert strips for the unbalanced soil pressures wherein the strips are limited by planes perpendicular to the culvert centerline. Refer to [Figure 10.1](#) for this method of analysis for derivation of force F . For semi-complete culvert strips, the strips may be assumed to be supported as shown in the lower part of the plan.
- C The headwall shall be designed as a frame carrying the strip reactions, V_L and $H_L \cos \alpha$, in addition to the concentrated force, F , assumed to be acting on the crown. Force F is determined using the equations given herein.

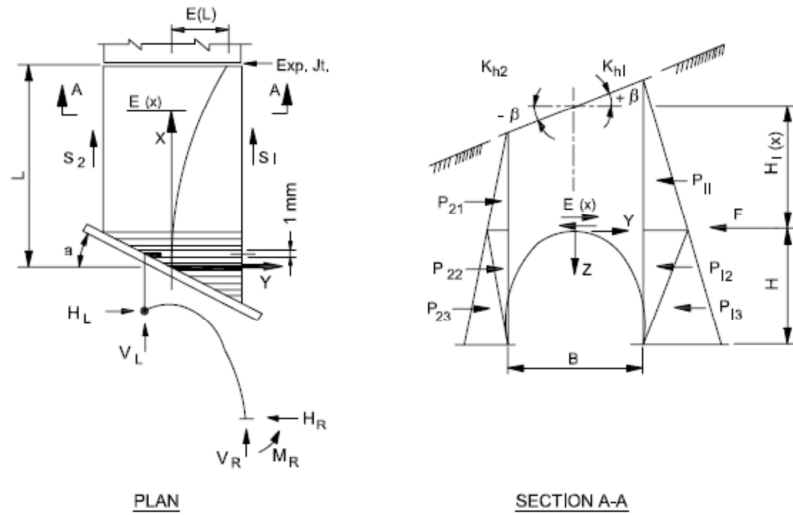


Figure 10.1: Forces on Culvert-Approximate Analysis.

C The unbalanced distributed load may be estimated by the following relationships:

$$E(x) = (P_{11} - P_{21}) + \frac{2}{3}(P_{12} - P_{22}) + \frac{1}{3}(P_{13} - P_{23}) \quad (10.2)$$

C in which:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{11} &= \frac{1}{2} K_{h1} \left(H_{l(x)} + \frac{B}{2} \tan \beta \right)^2 \\ P_{21} &= \frac{1}{2} K_{h2} \left(H_{l(x)} - \frac{B}{2} \tan \beta \right)^2 \\ P_{12} &= \frac{1}{2} K_{h1} H \left(H_{l(x)} + \frac{B}{2} \tan \beta \right) \\ P_{22} &= \frac{1}{2} K_{h2} H \left(H_{l(x)} - \frac{B}{2} \tan \beta \right) \\ P_{13} &= \frac{1}{2} K_{h1} H \left(H + H_{l(x)} + \frac{B}{2} \tan \beta \right) \\ P_{23} &= \frac{1}{2} K_{h2} H \left(H + H_{l(x)} - \frac{B}{2} \tan \beta \right) \end{aligned} \quad (10.3)$$

C When the pressures are substituted into Eq. (10.2), the following results:

$$E(x) = A_2 x^2 + A_1 x + A_0 \quad (10.4)$$

C in which:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_2 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{H_{1(L)}}{L} \right)^2 (K_{h1} - K_{h2}) \\
 A_1 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{H_{1(L)}}{L} \right) \left[B (K_{h1} + K_{h2}) \tan \beta + H (K_{h1} - K_{h2}) \right] \\
 A_o &= \frac{1}{24} \left[(3B^2 \tan^2 \beta + 4H^2) (K_{h1} - K_{h2}) + 6HB (K_{h1} + K_{h2}) \tan \beta \right]
 \end{aligned} \tag{10.5}$$

C The support forces for the unbalanced distribution load, $E(x)$, are:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F &= \frac{1}{6} L \sec \alpha (2A_2 L^2 + 3A_1 L + 6A_o) \\
 S_1 &= -\frac{1}{12} \frac{L}{B} \left[A_2 L^2 (3L - 2B \tan \alpha) + A_1 L (4L - 3B \tan \alpha) + 6A_o (L - B \tan \alpha) \right] \\
 S_2 &= \frac{1}{12} \frac{L}{B} \left[A_2 L^2 (3L + 2B \tan \alpha) + A_1 L (4L + 3B \tan \alpha) + 6A_o (L + B \tan \alpha) \right]
 \end{aligned} \tag{10.6}$$

C For values of K_h , see [Figure 10.2](#).

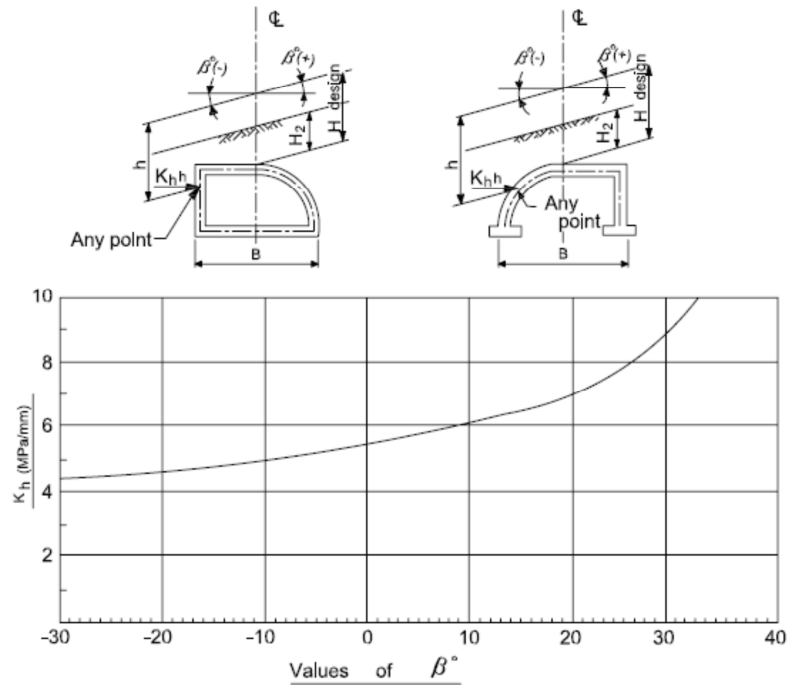


Figure 10.2: Lateral Earth Pressure as a Function of Ground Slope.

10.6.2.3. Uplift

Uplift shall be considered where structures are installed below the highest anticipated groundwater level.

C To satisfy this provision, the dead load on the crown of the structure should exceed the buoyancy of the culvert, using load factors as appropriate.

10.6.3. Safety against Soil Failure

10.6.3.1. Bearing Resistance and Stability

Pipe structures and footings for buried structures shall be investigated for bearing capacity failure and erosion of soil backfill by hydraulic gradients.

10.6.3.2. Corner Backfill for Metal Pipe Arches

The corner backfill for metal pipe arches shall be designed to account for corner pressure taken as the arch thrust divided by the radius of the pipe-arch corner. The soil envelope around the corners of pipe arches shall resist this pressure. Placement of select structural backfill compacted to densities higher than normal may be specified.

10.6.4. Soil Envelope

10.6.4.1. Trench Installations

The minimum trench width shall provide sufficient space between the pipe and the trench wall to ensure sufficient working room to properly and safely place and compact backfill material.

The contract documents shall require that stability of the trench be ensured by either sloping the trench walls or providing support of steeper trench walls in conformance with OSHA ((Occupational Safety and Health Administration) or other regulatory requirements.

- C As a guide, the minimum trench width should not be less than the greater of the pipe diameter plus 400 mm or the pipe diameter times 1.5 plus 300 mm.
- C The use of specially designed equipment may enable satisfactory installation and embedment even in narrower trenches. If the use of such equipment provides an installation meeting the requirements of this Article, narrower trench widths may be used as approved by the Engineer.
- C For trenches excavated in rock or high-bearing soils, decreased trench widths may be used up to the limits required for compaction. For these conditions, the use of a flowable backfill material, as specified in Article [10.4.1.3](#), allows the envelope to be decreased to within 150 mm along each side of the pipe.

10.6.4.2. Embankment Installations

The minimum width of the soil envelope shall be sufficient to ensure lateral restraint for the buried structure. The combined width of the soil envelope and embankment beyond shall be adequate to support all the loads on the culvert and to comply with the movement requirements specified in Article [10.6.2](#).

- C As a guide, the minimum width of the soil envelope on each side of the buried structure should not be less than the widths specified in [Table 10.5](#).

Table 10.5: Minimum Width of Soil Envelope.

Diameter S (mm)	Minimum Envelope Width (mm)
<600	S
600-3600	600
>3600	1500

10.6.4.3. Minimum Soil Cover

The cover of a well-compacted granular subbase, taken from the top of rigid pavement or the bottom of flexible pavement, shall not be less than that specified in [Table 10.6](#), where:

- S = diameter of pipe (mm)
 B_c = outside diameter or width of the structure (mm)
 B'_c = out-to-out vertical rise of pipe (mm)
 ID = inside diameter (mm)

Table 10.6 Minimum Soil Cover.

Type	Condition	Minimum Cover
Corrugated Metal Pipe	—	$S/8 \geq 300$ mm
Spiral Rib Metal Pipe	Steel Conduit	$S/4 \geq 300$ mm
	Aluminum Conduit where $S \leq 1200$ mm	$S/2 \geq 300$ mm
	Aluminum Conduit where $S > 1200$ mm	$S/2.75 \geq 600$ mm
Structural Plate Pipe Structures	—	$S/8 \geq 300$ mm
Long-Span Structural Plate Pipe Structures	—	Refer to Table 10.8
Structural Plate Box Structures	—	430 mm as specified in Article 10.10.1
Reinforced Concrete Pipe	Unpaved areas and under flexible pavement	$B_c/8$ or $B'_c/8$, whichever is greater, ≥ 300 mm
	Compacted granular fill under rigid pavement	230 mm
Thermoplastic Pipe	—	$ID/8 \geq 300$ mm

If soil cover is not provided, the top of precast or cast-in-place reinforced concrete box structures shall be designed for direct application of vehicular loads.

10.6.5. Minimum Spacing between Multiple Lines of Pipe

The spacing between multiple lines of pipe shall be sufficient to permit the proper placement and compaction of backfill below the haunch and between the structures.

Contract documents should require that backfilling be coordinated to minimize unbalanced loading between multiple, closely spaced structures. Backfill should be kept level over the series of structures when possible. The effects of significant

roadway grades across a series of structures shall be investigated for the stability of flexible structures subjected to unbalanced loading.

- C As a guide, the minimum spacing between pipes should not be less than that shown in [Table 10.10](#).

Table 10.7: Minimum Pipe Spacing.

Type of Structure	Minimum Distance Between Pipes (mm)
Round Pipes Diameter, D (mm)	
<600	300
600-1800	$D/2$
>1800	900
Pipe Arches Span, S (mm)	
<900	300
900-2700	$S/3$
2700-4800	900
Arches Span, S (mm)	
All Spans	600

- C The minimum spacing can be reduced if a flowable backfill material, as specified in Article [10.4.1.3](#), is placed between the structures.

10.6.6. End Treatment

10.6.6.1. General

Protection of end slopes shall be given special consideration where backwater conditions occur or where erosion or uplift could be expected.

- C Culvert ends may represent a major traffic hazard.
- C When backwater conditions occur, pressure flow at the outlet end of culverts can result in uplift of pipe sections having inadequate cover and scour of erosive soils due to high water flow velocities.
- C Measures to control these problems include anchoring the pipe end in a concrete headwall or burying it in riprap having sufficient mass to resist uplift forces as well as lining outlet areas with riprap or concrete to prevent scour.

Traffic safety treatments, such as a structurally adequate grating that conforms to the embankment slope, extension of the culvert length beyond the point of hazard, or provision of guide rail, should be considered.

10.6.6.2. Flexible Culverts Constructed on Skew

The end treatment of flexible culverts skewed to the roadway alignment and extending through embankment fill shall be warped to ensure symmetrical loading along either side of the pipe or the headwall shall be designed to support the full thrust force of the cut end.

- C For flexible structures, additional reinforcement of the end is recommended to secure the metal edges at inlet and outlet against hydraulic forces. Reinforcement methods include reinforced concrete

or structural steel collars, tension tiebacks or anchors in soil, partial headwalls, and cut-off walls below invert elevation.

- C As a guide in [Figure 10.3](#), limits are suggested for skews to embankments unless the embankment is warped. It also shows examples of warping an embankment cross-section to achieve a square-ended pipe for single and multiple flexible pipe installations where the minimum width of the warped embankment, d' , is taken as 1.50 times the sum of the rise of the culvert and the cover or three times the span of the culvert, whichever is less.

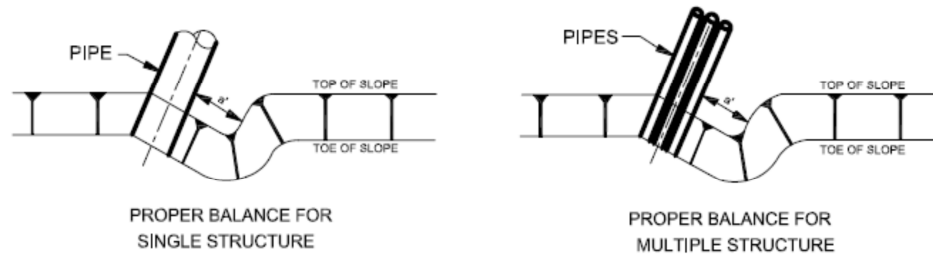


Figure 10.3: End Treatment of Skewed Flexible Culvert

10.6.7. Corrosive and Abrasive Conditions

The degradation of structural resistance due to corrosion and abrasion shall be considered.

- C Several long-term tests of the field performance of buried structures have resulted in development of empirical guidelines for estimating the effects of corrosion and abrasion. A representative listing includes [Bellair and Ewing \(1984\)](#), [Koepl and Ryan \(1986\)](#), [Hurd \(1984\)](#), [Meacham et al. \(1982\)](#), [Potter \(1988\)](#), [NCHRP Synthesis No. 50 \(1978\)](#), and [Funabashi and Bushman \(1991\)](#).

If the design of a metal or thermoplastic culvert is controlled by flexibility factors during installation, the requirements for corrosion and/or abrasion protection may be reduced or eliminated, provided that it is demonstrated that the degraded culvert will provide adequate resistance to loads throughout the service life of the structure.

- C For highly abrasive conditions, a special design may be required. Protective coatings may be shop- or field-applied in accordance with [AASHTO M 190, M 224, M 243, and M 245 \(ASTM A 762M\)](#).

10.7. HYDRAULIC DESIGN

10.7.1. General

Design criteria, as specified in Article [2.7](#), herein and in “[Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts](#),” [FHWA \(2005\)](#), for hydraulic design considerations shall apply.

10.7.2. Design Criteria

10.7.2.1. General

The hydraulic design of bridges, culverts, and associated works shall comply with MOMRA requirements.

Acceptability criteria for the performance of structures in withstanding a design flood shall be in accordance with the intended level of service and normal economic constraints.

Risks that are to be accepted shall be recorded as part of the design criteria.

10.7.2.2. Normal Design Flood

The normal design flood shall have a return period of 50 years unless otherwise specified by MOMRA.

Bridges and culverts shall be designed to accommodate the normal design flood without damage to the structure or the approaches. Relief flow over the roadway shall be allowed only with site-specific Approval and where geometric and level-of-service criteria permit. The site of the assumed relief flow shall be investigated to ensure that no significant damage or concealed hazards can arise.

10.7.2.3. Check Flood

The check flood shall have a return period of at least twice the normal design flood unless otherwise specified by MOMRA.

Bridges and culverts shall be designed to withstand a check flood without endangering the integrity of the structure and without approach embankment failure.

10.7.2.4. Regulatory Floods and Relief Flow

When it is required that a structure be designed for the regulatory flood, relief flow shall be considered to the extent permitted by geometric, level-of-service, and other site criteria.

The structure shall be designed for that part of the regulatory flood not accommodated by relief flow, without causing flooding of upstream property outside the established flood plain.

10.7.2.5. Design Flood Discharge

The design flood discharge shall be estimated by Approved methods.

10.7.2.6. High-Water Levels

Unless otherwise specified, the high-water levels used for design purposes shall be the water levels corresponding to the design flood discharge without ice jams. If the crossing is subject to abnormal flood conditions, the worst conditions for the particular design purpose likely to occur together with the design flood shall be assumed.

10.7.3. Investigations

For all water crossings, office studies and field surveys shall be carried out as part of the investigation of the proposed crossing site to determine

- hydraulic characteristics;
- geotechnical characteristics;
- the location of all utilities in the area;
- ownership of property that might be affected;
- past and potential problems in the vicinity;
- the hydraulic performance of existing structures near the site;
- the flood history of the site;
- the ice and debris history of the site;
- other features pertinent to the hydraulic design; and
- established and possible future land use trends and their effect on the waterway, flood plain, and watershed areas.

When appropriate, other investigations, e.g., archaeological surveys or environmental studies, shall be conducted.

10.7.4. Location and Alignment

The selection of the location and alignment of a water crossing shall take into account the following factors:

- the stability of the channel;
- road geometrics and road user safety;
- geotechnical conditions;
- the effect of the crossing on adjacent structures and property;
- the effects of adjacent dams, bridges, and other structures;
- the interests of waterway users; and
- any known future developments.

10.7.5. Estimation of Scour

10.7.5.1. General

Buried structures shall be designed so that no movement of any part of the structure will occur as a result of scour.

10.7.5.2. Scour Calculations

Depths of general scour, local scour, degradation, and artificial deepening of the channel shall be estimated at all structure sites.

Scour calculations shall be prepared for all potentially critical conditions, including maximum depth of flow, maximum velocity, and extreme ice conditions.

If abnormal flood conditions can occur at the site, a design flood discharge based on the lowest downstream water level likely to coincide with the design flood shall be considered.

10.7.5.3. Soils Data

The properties of the material below the estimated depth of maximum scour shall be examined to reduce the possibility of large errors in scour predictions.

10.7.5.4. General Scour

1. Average Depth

The average depth of general scour shall be calculated using the competent velocity method or another approved method and shall be referenced to the original stream bed.

2. Maximum Depth

The maximum depth of general scour at any point in a structure opening shall be determined by redistributing the average depth of general scour as described in the [Transportation Association of Canada's Guide to Bridge Hydraulics](#) or using other approved methods.

The maximum depth of general scour shall be assumed to occur at any point across the structure opening except where protective features would prevent it.

10.7.5.5. Local Scour

The depth of local scour at a pier, abutment, or other obstruction shall be measured below the anticipated depth of general scour and shall be calculated using Approved methods. The possibility of local scour being caused or aggravated by ice jams or trapped debris shall be considered.

10.7.5.6. Total Scour

The total depth of scour at a point across a structure opening shall be taken as the sum of the maximum depth of general scour and the depth of local scour.

10.7.5.7. Degradation

The probable depth of stream bed degradation during the design life of a structure shall be estimated by investigating the site and the characteristics and history of the channel.

10.7.5.8. Artificial Deepening

The amount of artificial deepening of a channel anticipated during the design life of a structure shall be obtained from drainage plans, if available. Otherwise, it shall be estimated from an investigation of existing structures on the same channel.

10.7.5.9. Allowance for Degradation or Artificial Deepening

The ultimate bed elevation at structures on channels subject to degradation or artificial deepening shall be taken as follows:

- for degrading channels not having a concrete or steel invert that complies with Article 10.7.6.7, the expected amount of degradation plus one-half the total scour; and
- for channels likely to be artificially deepened, the expected amount of deepening plus the total scour.

10.7.6. Protection against Scour**10.7.6.1. General**

Scour protection requirements for structure foundations shall be determined on the basis of the normal design flood and shall be modified if necessary to ensure that structural failure will not occur as a result of the check flood.

In areas where scour is a concern, the wingwalls shall be extended far enough from the structure to protect the structural portion of the soil envelope surrounding the structure.

For structures placed over erodible deposits, a cut-off wall or scour curtain, extending below the maximum anticipated depth of scour or a paved invert, shall be used.

The footings of structures shall be placed not less than 600 mm below the maximum anticipated depth of scour.

10.7.6.2. Spread Footings**1. Depth of Footings**

The following shall apply to depth of footings:

- a) Minimum depth: except as specified in Items (b) to (e), the bottom surfaces of spread footings that could be exposed to stream flow shall be placed at the lowest of the following elevations:
- i- depth below the original bed not less than the following:
 - 1- abutments other than arches: 1.50 m; and
 - 2- piers and arch abutments: 2.00 m;
 - ii- depth below the original bed not less than 1.7 times the estimated total depth of scour; and
 - iii- depth not less than 0.60 m below the lowest level of existing or past scour.
- b) Bedrock: spread footings may be founded on scour-resistant durable bedrock at a higher elevation than that specified by Item (a) if the depth is sufficient to ensure that they remain unaffected by scour, freezing, weathering, degradation, or artificial deepening during the design life of the structure.
- c) Temporary structures: for temporary piers and abutments constructed of gabions or timber cribs, the depths specified in Items (a-i) and (a-iii) shall be reduced by half, and the factor specified in Item (a-ii) shall be reduced from 1.7 to 1.3.
- d) Degrading channels: on degrading channels that are not stabilized with a paved invert or revetment complying with Article 10.7.6.7, the footing depth specified in Item (a-ii) shall not be taken as less than the expected amount of degradation plus the estimated total depth of scour.
- e) Artificial deepening: on channels likely to be artificially deepened, the footing depths specified in Items (a-i) and (a-ii) shall be measured below the expected stream bed elevation after deepening.

2. Protection of Spread Footings

Spread footings shall not be founded at a depth less than that specified in Article 10.7.6.2.1 unless:

- the structure opening has a concrete or steel invert complying with Article 10.7.6.7; or
- the footings are protected against undermining by sheet piling along the inside face and ends of the footings or by other Approved means.

Spread footings adjacent to the stream channel shall not be founded at an elevation higher than the stream bed on material other than bedrock or rock fill unless protected by a concrete revetment complying with Articles 10.7.6.7 and 10.7.10.3.

10.7.6.3. Piles

1. General

In sands and other highly erodible soils, piles shall be used in preference to spread footings to provide better protection against the effects of scour.

2. Penetration and Strength

The penetration and structural strength of piles shall be sufficient to ensure their stability with the stream bed at its ultimate bed elevation.

3. Abutments Supported on Piles

The bottom of footing elevation of abutments exposed to flowing water shall be set at least 1.0 m below the ultimate stream bed elevation. This requirement may be waived if footing protection meeting the requirements of Article [10.7.6.2.2](#) is provided.

10.7.6.4. Sheet Piling

When required for scour protection, sheet piling shall comply with the following requirements:

- the piling shall be securely attached to the footing or otherwise anchored to prevent movement; and
- the penetration and structural strength of the piling shall be sufficient to ensure stability of the structure and piling with the stream bed at its ultimate bed elevation.

10.7.6.5. Protective Aprons

Flexible aprons used for protecting piers and abutments against local scour shall comply with the recommendations of the [Transportation Association of Canada's Guide to Bridge Hydraulics](#) or those of the Regulatory Authority.

Rip-rap stone sizes for aprons shall be determined by designing for a velocity 1.5 times the average velocity of the normal design flood discharge through the structure opening. The thickness of rip-rap aprons shall be not less than 1.5 times the median size of the stone.

10.7.6.6. Paved Inverts and Revetments

Concrete and steel inverts and revetments that are needed to stabilize a channel at a structure shall have cut-off walls of sufficient depth and strength to prevent undermining. The cut-off walls shall be integral with or securely attached to the invert or revetment.

10.7.6.7. Special Protection against Degradation

Where a paved invert or revetment is required to stabilize a degrading stream bed, the following shall be provided:

- Cut-off walls as specified in Article [10.7.6.6](#). The downstream cut-off wall shall be designed to resist the maximum depth of degradation likely to occur during the design life of the structure or up to the time of scheduled stream bed maintenance.
- An apron, energy dissipator, or other device to control erosion caused by the discharge from the structure.
- If the invert is lower than the adjacent upstream bed, a sill, weir, or other effective control at the inlet.

10.7.7. Backwater

10.7.7.1. General

Backwater shall be calculated using Approved methods. Backwater shall be limited so as to preclude damage to upstream property and buildings during the design flood. Unless otherwise approved, the design flood shall be the normal design flood.

10.7.7.2. High-Water Level

The high-water level used in the backwater calculations shall be as specified in Article [10.7.2.6](#). If the crossing is subject to abnormal flood conditions, the highest downstream water level likely to occur together with the design flood shall be assumed.

10.7.7.3. Assumed Depth of Scour

Unless otherwise approved, the depth of scour assumed to have occurred in backwater calculations shall not be more than one-half the average depth of general scour calculated in accordance with Article [10.7.5.4](#).

10.7.7.4. Waterway Modification

The enlargement of the natural channel cross-section at a bridge to reduce backwater shall be of such a nature as to provide a stable channel and preclude progressive sedimentation and growth of undesirable vegetation.

10.7.7.5. Reduction of Backwater by Relief Flow

Backwater calculations shall include relief flow over the roadway where allowed by Article [10.7.2.2](#).

10.7.8. Soffit Elevation

10.7.8.1. Clearance

The clearance between the soffit of the structure and the high water level determined in accordance with Article [10.7.8.2.2](#) shall be sufficient to prevent damage to the structure by the action of flowing water, ice floes, or debris, and unless otherwise Approved shall not be less than 1.0 m for freeways, arterial roads, and collector roads and not less than 300 mm for other roads. The clearance for a structure with an arched soffit shall be based on site-specific considerations.

Vertical clearance for a structure on a navigable waterway shall be measured from the highest water level at which usual navigation is likely to occur. This level, together with the vertical and horizontal clearances, shall be determined in accordance with the [Government of Canada's Navigable Waters Protection Act](#).

Unless otherwise approved, the clearance between the lowest point of the soffit and normal water level shall be at least 1.0 m.

10.7.8.2. High-Water Level for Establishing Soffit Elevation

1. General

Subject to Article [10.7.8.2.2](#), and unless otherwise approved for the site, the high-water level for establishing the minimum soffit elevation shall be the higher of:

- the high-water level determined in accordance with Article [10.7.7.2](#); and

- the high-water level caused by ice jams and having a return period comparable to that of the design flood.

2. Flooding and Relief Flow

Use of the regulatory flood as the design flood to ensure that flooding of upstream property will not occur shall not require the soffit elevation to be higher than that required for the normal design flood, provided that adequate relief flow, as permitted by Article 10.7.2.2, can occur.

10.7.9. Approach Grade Elevation

10.7.9.1. General

Where geometric and other considerations permit, the approach grade shall be set so that the requirements of Article 10.7.9.2 are met. If consideration of a regulatory flood is required and relief flow is permitted, the grade shall be set to optimize relief flow.

10.7.9.2. Freeboard

Except when otherwise approved, freeboard from the edge of through-traffic lanes to the high-water level determined in accordance with Article 10.7.9.3 shall be 1.0 m for freeways, arterial roads, and collector roads and 300 mm for other roads.

10.7.9.3. High-Water Level for Establishing Approach Grade

The high-water level for establishing the approach grade elevation shall be as specified for establishing the minimum soffit elevation in Article 10.7.8.2. Unless otherwise approved, the high-water level upstream of the opening shall be increased by the estimated backwater.

10.7.9.4. Freeboard for Routes under Structures Crossing Water

Freeboard for highways under bridges that cross water shall be in accordance with Article 10.7.9.2.

Freeboard for walkways, bicycle paths, and maintenance access roads under structures crossing water shall be at least 1.0 m above normal water level. This minimum value shall be increased when high maintenance costs are likely to result from its use.

10.7.10. Channel Erosion Control

10.7.10.1. Slope Protection

Where necessary, embankments shall be protected against erosion to prevent damage to the structure, roadway, or property affected by the crossing. The design of protection works shall be in accordance with the *Transportation Association of Canada's Guide to Bridge Hydraulics* or as otherwise Approved.

10.7.10.2. Stream Banks

Stream banks shall be protected against erosion to the extent necessary to prevent damage to the highway or property affected by the crossing.

10.7.10.3. Slope Revetments

Toe protection shall be provided to prevent undermining of slope revetments. Geotextile fabric, a graded granular filter blanket, or other Approved material shall be provided where necessary to prevent loss of underlying material.

Unless otherwise approved, a concrete revetment for protecting structure footings shall comprise concrete paving reinforced, tied, or interconnected in a way that ensures that the underlying material remains protected for the design life of the structure.

10.7.10.4. Storm Sewer and Channel Outlets

Outlets of storm sewers and channels discharging into or adjacent to a bridge or culvert opening shall have aprons, energy dissipators, drop structures, or other devices to prevent erosion that might endanger the bridge or culvert.

10.7.11. Stream Stabilization Works and Realignment

10.7.11.1. Stream Stabilization Works

Stabilization works shall be considered if one or more of the following is necessary:

- stabilizing the channel location in the vicinity of the crossing;
- reducing the cost of the crossing;
- directing flow parallel to the piers and minimizing local scour;
- improving the hydraulics of the waterway or reducing erosion;
- protecting the roadway approaches from stream attack;
- permitting the construction of a square crossing by diverting the channel from a skewed alignment; or
- improving the location and geometry of the crossing.

Stabilization works shall be designed to suit the requirements of the site and comply with the [Transportation Association of Canada's Guide to Bridge Hydraulics](#).

10.7.12. Stream Realignment

Stream realignment shall be considered only when no cost-effective alternative is possible. The design of stream realignments shall include an evaluation of environmental and hydraulic regime effects.

10.7.13. Culverts

10.7.13.1. General

Closed-invert culverts shall be used in preference to open-footing culverts except where site conditions dictate the use of open-footing culverts.

10.7.13.2. Culvert End Treatment

End treatment shall be provided where there would otherwise be a possibility of uplift, piping, undermining, or damage due to ice or debris. End treatment in the form of an improved inlet shall be provided where there is a net benefit due to improved hydraulic efficiency. End treatments shall be of tested or established types.

10.7.13.3. Culvert Extensions

Extensions to existing culverts shall be designed to prevent internal blockages caused by changes of direction, changes in the shape of the cross-section, or changes in the number of openings or cells.

10.7.13.4. Alignment of Non-Linear Culverts

Unless otherwise approved, changes of horizontal alignment shall be accomplished by gradual curves or by angular changes of direction not exceeding 15° at intervals of not less than 15 m.

10.7.13.5. Open-Footing Culverts

1. Inerodible Inverts

An open-footing culvert with an inerodible invert shall be considered a closed-invert culvert.

2. Vertical Clearance

Soffit elevations for open-footing culverts shall comply with Article [10.7.8](#), except that the minimum clearance shall be 300 mm.

10.7.13.6. Closed-Invert Culverts

1. Invert elevation

The inverts of closed-invert culverts shall be located below the adjacent channel bed at an appropriate depth in order to

- reduce the likelihood of hanging outlets and the undermining of culvert ends;
- improve hydraulic efficiency;
- enhance fish passage;
- reduce the water velocity at the outlet; and
- encourage natural sedimentation of the culvert floor and replication of natural habitat.

2. Artificial Deepening

If the channel is likely to be artificially deepened, the culvert invert elevation shall be based on the future channel elevation estimated in accordance with Article [10.7.5.8](#).

3. Degrading Channel

In a degrading channel, a sill or weir shall be provided to maintain any difference in elevation between the culvert invert and the upstream bed.

4. Piping

When soil properties and hydraulic conditions indicate that piping can occur along the barrel of a culvert, appropriate preventive measures, e.g., the use of clay seals, cut-off walls, or impermeable barriers, shall be taken.

5. Concrete Box Structures

A cut-off wall shall be provided at each end of a concrete box culvert in accordance with Article [10.7.6.6](#).

6. Soil-Steel Structures

The following requirements shall apply to soil-steel structures:

- *End treatment*: a cut-off wall, headwall, collar, or other Approved device shall be provided at the ends of soil-steel structures where it is necessary to protect the culvert against uplift, piping, or undermining. Connections to the culvert shall be designed to resist all possible uplift and earth pressure forces. Embankment slopes shall be modified where necessary to provide sufficient weight of fill to prevent hydraulic uplift of the inlet end. If a weir is provided at the inlet end, piping shall be prevented as required by Article 10.7.13.6.4 and the possibility of uplift due to buoyancy shall be considered.
- *Camber*: the camber requirements for all metal pipe culverts shall be calculated to accommodate longitudinal settlement and to prevent ponding within the culvert.

10.8. METAL PIPE, PIPE ARCH, AND ARCH STRUCTURES

10.8.1. General

The provisions herein shall apply to the design of buried corrugated and spiral rib metal pipe and structural plate pipe structures.

Corrugated metal pipe and pipe-arches may be of riveted, welded, or lockseam fabrication with annular or helical corrugations. Structural plate pipe, pipe-arches, and arches shall be bolted with annular corrugations only.

The rise-to-span ratio of structural plate arches shall not be less than 0.3.

The provisions of Article 10.9 shall apply to structures with a radius exceeding 4000 mm.

- C These structures become part of a composite system comprised of the metal pipe section and the soil envelope, both of which contribute to the structural behavior of the system.
- C For information regarding the manufacture of structures and structural components referred to herein, AASHTO M 196 (ASTM B 745M) for aluminum, M 36 (ASTM A 760M) for steel corrugated metal pipe and pipe-arches, and M 167M/M 167 (ASTM A 761/A 761M) for steel and M 219 (ASTM B 746) for aluminum structural plate pipe may be consulted.

Steel or aluminum structures of circular, elliptic, pipe-arch, or pear-shaped pipes with a closed or arch configuration are shown in Figure 10.4.

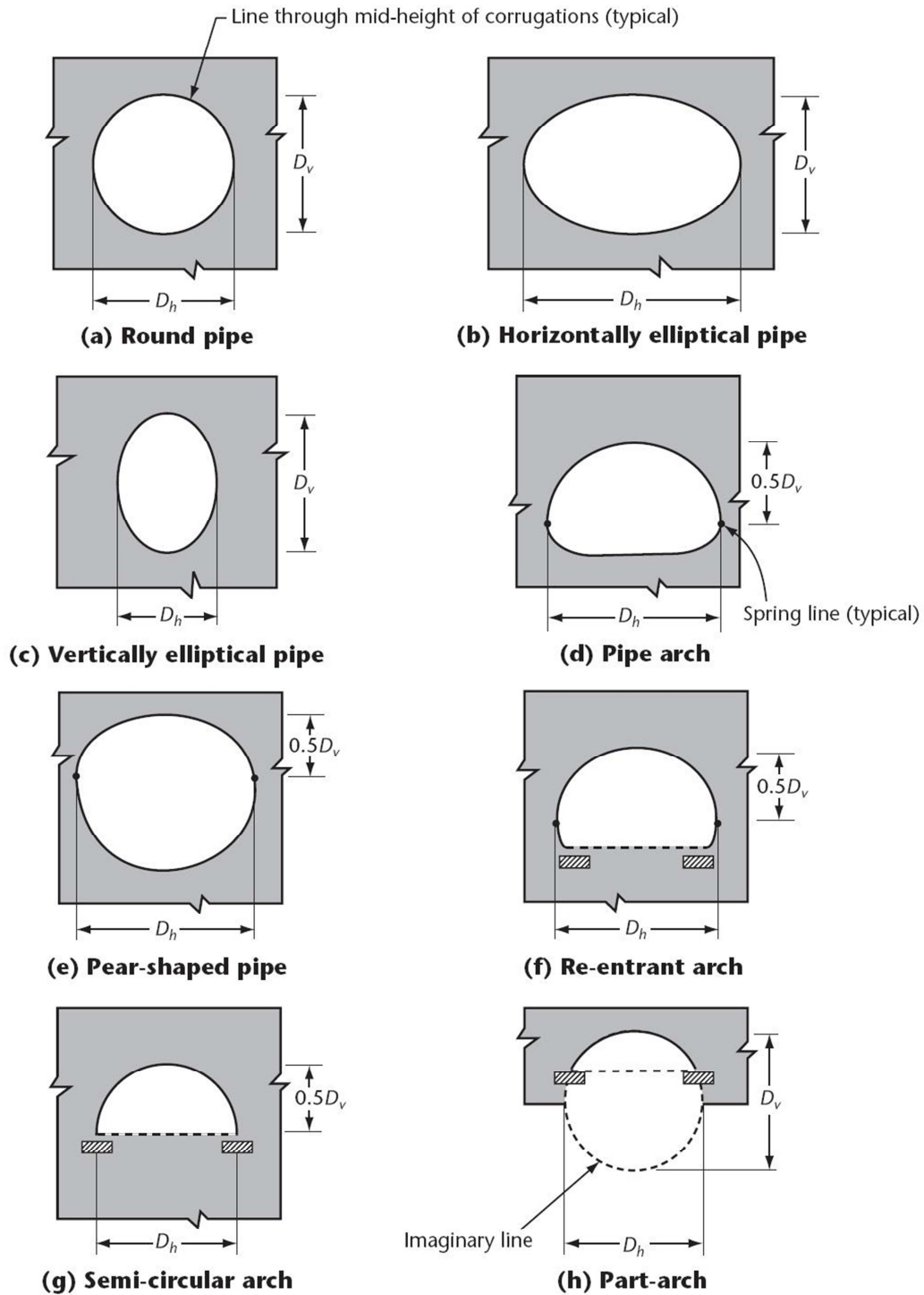


Figure 10.4: Various shapes of pipe

10.8.2. Safety against Structural Failure

Corrugated and spiral rib metal pipe and pipe arches and structural plate pipe shall be investigated at the strength limit state for:

- Wall area of pipe,
- Buckling strength, and
- Seam resistance for structures with longitudinal seams.

10.8.2.1. Section Properties

Dimensions and properties of pipe cross-sections; minimum seam strength; mechanical and chemical requirements for aluminum corrugated and steel corrugated pipe and pipe-arch sections; and aluminum and steel corrugated structural plate pipe, pipe-arch, and arch sections, may be taken as given in [Appendix A](#).

10.8.2.2. Thrust

The factored thrust, T_L , per unit length of wall shall be taken as:

$$T_L = P_L \left(\frac{S}{2} \right) \quad (10.7)$$

where:

- T_L = factored thrust per unit length (N/mm)
 S = pipe span (mm)
 P_L = factored crown pressure (MPa)

10.8.2.3. Wall Resistance

The factored axial resistance, R_n , per unit length of wall, without consideration of buckling, shall be taken as:

$$R_n = \phi F_y A \quad (10.8)$$

where:

- A = wall area (mm²/mm)
 F_y = yield strength of metal (MPa)
 ϕ = resistance factor as specified in Article [10.5.5](#)

10.8.2.4. Resistance to Buckling

The wall area, calculated using Eq. [\(10.8\)](#), shall be investigated for buckling. If $f_{cr} < F_y$, A shall be recalculated using f_{cr} in lieu of F_y .

$$\text{If } S < \left(\frac{r}{k} \right) \sqrt{\frac{24E_m}{F_u}}, \text{ then; } f_{cr} = F_u - \frac{\left(\frac{F_u k S}{r} \right)^2}{48E_m} \quad (10.9)$$

$$\text{If } S > \left(\frac{r}{k} \right) \sqrt{\frac{24E_m}{F_u}}, \text{ then; } f_{cr} = \frac{12E_m}{\left(\frac{kS}{r} \right)^2} \quad (10.10)$$

where:

- S = diameter of pipe or span of plate structure (mm)
 E_m = modulus of elasticity of metal (MPa)
 F_u = tensile strength of metal (MPa)
 f_{cr} = critical buckling stress (MPa)
 r = radius of gyration of corrugation (mm)
 k = soil stiffness factor taken as 0.22

- C The use of 0.22 for the soil stiffness is thought to be conservative for the types of backfill material allowed for pipe and arch structures. This lower bound on soil stiffness has a long history of use in previous editions of the Standard Specifications.

10.8.2.5. Seam Resistance

For pipe fabricated with longitudinal seams, the nominal resistance of the seam shall be sufficient to develop the factored thrust in the pipe wall, TL .

10.8.2.6. Handling and Installation Requirements

Handling flexibility shall be indicated by a flexibility factor determined as:

$$FF = \frac{S^2}{E_m I} \quad (10.11)$$

Values of the flexibility factors for handling and installation shall not exceed the values for steel and aluminum pipe and plate pipe structures as specified in Article [10.5.6](#).

- C Transverse stiffeners may be used to assist corrugated structural plate structures to meet flexibility factor requirements.

10.8.3. Smooth Lined Pipe

Corrugated metal pipe composed of a smooth liner and corrugated shell attached integrally at helical seams, spaced not more than 760 mm apart, may be designed on the same basis as a standard corrugated metal pipe having the same corrugations as the shell and a weight per mm not less than the sum of the weights per mm of liner and helically corrugated shell.

The pitch of corrugations shall not exceed 75 mm, and the thickness of the shell shall not be less than 60 percent of the total thickness of the equivalent standard pipe.

10.8.4. Stiffening Elements for Structural Plate Structures

The stiffness and flexural resistance of structural plate structures may be increased by adding circumferential stiffening elements to the crown. Stiffening elements shall be symmetrical and shall span from a point below the quarter-point on one side of the structure, across the crown, and to the corresponding point on the opposite side of the structure.

- C Acceptable stiffening elements are:

- Continuous longitudinal structural stiffeners connected to the corrugated plates at each side of the top arc: metal or reinforced concrete, either singly or in combination;

- Reinforcing ribs formed from structural shapes, curved to conform to the curvature of the plates, fastened to the structure to ensure integral action with the corrugated plates, and spaced at such intervals as necessary.

10.8.5. Construction and Installation

The contract documents shall require that construction and installation conform to Section 25, MA-100-C-V1/1.

10.9. LONG-SPAN STRUCTURAL PLATE STRUCTURES

10.9.1. General

The provisions herein and in Article 10.7 shall apply to the structural design of buried long-span structural plate corrugated metal structures.

The following shapes, illustrated in Figure 10.5, shall be considered long-span structural plate structures:

- Structural plate pipe and arch shape structures that require the use of special features specified in Article 10.9.3.5, and
- Special shapes of any size having a radius of curvature greater than 4000 mm in the crown or side plates. Metal box culverts are not considered long-span structures and are covered in Article 10.10.

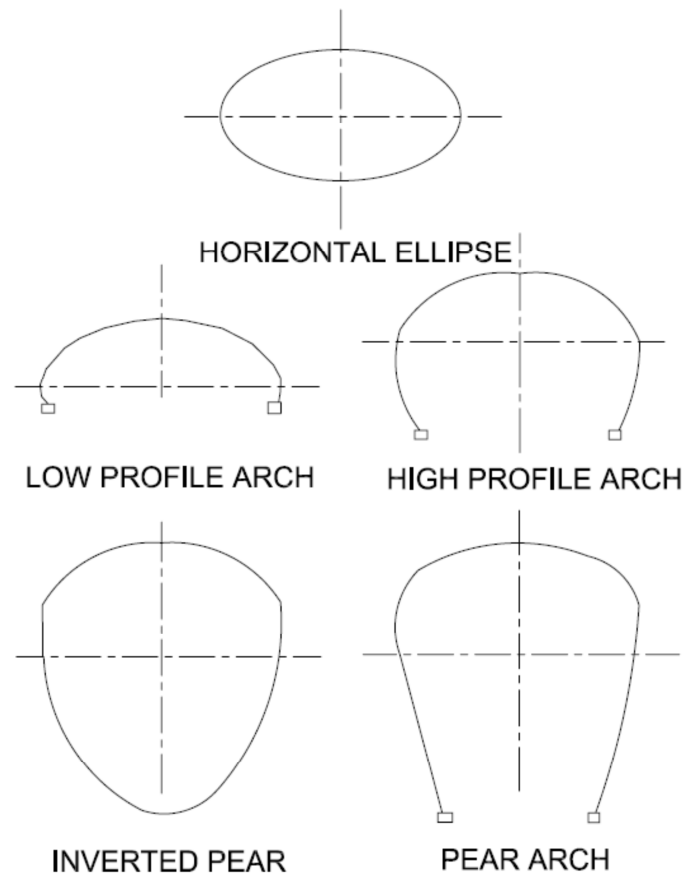


Figure 10.5: Long-Span Shapes.

- C These structures become part of a composite system comprised of the metal structure section and the soil envelope, both of which contribute to the behavior of the system.

10.9.2. Service Limit State

No service limit state criteria need be required.

- C Soil design and placement requirements for long-span structures are intended to limit structure deflections.
- C The contract documents should require that construction procedures be monitored to ensure that severe deformations do not occur during backfill placement and compaction.

10.9.3. Safety against Structural Failure

With the exception of the requirements for buckling and flexibility, the provisions of Article 10.7 shall apply, except as described herein.

Dimensions and properties of structure cross-sections, minimum seam strength, mechanical and chemical requirements, and bolt properties for long-span structural plate sections shall be taken as specified in in Appendix A or as described herein.

10.9.3.1. Section Properties

1. Cross-Section

The provisions of Article 10.7 shall apply, except as specified.

Structures not described herein shall be regarded as special designs.

Table A10.3 shall apply. Minimum requirements for section properties shall be taken as specified in Table 10.8. Covers that are less than that shown in Table 10.8 and that correspond to the minimum plate thickness for a given radius may be used if ribs are used to stiffen the plate. If ribs are used, the plate thickness may not be reduced below the minimum shown for that radius, and the moment of inertia of the rib and plate section shall not be less than that of the thicker unstiffened plate corresponding to the fill height. Use of soil cover less than the minimum values shown for a given radius shall require a special design.

Table 10.8 Minimum Requirements for Long-Span Structures with Acceptable Special Features.

Top Arc Minimum Thickness (mm)					
Top Radius (mm)	≤4500	4500–5200	5200–6100	6100–7000	7000–7600
150 mm × 50 mm Corrugated Steel Plate—Top Arc Minimum Thickness (mm)	2.82	3.56	4.32	5.54	6.32
Geometric Limits					
The following geometric limits shall apply: • Maximum plate radius—7600 mm • Maximum central angle of top arc—80.0° • Minimum ratio, top arc radius to side arc radius—2 • Maximum ratio, top arc radius to side arc radius—5					
Minimum Cover (mm)					
Top Radius (mm)	≤4500	4500–5200	5200–6100	6100–7000	7000–7600
Steel thickness without ribs (mm)					
2.82	750	—	—	—	—
3.56	750	900	—	—	—
4.32	750	900	900	—	—
4.78	750	900	900	—	—
5.54	600	750	750	900	—
6.32	600	600	750	900	1200
7.11	600	600	750	900	1200

C As sharp radii generate high soil pressures, high ratios shall be avoided when significant heights of fill are involved.

Design not covered in [Table 10.8](#) should not be permitted unless substantiated by documentation acceptable to the Owner.

2. Shape Control

The requirements of Articles [10.8.2.4](#) and [10.8.2.6](#) shall not apply for the design of long-span structural plate structures.

3. Mechanical and Chemical Requirements

[Table A10.3](#), [Table A10.8](#) and [Table A10.10](#) shall apply.

10.9.3.2. Thrust

The factored thrust in the wall shall be determined by Eq. [\(10.7\)](#), except the value of S in the equation shall be replaced by twice the value of the top arc radius, R_T .

10.9.3.3. Wall Area

The provisions of Article [10.8.2.3](#) shall apply.

10.9.3.4. Seam Strength

The provisions of Article [10.8.2.5](#) shall apply.

10.9.3.5. Acceptable Special Features

1. Continuous Longitudinal Stiffeners

Continuous longitudinal stiffeners shall be connected to the corrugated plates at each side of the top arc. Stiffeners may be metal or reinforced concrete either singly or in combination.

2. Reinforcing Ribs

Reinforcing ribs formed from structural shapes may be used to stiffen plate structures. Where used, they should be:

- Curved to conform to the curvature of the plates,
- Fastened to the structure as required to ensure integral action with the corrugated plates, and
- Spaced at such intervals as necessary to increase the moment of inertia of the section to that required for design.

10.9.4. Safety against Structural Failure-Foundation Design

10.9.4.1. Settlement Limits

A geotechnical survey of the site shall be made to determine that site conditions will satisfy the requirement that both the structure and the critical backfill zone on each side of the structure be properly supported. Design shall satisfy the requirements of Article [10.6.2.2](#), with the following factors to be considered when establishing settlement criteria:

- Once the structure has been backfilled over the crown, settlements of the supporting backfill relative to the structure must be limited to control dragdown forces. If the sidefill will settle more than the structure, a detailed analysis may be required.
 - Settlements along the longitudinal centerline of arch structures must be limited to maintain slope and preclude footing cracks in arches.
- C Once the top arc of the structure has been backfilled, downdrag forces may occur if the structure backfill settles into the foundation more than the structure. This results in the structure carrying more soil load than the overburden directly above it. If undertaken prior to erecting the structure, site improvements such as surcharging, foundation compacting, etc., often adequately correct these conditions.
- C Where the structure will settle uniformly with the adjacent soils, long-spans with full inverts can be built on a camber to achieve a proper final grade.

Calculated differential settlements across the structure taken from springline-to-springline, Δ , shall satisfy:

$$\Delta \leq \frac{0.01S^2}{R} \quad (10.12)$$

where:

- S = span of structure between springlines of longspan structural plate structures (mm)
- R = rise of structure (mm)

More restrictive settlement limits may be required where needed to protect pavements or to limit longitudinal differential deflections.

- C For design, differential settlement between the footings taken across the structure is limited to avoid excessive eccentricity. The limit on any settlement induced rotation of the structure maintains the top arc centerline within one percent of span, as shown in [Figure 10.6](#).

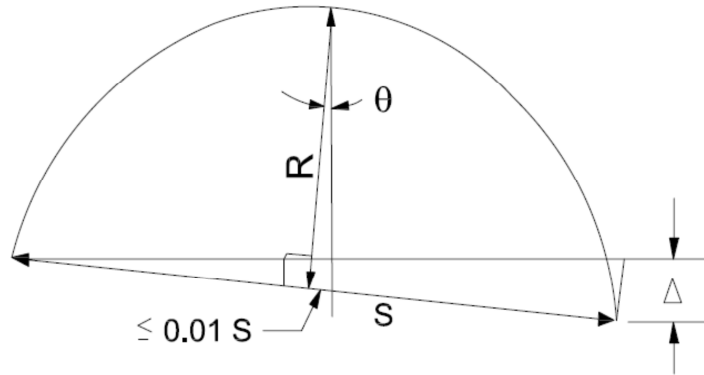


Figure 10.6: Differential Settlement.

- C The rotation of the structure, θ , may be determined as:

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\Delta}{S} \right) \quad (10.13)$$

10.9.4.2. Footing Reactions in Arch Structures

Footing reactions may be taken as:

$$R_V = (V_{DL} + V_{LL}) \cos \Delta \quad (10.14)$$

$$R_H = (V_{DL} + V_{LL}) \sin \Delta \quad (10.15)$$

in which:

$$V_{DL} = g[H_2(S) - A_T] \gamma_S / (2 \times 10^9)$$

$$V_{LL} = n(A_L) / (2400 + 2H_1)$$

$$n = \text{integer } (2H_1/L_w + 2) \leq \text{number of adjoining traffic lanes}$$

where:

R_V = vertical footing reaction component (N/mm)

R_H = horizontal footing reaction component (N/mm)

Δ = return angle of the structure ($^\circ$)

A_L = axle load (N), taken as 50 percent of all axle loads that can be placed on the structure at one time, i.e.:

-260 000 N for the design truck axle

-500 000 N for the design tandem axle pair

-720 000 N for E80 railroad loading¹

A_T = area of the top portion of the structure above the springline (mm^2)

¹ E80 railroad loading is COOPER E80 RAILROAD LIVE LOAD. It simulates the live load from a train, usually on a bridge. It is a series of point loads (simulating locomotive wheels) followed by uniform distributed load of 117 kN per linear meter of track (the total load on two rails to simulate railcars).

- H_1 = height of cover above the footing to traffic surface (mm) H_2 = height of cover from the springline of the structure to traffic surface (mm)
- L_w = lane width (mm)
- γ_s = density of soil (kg/m³)
- g = acceleration due to gravity (m/sec.²)
- S = span (mm)

The distribution of live load through the fill shall be based on any accepted methods of analysis.

- C Footing reactions are calculated by simple statics to support the vertical loads. Soil load footing reactions (V_{DL}) are taken as the weight of the fill and pavement above the springline of the structure. Where footings extend out beyond the springline and the foundation has not previously carried the design overburden, this additional soil load (E_v) may need to be added to V_{DL} in an embankment installation.
- C Live loads that provide relatively limited pressure zones acting on the crown of the structure may be distributed to the footings as indicated in [Figure 10.7](#).

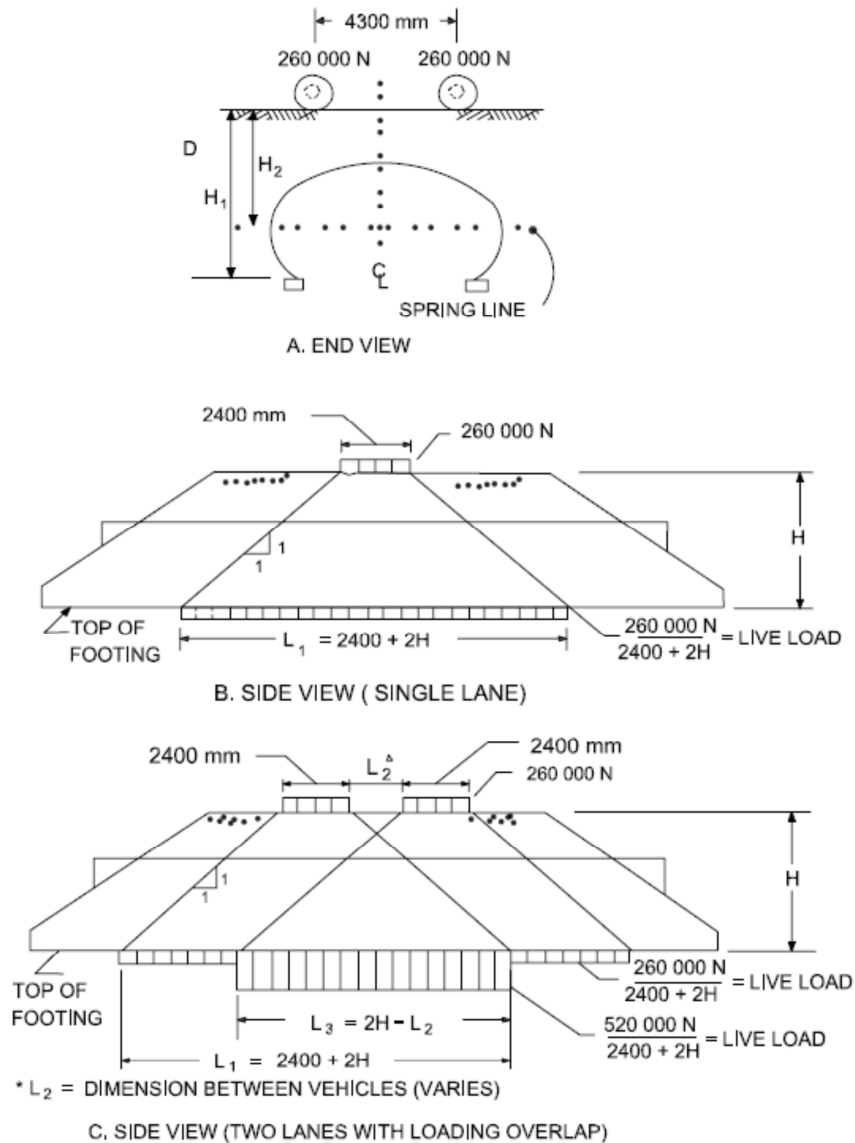


Figure 10.7: Live-Load Footing Reaction Due to Axles of the Design Truck, per Footing.

10.9.4.3. Footing Design

Reinforced concrete footings shall be designed in accordance with Article 8.6 and shall be proportioned to satisfy settlement requirements of Article 10.9.4.1.

10.9.5. Safety against Structural Failure-Soil Envelope Design

10.9.5.1. General

Structural backfill material in the envelope around the structure shall satisfy the requirements of Article 10.4.1.3 for long-span structures. The width of the envelope on each side of the structure shall be proportioned to limit shape change during construction activities outside the envelope and to control deflections at the service limit state.

- C Structure erection, backfill, and construction shall meet all the requirements of Section 25, MA-100-C-V1/1.
- C The performance of the structure depends upon the in-situ embankment or other fill materials beyond the structural backfill.
- C Design must consider the performance of all materials within the zone affected by the structure.

10.9.5.2. Construction Requirements

- C The purpose of this provision is to control shape change from construction activities outside the envelope in trench conditions.

The structural backfill envelope shall either extend to the trench wall and be compacted against it or extend a distance adequate to protect the shape of the structure from construction loads. The remaining trench width may be filled with suitable backfill material compacted to satisfy the requirements of Article [10.9.5.3](#). In embankment conditions, the minimum structural backfill width shall be taken as 1800 mm. Where dissimilar materials not meeting geotechnical filter criteria are used adjacent to each other, a suitable geotextile shall be provided to avoid migration.

10.9.5.3. Service Requirements

- C The purpose of this provision is to limit deflections under service loads.

The width of the envelope on each side of the structure shall be adequate to limit horizontal compression strain to one percent of the structure's span on each side of the structure.

- C The limit on soil compression limits the theoretical design increase in span to two percent. This is a design limit, not a performance limit. Any span increase that occurs is principally due to the consolidation of the side support materials as the structure is loaded during backfilling. These are construction movements that attenuate when full cover is reached.

Determination of the horizontal compressive strain shall be based on an evaluation of the width and quality of the structural backfill material selected as well as the in-situ embankment or other fill materials within the zone on each side of the structure taken to extend to a distance equal to the rise of the structure, plus its cover height as indicated in [Figure 10.9](#).

Forces acting radially off the small radius corner arc of the structure at a distance, d_1 , from the structure may be taken as:

$$P_1 = \frac{T}{R_c + d_1} \quad (10.16)$$

where:

- P_1 = horizontal pressure from the structure at a distance, d_1 (MPa)
- d_1 = distance from the structure (mm)
- T = total dead load and live load thrust in the structure (Article [10.9.3.2](#)) (N/mm)
- R_c = corner radius of the structure (mm)

The required envelope width adjacent the pipe, d , may be taken as:

$$d = \frac{300T}{P_{Brg}} - R_c \quad (10.17)$$

where:

d = required envelope width adjacent to the structure (mm)

P_{Brg} = allowable bearing pressure to limit compressive strain in the trench wall or embankment (MPa)

- C Eqs. (10.16) and (10.17) conservatively assume that the pressure from the structure acts radially outward from the corner arc without further dissipation. Figure 10.8 provides the geometric basis of these Equations.

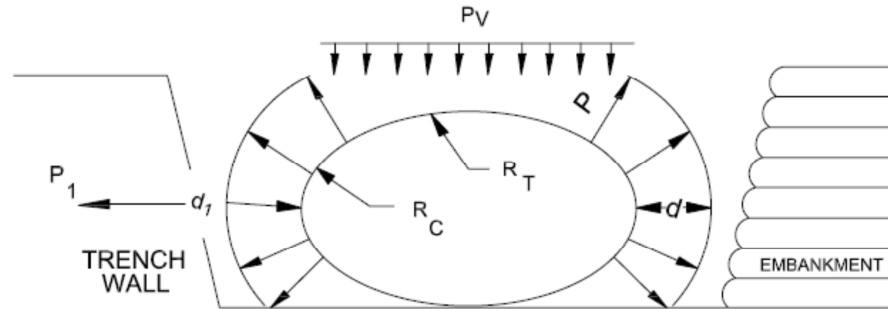


Figure 10.8: Radial Pressure Diagram.

The structural backfill envelope shall be taken to continue above the crown to the lesser of:

- The minimum cover level specified for that structure,
- The bottom of the pavement or granular base course where a base course is present below the pavement, or
- The bottom of any relief slab or similar construction where one is present.

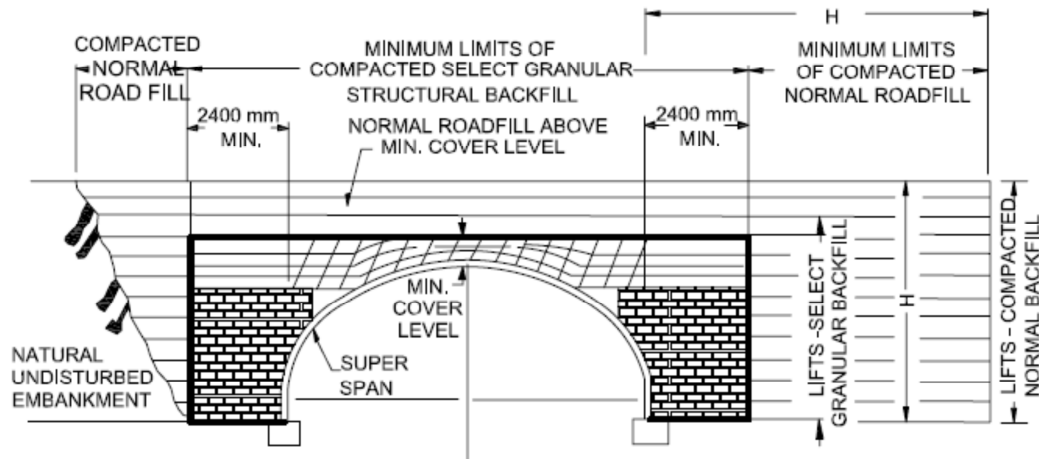


Figure 10.9: Typical Structural Backfill Envelope and Zone of Structure Influence.

10.9.6. Safety against Structural Failure-End Treatment Design

10.9.6.1. General

End treatment selection and design shall be considered as an integral part of the structural design.

- C Proper end treatment design ensures proper support of the ends of the structure while providing protection from scour, hydraulic uplift, and loss of backfill due to erosion forces.

10.9.6.2. Standard Shell End Types

The standard end types for the corrugated plate shell shall be taken to be those shown in [Figure 10.10](#).

- C Standard end types refer to the way the structural plate structure's ends are cut to match the fill slope, stream banks, etc.
- C While the type of end selected may have aesthetic or hydraulic considerations, the structural design must ensure adequate structural strength and protection from erosion. Hydraulic considerations may require wingwalls, etc.
- C Step bevel, full bevel, and skewed ends all involve cutting the plates within a ring. Each has its own structural considerations.
- C The square end is the simplest arrangement. No plates are cut and the barrel retains its integrity.

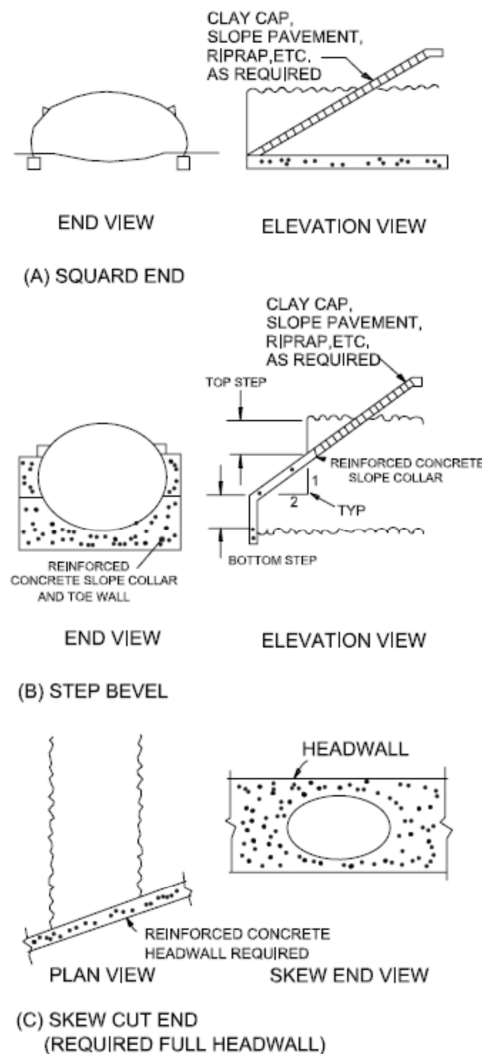


Figure 10.10: Standard Structure End Types.

The following considerations shall apply to step bevels:

- The rise of the top step shall be equal to or greater than the rise of the top arc, i.e., plates in the top arc are left uncut which serves to support the sides of the structure near each end.
- For structures with inverts, the bottom step shall satisfy the requirements for a top step.
- For arches, the bottom step shall be a minimum of 150 mm high.
- The slope of the cut plates generally should be no flatter than 3:1.
- The upper edge of the cut plates shall be bolted to and supported by a structural concrete slope collar, slope pavement, or similar device.

- C Step bevels cut the corner (and side on pear and high profile arch shapes) plates on a diagonal (bevel) to match the fill slope.
- C Step bevels are widely used. The plates in the large radius top arc are left uncut to support the sides of the structure near each end.
- C Invert plates must be left uncut to avoid leaving the invert as triangular shaped elements, when viewed in plan, running upstream and downstream.
- C Diagonally cut corner and side plates become a retaining wall, supporting the fill slope beside them. They must be provided with suitable, rigid support at the top that acts as a top wale beam and be limited in length. These plates have limited longitudinal strength and inadequate bending strength or fixity to act as a cantilevered retaining wall.
- C When a full bevel cuts the top plates, additional support is necessary to backfill the structure. Typically, the top step is left in place and field cut only after a suitable rigid concrete slope collar has been poured and adequately cured.
- C Ring compressive thrust forces act circumferentially around the structure following the corrugations. At the skew cut ends of the plate, these forces act tangentially to the plate and must be resisted by a headwall. Additionally, because a skew cut structure is not perpendicular to the headwall, a portion of the radial pressure from the structure acts normal to the back of the headwall.

Full bevel ends shall be used in special design only. Structures with full inverts shall have a bottom step conforming to the requirements for step bevel ends.

The bevel cut edge of all plates shall be supported by a suitable, rigid concrete slope collar.

Skew cut ends shall be fully connected to and supported by a headwall of reinforced concrete or other rigid construction. The headwall shall extend an adequate distance above the crown of the structure to be capable of reacting the ring compression thrust forces from the cut plates. In addition to normal active earth and live load pressures, the headwall shall be designed to react a component of the radial pressure exerted by the structure as specified in Article [10.9.5](#).

10.9.6.3. Balanced Support

1. General

Flexible structures have relatively low bending strength. If the earth support is not balanced, the structure in effect becomes a retaining wall. An excessive imbalance causes shape distortion and ultimately failure.

Designs and details shall provide soil support that is relatively balanced from side-to-side, perpendicularly across the structure. In lieu of a special design, slopes running perpendicularly across the structure shall not exceed ten percent for cover heights of 3000 mm or less and 15 percent for higher covers.

2. Skewed Structures

- C When a structure is skewed to an embankment, two diagonally opposite areas at the ends of the structure are not adequately supported. This must be corrected by extending the embankment an adequate distance out beside the structure.

When a structure is skewed to an embankment, the fill shall be detailed to be warped to maintain balanced support and to provide an adequate width of backfill and embankment soil to support the ends.

In lieu of a special design, details provided in Article [10.6.6.2](#) may be considered.

A properly warped embankment is characterized by equal elevation topographical lines crossing the structure perpendicularly and extending beyond it a suitable distance so that the volume of earth included in the warp provides a gravity retaining wall capable of supporting the radial pressures from the structure with adequate safety.

10.9.6.4. Hydraulic Protection

1. General

In hydraulic applications, provisions shall be made to protect the structure, taken to include the shell, footings, structural backfill envelope, and other fill materials within the zone influenced by the structure.

2. Backfill Protection

Design or selection of backfill gradation shall include consideration of loss of backfill integrity due to piping. If materials prone to piping are used, the structure and ends of the backfill envelope shall be adequately sealed to control soil migration and/or infiltration.

- C Backfill piping and migration is always a major consideration in selecting its specific gradation.
- C The ends of the backfill envelope may be sealed using one or a combination of a compacted clay cap, concrete slope pavements, grouted riprap, headwalls to the design storm elevation, and similar details.

3. Cut-Off (Toe) Walls

All hydraulic structures with full inverts shall be designed and detailed with upstream and downstream cut-off walls. Invert plates shall be bolted to cut-off walls at a maximum 500-mm center-to-center spacing using 20-mm bolts.

The cut-off wall shall extend to an adequate depth to limit hydraulic percolation to control uplift forces as specified in Article [10.9.6.4.4](#) and scour as specified in Article [10.9.6.4.5](#).

4. Hydraulic Uplift

Hydraulic uplift shall be considered for hydraulic structures with full inverts where the design flow level in the pipe can drop quickly.

The design shall provide means to limit the resulting hydraulic gradients, with the water level higher in the backfill than in the pipe, so that the invert will not buckle and the structure will not float.

Buckling may be evaluated as specified in Article [10.8.2.4](#), with the span of the structure taken as twice the invert radius.

- C Structural plate structures are not watertight and allow for both infiltration and infiltration through the structure's seams, bolt holes, and other discontinuities. Where uplift can be a concern, designs

typically employ adequate cut-off walls and other means to seal off water flow into the structural backfill.

5. Scour

Scour design shall satisfy the requirements of Article 10.7.5. Where erodible soils are encountered, conventional means of scour protection may be employed to satisfy these requirements.

Structures with full inverts eliminate footing scour considerations when adequate cut-off walls are used. For arches, reinforced concrete invert pavements, riprap, grouted riprap, etc., can be employed to provide scour protection.

Deep foundations such as piles or caissons should not be used unless a special design is provided to consider differential settlement and the inability of intermittent supports to retain the structural backfill if scour proceeds below the pile cap.

10.9.7. Concrete Relieving Slabs

Concrete relieving slabs may be used to reduce moments in long-span structures.

The length of the concrete relieving slab shall be at least 600 mm greater than the span of the structure. The relieving slab shall extend across the width subject to vehicular loading, and its depth shall be determined as specified in Article 10.10.4.6.

C Application of a typical concrete relieving slab is shown in Figure 10.12.

10.9.8. Construction and Installation

The construction documents shall require that construction and installation conform to Section 25 of the MA-100-C-V1/1.

10.10. STRUCTURAL PLATE BOX STRUCTURES

10.10.1. General

C These Specifications are based on three types of data:

- Finite element soil-structure interaction analyses;
- Field loading tests on instrumented structures;
- Extensive field experience.

The design method specified herein shall be limited to depth of cover from 430 to 1500 mm.

The provisions of this Article shall apply to the design of structural plate box structures, hereinafter called “metal box culverts.” The provisions of Articles 10.7 and 10.9 shall not apply to metal box culvert designs, except as noted.

If rib stiffeners are used to increase the flexural resistance and moment capacity of the plate, the transverse stiffeners shall consist of structural steel or aluminum sections curved to fit the structural plates. Ribs shall be bolted to the plates to develop the plastic flexural resistance of the composite section. Spacing between ribs shall not exceed 600 mm on the crown and 1370 mm on the haunch. Rib splices shall develop the plastic flexural resistance required at the location of the splice.

C These Specifications conform to the same standards as those structures completed since about 1980.

- C Structural plate box culverts are composite-reinforced rib plate structures of approximately rectangular shape. They are intended for shallow covers and low wide waterway openings. The shallow covers and extreme shapes of box culverts require special design procedures.
- C Metal box culverts differ greatly from conventional metal culvert shapes. Metal box culverts are relatively flat at the top and require a large flexural capacity due to extreme geometry and shallow depths of cover of 1500 mm or less. Analyses over the range of sizes permitted under these Specifications indicate that flexural requirements govern the choice of section in all cases. The effects of thrust are negligible in comparison with those of flexure. This difference in behavior requires a different approach in design.
- C For information regarding the manufacture of structures and structural components referred to herein, see [AASHTO M 167/M 167 \(ASTM A 761/A 761M\)](#) for steel.

10.10.2. Loading

For live loads, the provisions of Article [3.6.1](#) shall apply.

Densities for soil backfill, other than 1900 kg/m^3 , may be considered as specified in Article [10.10.4.2](#).

- C The earth loads for the design procedure described herein are based upon soil backfill having a standard density, γ_s of 1925 kg/m^3 .

10.10.3. Service Limit State

No service limit state criteria need be applied in the design of box culvert structures.

- C Soil design and placement requirements for box culvert structures can limit structure deflections satisfactorily.
- C The contract documents should require that construction procedures be monitored to ensure that severe deformations do not occur during backfill placement and compaction, in which case no deflection limits should be imposed on the completed structure.

10.10.4. Safety against Structural Failure

10.10.4.1. General

The resistance of corrugated box culverts shall be determined at the strength limit state in accordance with Articles [10.5.3](#), [10.5.4](#), and [10.5.5](#) and the requirements specified herein.

Box culvert sections for which these Articles apply are defined in [Figure 10.11](#) and [Table 10.9](#). [Table A10.10](#) shall apply.

- C Finite element analyses covering the range of metal box culvert shapes described in Article [10.9.4.1](#) have shown that flexural requirements govern the design in all cases. Effects of thrust are negligible when combined with flexure.
- C The structural requirements for metal box culverts are based on the results of finite element analyses and field measurements of in-service box culverts.

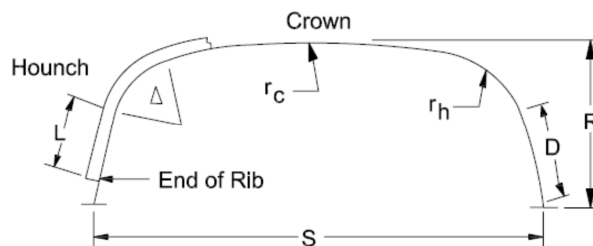


Figure 10.11: Geometry of Box Culverts.

Table 10.9: Geometric Requirements for Box Culverts.

Span, S	2670 mm to 7750 mm
Rise, R	760 mm to 3200 mm
Radius of crown, r_c	≤ 7560 mm
Radius of haunch, r_h	≥ 760 mm
Haunch radius included angle, Δ	50° to 70°
Length of leg, D	measured to the bottom of the plate, may vary from 120 mm to 1800 mm
Minimum length of rib on leg, L	lesser of 480 mm or $(D - 75)$ mm or to within 75 mm of the top of a concrete footing

The flexural resistance of corrugated plate box structures shall be determined using the specified yield strength of the corrugated plate.

The flexural resistance of plate box structures with ribbed sections shall be determined using specified yield strength values for both rib and corrugated shell. Computed values may be used for design only after confirmation by representative flexural testing. Rib splices shall develop the plastic moment capacity required at the location of the splice.

10.10.4.2. Moments Due to Factored Loads

Unfactored crown and haunch dead and live load moments, M_{dl} and $M_{\ell\ell}$, may be taken as:

$$M_{dl} = \gamma_s g \{ S^3 [0.0053 - 7.87 \times 10^{-7} (S - 3660)] + 0.053(H - 427) S^2 \} \times 10^9 \quad (10.18)$$

$$M_{\ell\ell} = C_{\ell\ell} K_1 \frac{S}{300 K_2} \quad (10.19)$$

where:

M_{dl} = sum of the nominal crown and haunch dead load moments (N-mm/mm)

$M_{\ell\ell}$ = sum of the nominal crown and haunch live load moments (N-mm/mm)

S = box culvert span (mm)

γ_s = soil density (kg/m³)

H = height of cover from the box culvert rise to top of pavement (mm)

$C_{\ell\ell}$ = adjusted live load

= $C_1 C_2 AL$ (N)

A_L = sum of all axle loads in an axle group (N)

C_1 = 1.0 for single axles and $0.5 + S/15\,000 \leq 1.0$ for tandem axles

C_2 = adjustment factor for number of wheels on a design axle as specified in [Table 10.10](#)

in which:

$$K_1 = \frac{0.08}{\left(\frac{H}{S}\right)^{0.2}} \quad \text{for } 2400 \leq S \leq 6000$$

$$K_1 = \frac{0.08 - 6.6 \times 10^{-6}(S - 6000)}{\left(\frac{H}{S}\right)^{0.2}} \quad \text{for } 6000 \leq S \leq 8000 \quad (10.20)$$

$$K_2 = 5.8 \times 10^{-6} H^2 - 0.0013H + 5.05 \quad \text{for } 400 \leq H \leq 900$$

$$K_2 = 0.0062H + 3 \quad \text{for } 900 \leq H \leq 1500 \quad (10.21)$$

The number of "wheels per notional axle group" determines the value of C, in [Table 10.10](#). The following guidelines are consistent with the development of [Table 10.10](#):

- Use "2" as the number of wheels when the design is based on an axle with two wheels, e.g., two 130 000 N wheels on one 260 000 N axle.
- Use "4" as the number of wheels where the design is based on either an axle with four wheels, e.g., two 65 000 N wheels on each end of a 260 000 N axle; or two axles with two wheels each, e.g., two 125 000 N wheels on each of two tandem 250 000 N axles.
- Use "8" as the number of wheels when the design is based on two axles, each with a pair of wheels at each end of each axle.

Table 10.10: Adjustment Coefficient Values (C_2) for Number of Wheels per Axle.

Wheels per Notional Axle Group	Cover Depth (mm)			
	400	600	900	1500
2	1.18	1.21	1.24	1.02
4	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
8	0.63	0.70	0.82	0.93

Unless otherwise specified, the design truck specified in Article [3.6.1.2.2](#) should be assumed to have four wheels on an axle. The design tandem specified in Article [3.6.1.2.3](#) should be assumed to be an axle group consisting of two axles with four wheels on each axle.

The factored moments, M_{dlu} and $M_{\ell lu}$ as referred to in Article [10.10.4.3](#), shall be determined as specified in [Table 3.1](#), except that the live load factor used to compute $M_{\ell lu}$ shall be 2.0. The factored reactions shall be determined by factoring the reactions specified in Article [10.10.4.5](#).

10.10.4.3. Plastic Moment Resistance

The plastic moment resistance of the crown, M_{pc} , and the plastic moment resistance of the haunch, M_{ph} , shall not be less than the proportioned sum of adjusted dead and live load moments. The values of M_{pc} and M_{ph} shall be determined as follows:

$$M_{pc} \geq C_H P_C (M_{dlu} + M_{llu}) \quad (10.22)$$

$$M_{ph} \geq C_H (1.0 - P_c) (M_{dlu} - M_{llu}) \quad (10.23)$$

where:

- C_H = crown soil cover factor specified in Article 10.10.4.4
- P_c = allowable range of the ratio of total moment carried by the crown as specified in Table 10.11
- R_H = acceptable values of the haunch moment reduction factor as specified in Table 10.12
- M_{dlu} = factored dead load moment as specified in Article 10.10.4.2 (N-mm)
- M_{llu} = factored live load moment as specified in Article 10.10.4.2 (N-mm)

- C Some discretion is allowed relative to the total flexural capacity assigned to the crown and haunches of box culverts.
- C The distribution of moment between the crown and haunch, described in Article 10.10.4.2, is accomplished in the design using the crown moment proportioning factor, P_c which represents the proportion of the total moment that can be carried by the crown of the box culvert and that varies with the relative flexural capacities of the crown and haunch components.
- C The requirements given herein can be used to investigate products for compliance with these Specifications. Using the actual crown flexural capacity, M_{pc} provided by the metal box structure under consideration and the loading requirements of the application, Eq. (10.22) can be solved for the factor P_c which should fall within the allowable range of Table 10.11. Knowing P_c , Eq. (10.23) can be solved for M_{ph} , which should not exceed the actual haunch flexural resistance provided by the structure section. If Eq. (10.22) indicates a higher value of P_c than permitted by the allowable ranges in Table 10.11, the actual crown is over designed, which is acceptable. However, in this case, only the maximum value of P_c allowed by Table 10.11, should be used to calculate the required M_{ph} from Eq. (10.23).

Table 10.11 Crown Moment Proportioning Values, P_c .

Span (mm)	Allowable Range of P_c
less than 3000	0.55–0.70
3000–4500	0.50–0.70
4500–6000	0.45–0.70
6000–8000	0.45–0.60

Table 10.12 Haunch Moment Reduction Values, R_H .

	Cover Depth (mm)			
	400	600	900	1200 to 1500
R_h	0.66	0.74	0.87	1.00

10.10.4.4. Crown Soil Cover Factor, C_H

For depths of soil cover greater than or equal to 1000 mm, the crown soil cover factor, C_H , shall be taken as 1.0.

For crown cover depth between 420 and 1000 mm, the crown soil cover factor shall be taken as:

$$C_H = 1.15 - \left(\frac{H - 420}{4200} \right) \quad (10.24)$$

where:

H = depth of cover over crown (mm)

- C The results of finite element analyses and field monitoring studies to evaluate the effects of load-induced deformations and in-plane deformed geometries indicate that the design moments should be increased where the cover is less than 1000 mm.
- C Eq. (10.24) is discussed in Boulanger et al. (1989).

10.10.4.5. Footing Reactions

Reactions at the box culvert footing shall be determined as:

$$V = g \gamma_s \left(\frac{HS}{2} + \frac{S^2}{40} \right) \times 10^{-9} + \frac{A_L}{2440 + 2(H + R)} \quad (10.25)$$

where:

- g = acceleration of gravity (m/sec.²)
- V = unfactored footing reaction (N/mm)
- γ_s = density of backfill (kg/m³)
- H = depth of cover over crown (mm)
- R = rise of culvert (mm)
- S = span (mm)
- A_L = total axle load (N)

10.10.4.6. Concrete Relieving Slabs

Relieving slabs may be used to reduce flexural moments in box culverts.

Relieving slabs shall not be in contact with the crown as shown in Figure 10.12.

The length of the concrete relieving slab shall be at least 600 mm greater than the culvert span and sufficient to project 300 mm beyond the haunch on each side of the culvert. The relieving slab shall extend across the width subject to vehicular loading.

The depth of reinforced concrete relieving slabs shall be determined as:

$$t = 1.25 t_b R_{AL} R_c R_f \quad (10.26)$$

where:

- t = minimum depth of slab (mm)
- t_b = basic slab depth as specified in Table 10.13 (mm)
- R_{AL} = axle load correction factor specified in Table 10.14
- R_c = concrete strength correction factor specified in Table 10.15
- R_f = factor taken as 1.2 for box structures having spans less than 8000 mm

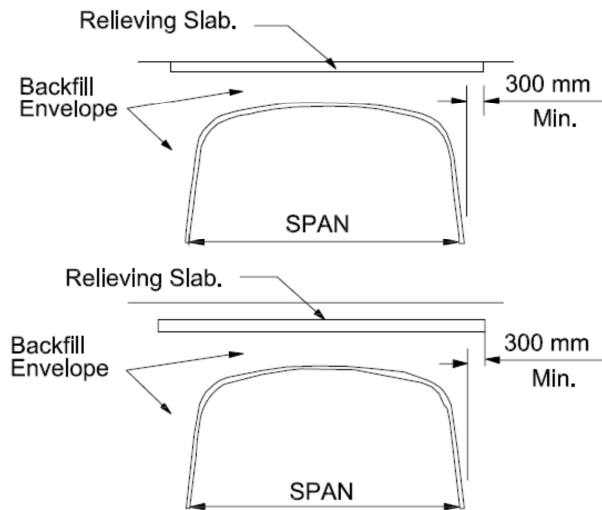


Figure 10.12: Metal Box Culverts with Concrete Relieving Slab.

- C The box culvert design procedure described herein does not directly incorporate consideration of concrete relieving slabs on the influence of concrete pavement. Therefore, the procedures described in [Duncan et al. \(1985\)](#) should be used instead.
- C At this time, the beneficial effect of a relieving slab can only be determined by refined soil-structure interaction analyses.
- C The provisions given herein are applicable only for box structures having spans under 8000 mm.
- C The purpose of avoiding contact between the relieving slab and the culvert is to avoid concentration of the load applied through the slab to the crown of the culvert. As little as 25 to 75-mm clearance is thought to be sufficient to distribute the load.
- C Where an Owner requires design for an axle other than 260 000 N axle, the factor R_{AL} may be used to adjust the depth of a concrete relieving slab as specified in Eq. [\(10.26\)](#).

Table 10.13 : Basic Slab Depth, t_b (mm) ([Duncan et al., 1985](#)).

Unified Classification Subgrade Beneath Slab	Relative Compaction—% of Standard AASHTO Maximum Dry Density		
	100	95	90
	Basic Slab Depth (mm)		
GW, GP, SW, SP, or SM	190	200	220
SM-SC or SC	200	220	230
ML or CL	220	230	240

Table 10.14: Axle Load Correction Factor, R_{AL} (Duncan et al., 1985).

Single Axle Load (N)	R_{AL}
45 000	0.48
90 000	0.64
135 000	0.78
142 000	0.8
178 000	0.84
200 000	0.88
222 000	0.92
244 000	0.96
266 000	1

Table 10.15: Concrete Strength Correction Factor, R_c (Duncan et al., 1985).

Concrete Compressive Strength, f'_c (MPa)	R_c
21	1.19
24	1.15
28	1.10
31	1.05
34	1.01
38	0.97
41	0.94

10.10.5. Construction and Installation

The contract documents shall require that construction and installation conform to Section 25, “Steel Culverts,” in MA-100-C-V1/1.

10.11. REINFORCED CONCRETE PIPE

10.11.1. General

The provisions herein shall apply to the structural design of buried precast reinforced concrete pipes of circular, elliptical, and arch shapes.

The structural design of the types of pipes indicated above may proceed by either of two methods:

- The direct design method at the strength limit state as specified in Article [10.11.4.2](#), or
- The indirect design method at the service limit state as specified in Article [10.11.4.3](#).

- C These structures become part of a composite system comprised of the reinforced concrete buried section and the soil envelope.
- C Standard dimensions for these units are shown in AASHTO M 170M (ASTM C 76M), M 206M/ 206 M (ASTM C 506M and C506), M 207M/M 207 (ASTM C 507M and C 507), and M 242M/M 242 (ASTM C 655M and C655).

10.11.2. Loading

10.11.2.1. Standard Installations

The contract documents shall specify that the foundation bedding and backfill comply with the provisions of Article 26.5.2.3 of the MA-100-C-V1/1.

Minimum compaction requirements and bedding thickness for standard embankment installations and standard trench installations shall be as specified in [Table 10.16](#) and [Table 10.17](#), respectively.

- C The four standard installations replace the historic bedding classes. A comprehensive soil-structure interaction analysis and design program (SPIDA) was developed and used to perform soil-structure interaction analyses for the various soil and installation parameters encompassed in the provisions. The SPIDA studies used to develop the standard installations were conducted for positive projection embankment conditions to provide conservative results for other embankment and trench conditions. These studies also conservatively assume a hard foundation and bedding existing beneath the invert of the pipe, plus void and/or poorly compacted material in the haunch areas, 15° to 40° each side of the invert, resulting in a load concentration such that calculated moments, thrusts, and shears are increased.

Table 10.16: Standard Embankment Installation Soils and Minimum Compaction Requirements.

Installation Type	Bedding Thickness	Haunch and Outer Bedding	Lower Side
Type 1	For soil foundation, use $B_c/600$ mm minimum, not less than 75 mm. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	95% SW	90% SW, 95% ML, or 100% CL
Type 2—Installations are available for horizontal elliptical, vertical elliptical, and arch pipe	For soil foundation, use $B_c/600$ mm minimum, not less than 75 mm. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	90% SW or 95% ML	85% SW, 90% ML, or 95% CL
Type 3—Installations are available for horizontal elliptical, vertical elliptical, and arch pipe	For soil foundation, use $B_c/600$ mm minimum, not less than 75 mm. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	85% SW, 90% ML, or 95% CL	85% SW, 90% ML, or 95% CL
Type 4	For soil foundation, no bedding required. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	No compaction required, except if CL, use 85% CL	No compaction required, except if CL, use 85% CL

B_c is outside diameter or width of the structure (mm)

The following interpretations apply to [Table 10.16](#):

- Compaction and soil symbols, i.e., “95 percent SW,” shall be taken to refer to SW soil material with a minimum standard proctor compaction of 95 percent. Equivalent modified proctor values shall be as given in Table 26.6 of the MA-100-C-V1/1.
- Soil in the outer bedding, haunch, and lower side zones, except within $B_c/3$ from the pipe springline, shall be compacted to at least the same compaction as the majority of soil in the overfill zone.
- The minimum width of a sub trench shall be $1.33 B_c$, or wider if required for adequate space to attain the specified compaction in the haunch and bedding zones.

- C A sub trench is defined as a trench in the natural material under an embankment used to retain bedding material with its top below finished grade by more than ten percent of the depth of soil cover on the top of the culvert or pipe.
- For sub trenches with walls of natural soil, any portion of the lower side zone in the sub trench wall shall be at least as firm as an equivalent soil placed to the compaction requirements specified for the lower side zone and as firm as the majority of soil in the overfill zone. Otherwise, it shall be removed and replaced with soil compacted to the specified level.

Table 10.17: Standard Trench Installation Soils and Minimum Compaction Requirements.

Installation Type	Bedding Thickness	Haunch and Outer Bedding	Lower Side
Type 1	For soil foundation, use $B_c/600$ mm minimum, not less than 75 mm. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	95% SW	90% SW, 95% ML, or 100% CL, or natural soils of equal firmness
Type 2— Installations are available for horizontal elliptical, vertical elliptical, and arch pipe	For soil foundation, use $B_c/600$ mm minimum, not less than 75 mm. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	90% SW or 95% ML	85% SW, 90% ML, 95% CL, or natural soils of equal firmness
Type 3— Installations are available for horizontal elliptical, vertical elliptical, and arch pipe	For soil foundation, use $B_c/600$ mm minimum, not less than 75 mm. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	85% SW, 90% ML or 95% CL	85% SW, 90% ML, 95% CL, or natural soils of equal firmness
Type 4	For soil foundation, no bedding required. For rock foundation, use $B_c/300$ mm minimum, not less than 150 mm.	No compaction required, except if CL, use 85% CL	85% SW, 90% ML, 95% CL, or natural soil of equal firmness

B_c is outside diameter or width of the structure (mm)

- C For roadways, the top of a sub trench is at an elevation lower than 300 mm below the bottom of the pavement base material.

The following interpretations apply to [Table 10.17](#):

- Compaction and soil symbols, i.e., "95 percent SW," shall be taken to refer to SW soil material with minimum standard proctor compaction of 95 percent. Equivalent modified proctor values shall be as given in Table 26.6 of the MA-100-C-V1/1.
- The trench top elevation shall be no lower than $0.1H$ below finish grade; for roadways, its top shall be no lower than an elevation of 300 mm below the bottom of the pavement base material.
- Soil in bedding and haunch zones shall be compacted to at least the same compaction as specified for the majority of soil in the backfill zone.

- If required for adequate space to attain the specified compaction in the haunch and bedding zones the trench width shall be wider than that shown in Figures 26.1 and 26.2 of the MA-100-C-V1/1.
- For trench walls that are within 10° of vertical, the compaction or firmness of the soil in the trench walls and lower side zone need not be considered.
- For trench walls with greater than 10° slopes that consist of embankment, the lower side shall be compacted to at least the same compaction as specified for the soil in the backfill zone.

The unfactored earth load, W_E , shall be determined as:

$$W_E = F_e \gamma_s g B_c H \times 10^{-9} \quad (10.27)$$

where:

- W_E = unfactored earth load (N/mm)
 F_e = soil-structure interaction factor for the specified installation as defined herein
 B_c = out-to-out horizontal dimension of pipe (mm)
 g = acceleration due to gravity (m/sec.²)
 H = height of fill over pipe (mm)
 γ_s = density of soil (kg/m³)

- C The product $\gamma_s g B_c H \times 10^{-9}$ is sometimes referred to as the prism load, PL , the weight of the column of earth over the outside diameter of the pipe.
- C The earth load for designing pipe using a standard installation is obtained by multiplying the weight of the column of earth above the outside diameter of the pipe by the soil-structure interaction factor, F_e for the design installation type. F_e accounts for the transfer of some of the overburden soil above the regions at the sides of the pipe because the pipe is more rigid than the soil at the side of the pipe for pipe in embankment and wide trench installations. Because of the difficulty of controlling maximum trench width in the field with the widespread use of trench boxes or sloped walls for construction safety, the potential reduction in earth load for pipe in trenches of moderate to narrow width is not taken into account in the determination of earth load and earth pressure distribution on the pipe. Both trench and embankment installations are to be designed for embankment (positive projecting) loads and pressure distribution in direct design or bedding factors in indirect design.
- C The earth pressure distribution and lateral earth force for a unit vertical load is the Heger pressure distribution and horizontal arching factor, HAF . The normalized pressure distribution and HAF values were obtained for each standard installation type from the results of soil-structure interaction analyses using SPIDA, together with the minimum soil properties for the soil types and compaction levels specified for the installations.
- C When nonstandard installations are used, the earth load and pressure distribution should be determined by an appropriate soil-structure interaction analysis.

The unit weight of soil used to calculate earth load shall be the estimated unit weight for the soils specified for the pipe soil installation but shall not be taken to be less than 1760 kg/m³.

Standard installations for both embankments and trenches shall be designed for positive projection, embankment loading conditions where F_e shall be taken as the vertical arching factor, VAF , specified in [Table 10.18](#) for each type of standard installation.

For standard installations, the earth pressure distribution shall be the Heger pressure distribution shown in [Figure 10.13](#) and [Table 10.18](#) for each type of standard installation.

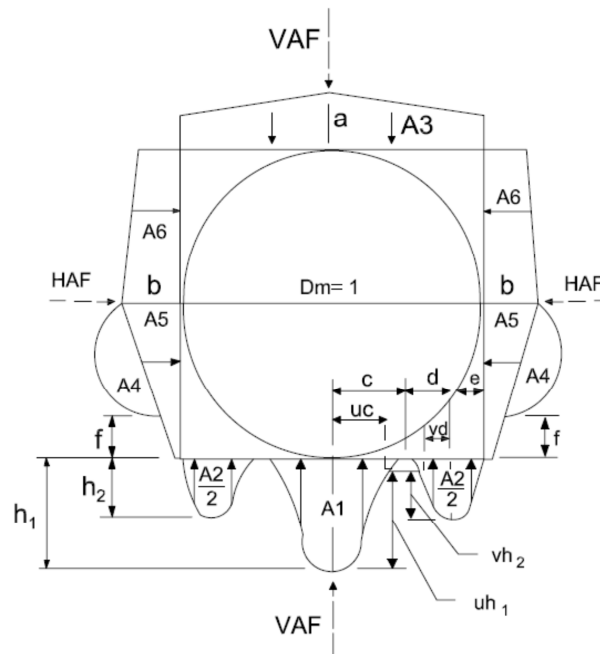


Figure 10.13: Heger Pressure Distribution and Arching Factors.

Table 10.18: Coefficients for use with [Figure 10.13](#).

	Installation Type			
	1	2	3	4
<i>VAF</i>	1.35	1.40	1.40	1.45
<i>HAF</i>	0.45	0.40	0.37	0.30
<i>A1</i>	0.62	0.85	1.05	1.45
<i>A2</i>	0.73	0.55	0.35	0.00
<i>A3</i>	1.35	1.40	1.40	1.45
<i>A4</i>	0.19	0.15	0.10	0.00
<i>A5</i>	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.11
<i>A6</i>	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.19
<i>a</i>	1.40	1.45	1.45	1.45
<i>b</i>	0.40	0.40	0.36	0.30
<i>c</i>	0.18	0.19	0.20	0.25
<i>e</i>	0.08	0.10	0.12	0.00
<i>f</i>	0.05	0.05	0.05	—
<i>u</i>	0.80	0.82	0.85	0.90
<i>v</i>	0.80	0.70	0.60	—

The following shall apply to [Table 10.18](#):

- *VAF* and *HAF* are vertical and horizontal arching factors. These coefficients represent nondimensional total vertical and earth loads on the pipe, respectively. The actual total vertical and horizontal loads are $(VAF) \times (PL)$ and $(HAF) \times (PL)$, respectively, where *PL* is the prism load.

- Coefficients $A1$ through $A6$ represent the integration of nondimensional vertical and horizontal components of soil pressure under the indicated portions of the component pressure diagrams, i.e., the area under the component pressure diagrams.
- The pressures are assumed to vary either parabolically or linearly, as shown in [Figure 10.13](#), with the nondimensional magnitudes at governing points represented by h_1 , h_2 , uh_1 , vh_2 , a , and b .
- Nondimensional horizontal and vertical dimensions of component pressure regions are defined by c , d , e , uc , vd , and f coefficients,

where:

$$d = (0.5 - c - e) \quad (10.28)$$

$$h_1 = (1.5A1) / (c) (1+u) \quad (10.29)$$

$$h_2 = (1.5A2) / [(d) (1+v) + (2e)] \quad (10.30)$$

10.11.2.2. Pipe Fluid Weight

The unfactored weight of fluid, W_F , in the pipe shall be considered in design based on a fluid density of 1000 kg/m^3 , unless otherwise specified. For standard installations, the fluid weight shall be supported by vertical earth pressure that is assumed to have the same distribution over the lower part of the pipe as given in [Figure 10.13](#) for earth load.

10.11.2.3. Live Loads

Live loads shall be as specified in Article [3.6](#) and shall be distributed through the earth cover as specified in Article [3.6.1.2.6](#). For standard installations, the live load on the pipe shall be assumed to have a uniform vertical distribution across the top of the pipe and the same distribution across the bottom of the pipe as given in [Figure 10.13](#).

10.11.3. Service Limit State

The width of cracks in the wall shall be investigated at the service limit state for moment and thrust. Generally, the crack width should not exceed 0.25 mm.

10.11.4. Safety against Structural Failure

10.11.4.1. General

The resistance of buried reinforced concrete pipe structures against structural failure shall be determined at the strength limit state for:

- Flexure,
- Thrust,
- Shear, and
- Radial tension.

The dimensions of pipe sections shall be determined using either the analytically-based direct design method or the empirically-based indirect design method.

When quadrant mats, stirrups, and/or elliptical cages are specified in the contract documents, the orientation of the pipe installation shall be specified, and the design

shall account for the possibility of an angular misorientation of 10° during the pipe installation.

- C The direct design method uses a pressure distribution on the pipe from applied loads and bedding reactions based on a soil-structure interaction analysis or an elastic approximation. The indirect design method uses empirically-determined bedding factors that relate the total factored earth load to the concentrated loads and reactions applied in three-edge bearing tests.

10.11.4.2. Direct Design Method

1. Loads and Pressure Distribution

The total vertical load acting on the pipe shall be determined as specified in Article [10.11.2.1](#).

The pressure distribution on the pipe from applied loads and bedding reaction shall be determined from either a soil-structure analysis or from a rational approximation, either of which shall permit the development of a pressure diagram, shown schematically in [Figure 10.14](#), and the analysis of the pipe.

- C The direct design method was accepted in 1993 by ASCE and is published in [ASCE 93-15](#), Standard Practice for Direct Design of Buried Precast Concrete Pipe Using Standard Installations (SIDDI).
- C The design method was developed along with the research performed on the standard installations. However, the design equations are applied after the required bending moments, thrusts, and shear forces at all critical sections have been determined using anyone of the acceptable pressure distributions. Therefore, the use of the design equations herein is not limited to the standard installations or anyone assumed pressure distribution.
- C Direct design requires:
- The determination of earth loads and live load pressure distributions on the structure for the bedding and installation conditions selected by the Engineer;
 - Analysis to determine thrust, moments, and shears;
 - Design to determine circumferential reinforcement.

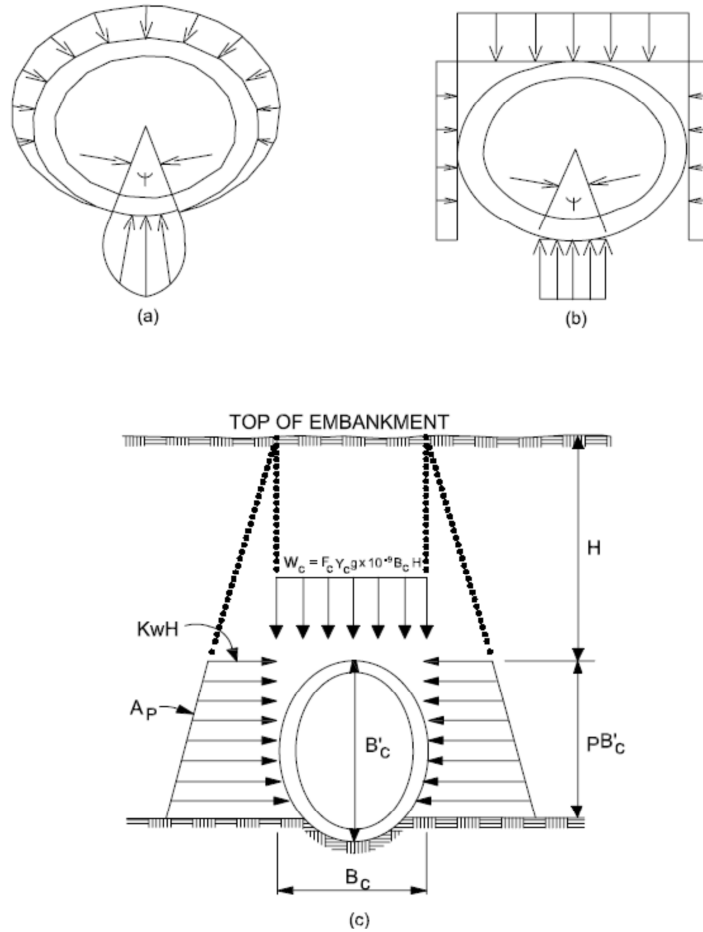


Figure 10.14: Suggested Design Pressure Distribution around a Buried Concrete Pipe for Analysis by Direct Design.

2. Analysis for Force Effects with the Pipe Ring

Force effects in the pipe shall be determined by an elastic analysis of the pipe ring under the assumed pressure distribution or a soil-structure analysis.

3. Process and Material Factors

Process and material factors, F_{rp} for radial tension and F_{vp} for shear strength, for design of plant-made reinforced concrete pipe should be taken as 1.0. Higher values of these factors may be used if substantiated by sufficient testing in accordance with [AASHTO M 242M/M 242 \(ASTM C 655M and C655\)](#).

4. Flexural Resistance at the Strength Limit State

a. Circumferential Reinforcement

Reinforcement for flexural resistance per mm of length shall satisfy:

$$A_s \geq \frac{g\phi d - N_u - \sqrt{g \left[g(\phi d)^2 - N_u(2\phi d - h) - 2M_u \right]}}{f_y} \quad (10.31)$$

in which:

$$g = 0.85 f'_c \quad (10.32)$$

where:

- A_s = area of reinforcement per length of pipe (mm²/mm)
- f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcing (MPa)
- d = distance from compression face to centroid of tension reinforcement (mm)
- f'_c = compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
- h = wall thickness of pipe (mm)
- M_u = moment due to factored loads (N-mm/mm)
- N_u = thrust due to factored load, taken to be positive for compression (N/mm)
- ϕ = resistance factor for flexure specified in Article [10.5.5](#)

- C The required area of steel, A_s , as determined by Eq. [\(10.31\)](#), should be distributed over a unit length of the pipe, which is typically taken as 300 mm.
- C The factored action should also be consistent with the selected unit width

b. Minimum Reinforcement

The reinforcement, A_s , per mm of pipe shall not be less than:

- For inside face of pipe with two layers of reinforcement:

$$A_s \geq \frac{2.26 \times 10^{-5} (S_i + h)^2}{f_y} \geq 0.15 \quad (10.33)$$

- For outside face of pipe with two layers of reinforcement:

$$A_s \geq \frac{1.36 \times 10^{-5} (S_i + h)^2}{f_y} \geq 0.15 \quad (10.34)$$

- For elliptical reinforcement in circular pipe and for 840 mm diameter and smaller pipe with a single cage of reinforcement in the middle third of the pipe wall:

$$A_s \geq \frac{4.5 \times 10^{-5} (S_i + h)^2}{f_y} \geq 0.15 \quad (10.35)$$

where:

- S_i = internal diameter or horizontal span of the pipe (mm)
- h = wall thickness of pipe (mm)
- f_y = yield strength of reinforcement (MPa)

c. Maximum Flexural Reinforcement without Stirrups

The flexural reinforcement per mm of pipe without stirrups shall satisfy:

- For inside steel in radial tension:

$$A_{s \max} \leq \frac{0.111 r_s F_{rp} \sqrt{f'_c} (R_\phi) F_{rt}}{f_y} \quad (10.36)$$

where:

- r_s = radius of the inside reinforcement (mm)
- f'_c = compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
- f_y = specified yield strength of reinforcement (MPa)
- R_ϕ = (ϕ_r/ϕ_t) ; ratio of resistance factors for radial tension and moment specified in Article 10.5.5
- F_{rp} = 1.0 unless a higher value substantiated by test data and approved by the Engineer

in which:

- For $300 \text{ mm} \leq S_i \leq 1830 \text{ mm}$

$$F_{rt} = 1 + 0.000328 (1830 - S_i)$$

- For $1830 \text{ mm} < S_i \leq 3660 \text{ mm}$

$$F_{rt} = \frac{(3660 - S_i)^2}{16.77 \times 10^6} + 0.80$$

- For $S_i > 3660 \text{ mm}$

$$F_{rt} = 0.80$$

- For reinforcing steel in compression:

$$A_{s \max} \leq \frac{\left[\left(\frac{380 g' \phi d}{600 + f_y} \right) - 0.75 N_u \right]}{f_y} \quad (10.37)$$

in which:

$$g' = f'_c [0.85 - 0.0073(f'_c - 28)] \quad (10.38)$$

$$0.85 f'_c \geq g' \geq 0.65 f'_c \quad (10.39)$$

where:

ϕ = Resistance factor for flexure as specified in Article 5.5.4.2.

d. Reinforcement for Crack Width Control

- C Crack control is assumed to be 25 mm from the closest tension reinforcement, even if the cover over the reinforcement is greater than or less than 25 mm.

The crack width factor, F_{cr} , may be determined as:

- If N_s is compressive, it is taken as positive and:

$$F_{cr} = \frac{1.9 \times 10^{-4} B_1 \phi}{d A_s} \left[\frac{M_s + N_s \left(d - \frac{h}{2} \right)}{ij} - 0.083 C_1 h^2 \sqrt{f'_c} \right] \quad (10.40)$$

- If N_s is tensile, it is taken as negative and:

$$F_{cr} = \frac{1.9 \times 10^{-4} B_1 \phi}{d A_s} \left(1.1 M_s - 0.6 N_s d - 0.083 C_1 h^2 \sqrt{f'_c} \right) \quad (10.41)$$

in which:

$$j = 0.74 + 0.1 \frac{e}{d} \leq 0.9 \quad (10.42)$$

$$i = \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{jd}{e} \right)} \quad (10.43)$$

$$e = \frac{M_s}{N_s} + d - \frac{h}{2} \quad (10.44)$$

$$B_1 = \left[\frac{(25.4) t_b S_\ell}{2n} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (10.45)$$

where:

- M_s = flexural moment at service limit state (N-mm/mm)
- N_s = axial thrust at service limit state (N/mm)
- d = distance from compression face to centroid of tension reinforcement (mm)
- h = wall thickness (mm)
- f'_c = specified compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
- C_1 = crack control coefficient for various types of reinforcement as specified in

[Table](#) 10.19

- A_s = area of steel (mm²/mm)
- t_b = clear cover over reinforcement (mm)
- S_ℓ = spacing of circumferential reinforcement (mm)
- n = 1.0 when tension reinforcement is a single layer
- n = 2.0 when tension reinforcement is made of multiple layers
- ϕ = resistance factor for flexure as specified in [Article 10.5.5](#)

- C The crack control coefficients, B_1 and C_1 , are dependent on the type of reinforcement.
- C The crack control factor, F_{cr} in Eq. [\(10.40\)](#) indicates the probability that a crack of a specified maximum width will occur.
- C If the ratio of e/d is less than 1.15, crack control will not govern.

Table 10.19: Crack Control Coefficients.

Type	Reinforcement	C_1
1	Smooth wire or plain bars	1.0
2	Welded smooth wire fabric with 200-mm maximum spacing of longitudinals, welded deformed wire fabric, or deformed wire	1.5
3	Deformed bars or any reinforcement with stirrups anchored thereto	1.9

For Type 2 reinforcement in

Table 10.19 having $t_b^2 S_i/n > 50\,000$, the crack width factor, F_{cr} , shall also be investigated using coefficients B_1 and C_1 specified for Type 3 reinforcement, and the larger value for F_{cr} shall be used.

Higher values for C_1 may be used if substantiated by test data and approved by the Engineer.

C Where $F_{cr} = 1.0$, the specified reinforcement is expected to produce an average maximum crack width of 0.25 mm. For $F_{cr} < 1.0$, the probability of a 0.25 mm crack is reduced, and for $F_{cr} > 1.0$, it is increased.

e. Minimum Concrete Cover

The provisions of Article 5.10.1 shall apply to minimum concrete cover, except as follows:

- If the wall thickness is less than 63 mm, the cover shall not be less than 20 mm, and
- If the wall thickness is not less than 63 mm, the cover shall not be less than 26 mm.

5. Shear Resistance without Stirrups

C For the purpose of this Article, a cage is considered to be a layer of reinforcement.

The section shall be investigated for shear at a critical section taken where $M_{nu}/(V_u d) = 3.0$. The factored shear resistance without radial stirrups, V_r , shall be taken as:

$$V_r = \phi V_n \quad (10.46)$$

in which:

$$V_n = 5.23 d F_{vp} \sqrt{f'_c} (0.0175 + \rho) \left(\frac{F_d F_n}{F_c} \right) \quad (10.47)$$

$$\rho = \frac{A_s}{\phi d} \leq 0.02 \quad (10.48)$$

- For pipes with two cages or a single elliptical cage:

$$F_d = 0.8 + \frac{41}{d} \leq 1.3 \quad (10.49)$$

- For pipes not exceeding 915 mm diameter with a single circular cage:

$$F_d = 0.8 + \frac{41}{d} \leq 1.4 \quad (10.50)$$

If N_u is compressive, it is taken as positive and:

$$F_n = 1 + \frac{N_u}{4200h} \quad (10.51)$$

If N_u is tensile, it is taken as negative and:

$$F_n = 1 + \frac{N_u}{1050h} \quad (10.52)$$

$$F_c = 1 \pm \frac{d}{2r} \quad (10.53)$$

$$M_{nu} = M_u - N_u \left[\frac{4(h-d)}{8} \right] \quad (10.54)$$

The algebraic sign in Eq. (10.53) shall be taken as positive where tension is on the inside of his pipe and negative where tension is on the outside of the pipe.

where:

- f'_{cmax} = 48 MPa
- d = distance from compression face to centroid of tension reinforcement (mm)
- h = wall thickness (mm)
- ϕ = resistance factor for shear as specified in Article 5.5.4.2
- r = radius to centerline of concrete pipe wall (mm)
- N_u = thrust due to factored loads (N/mm)
- V_u = shear due to factored loads (N/mm)
- F_{vp} = process and material factor specified in Article 10.11.4.2.3

If the factored shear resistance, as determined herein, is not adequate, radial stirrups shall be provided in accordance with Article 10.11.4.2.5.

6. Shear Resistance with Radial Stirrups

Radial tension and shear stirrup reinforcement shall not be less than:

- For radial tension:

$$A_{vr} = \frac{1.1S_v(M_u - 0.45N_u\phi_r d)}{f_y r_s \phi_r d} \quad (10.55)$$

$$S_v \leq 0.75 \phi_r d \quad (10.56)$$

- For shear:

$$A_{vs} = \frac{1.1S_v}{f_y \phi_v d} (V_u F_c - V_c) + A_{vr} \quad (10.57)$$

$$S_v \leq 0.75 \phi_v d \quad (10.58)$$

in which:

$$V_c = \frac{4V_r}{\frac{M_{nu}}{V_u d} + 1} \leq 0.166\phi_v d \sqrt{f'_c} \quad (10.59)$$

where:

- M_u = flexural moment due to factored loads (N-mm/mm)
- M_{nu} = factored moment acting on cross-section of unit width as modified for effects of compressive or tensile thrust (N-mm/mm)
- N_u = thrust due to factored loads (N/mm)
- V_u = shear due to factored loads (N/mm)
- V_c = shear resistance of concrete section (N/mm)
- d = distance from compression face to centroid of tension reinforcement (mm)
- f_y = specified yield strength for reinforcement; the value of f_y shall be taken as the lesser of the yield strength of the stirrup or its developed anchorage capacity (MPa)
- r_s = radius of inside reinforcement (mm)
- s_v = spacing of stirrups (mm)
- V_r = factored shear resistance of pipe section without radial stirrups per unit length of pipe (N/mm)
- A_{vr} = stirrup reinforcement area to resist radial tension forces on cross-section of unit width in each line of stirrups at circumferential spacing, s_v (mm²/mm)
- A_{vs} = required area of stirrups for shear reinforcement (mm²/mm)
- f'_c = compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
- ϕ_v = resistance factor for shear as specified in Article [10.5.5](#)
- ϕ_r = resistance factor for radial tension as specified in Article [10.5.5](#)
- F_c = curvature factor as determined by Eq. [\(10.53\)](#)

7. Stirrup Reinforcement Anchorage

a. Radial Tension Stirrup Anchorage

When stirrups are used to resist radial tension, they shall be anchored around each circumferential of the inside cage to develop the resistance of the stirrup, and they shall

also be anchored around the outside cage or embedded sufficiently in the compression side to develop the required resistance of the stirrup.

- C Stirrup reinforcement anchorage development research by pipe manufacturers has demonstrated that the free ends of loop-type stirrups need only be anchored in the compression zone of the concrete cross-section to develop the full tensile strength of the stirrup wire.
- C Stirrup loop lengths equivalent to 70 percent of the wall thickness may be considered to provide adequate anchorage.

b. Shear Stirrup Anchorage

Except as specified herein, when stirrups are not required for radial tension but required for shear, their longitudinal spacing shall be such that they are anchored around each tension circumferential or every other tension circumferential. The spacing of such stirrups shall not exceed 150 mm.

c. Stirrup Embedment

Stirrups intended to resist forces in the invert and crown regions shall be anchored sufficiently in the opposite side of the pipe wall to develop the required resistance of the stirrup.

10.11.4.3. Indirect Design Method

1. Bearing Resistance

Earth and live loads on the pipe shall be determined in accordance with Article 10.11.2 and compared to three-edge bearing strength D-load for the pipe. The service limit state shall apply using the criterion of acceptable crack width specified herein.

The D-load for a particular class and size of pipe shall be determined in accordance with AASHTO M 242M/M 242 (ASTM C 655M and C 655).

The three-edge bearing resistance of the reinforced concrete pipe, corresponding to an experimentally observed 0.3 mm width crack, shall not be less than the design load determined for the pipe as installed, taken as:

$$D = \left(\frac{1000}{S_i} \right) \left(\frac{W_E + W_F}{B_{FE}} + \frac{W_L}{B_{FLL}} \right) \quad (10.60)$$

where:

- B_{FE} = earth load bedding factor specified in Article 10.11.4.3.2.a or Article 10.11.4.3.2.a
- B_{FLL} = live load bedding factor specified in Article 10.11.4.3.2.c
- S_i = internal diameter of pipe (mm)
- W_E = total unfactored earth load specified in Article 10.11.2.1 (N/mm)
- W_F = total unfactored fluid load in the pipe as specified in Article 10.11.2.2 (N/mm)
- W_L = total unfactored live load on unit length pipe specified in Article 10.11.2.3 (N/mm)

For Type 1 installations, D loads, as calculated above, shall be modified by multiplying by an installation factor of 1.10.

- C The indirect design method has been the most commonly utilized method of design for buried reinforced concrete pipe. It is based on observed successful past installations.
- C The required D-load in Newtons per millimeter of diameter per meter of length at which the pipe develops its ultimate strength in a three-edge bearing test is the design D-load at a 0.3-mm crack multiplied by a strength factor specified in AASHTO M 170M or M 242M/M 242 (ASTM C 76 or C 655M and C 655) for circular pipe, M 206M/M 206 (ASTM C 506M and C 506) for arch pipe, and M 207M/M 207 (ASTM C 507M or C 507) for elliptical pipe.

2. Bedding Factor

The minimum compaction specified in [Table 10.16](#) and [Table 10.17](#) shall be required by the contract document.

- C The bedding factor is the ratio of the moment at service limit state to the moment applied in the three-edge bearing test. The standard supporting strength of buried pipe depends on the type of installation. The bedding factors given herein are based on the minimum levels of compaction indicated.

a. Earth Load Bedding Factor for Circular Pipe

Earth load bedding factors, B_{FE} , for circular pipe are presented in [Table 10.20](#).

For pipe diameters, other than those listed in [Table 10.20](#), embankment condition bedding factors, B_{FE} , may be determined by interpolation.

- C The bedding factors for circular pipe were developed using the bending moments produced by the Heger pressure distributions from [Figure 10.13](#) for each of the standard embankment installations. The bedding factors for the embankment condition are conservative for each installation. This conservatism is based on assuming voids and poor compaction in the haunch areas and a hard bedding beneath the pipe in determining the moments, thrusts, and shears used to calculate the bedding factors. The modeling of the soil pressure distribution used to determine moments, thrusts, and shears is also conservative by 10 to 20 percent, compared with the actual SPIDA analysis.

Table 10.20 Bedding Factors for Circular Pipe.

Nominal Pipe Diameter, mm	Standard Installations			
	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4
300	4.4	3.2	2.5	1.7
600	4.2	3.0	2.4	1.7
900	4.0	2.9	2.3	1.7
1800	3.8	2.8	2.2	1.7
3600	3.6	2.8	2.2	1.7

b. Earth Load Bedding Factor for Arch and Elliptical Pipe

The bedding factor for installation of arch and elliptical pipe shall be taken as:

$$B_{FE} = \frac{C_A}{C_N - xq} \quad (10.61)$$

where:

- C_A = constant corresponding to the shape of the pipe, as specified in [Table 10.21](#)
- C_N = parameter that is a function of the distribution of the vertical load and vertical reaction, as specified in [Table 10.21](#)
- x = parameter that is a function of the area of the vertical projection of the pipe over which lateral pressure is effective, as specified in [Table 10.21](#)
- q = ratio of the total lateral pressure to the total vertical fill load specified herein

Design values for C_A , C_N , and x are listed in [Table 10.21](#).

Table 10.21: Design Values of Parameters in Bedding Factor Equation.

Pipe Shape	C_A	Installation Type	C_N	Projection Ratio, p	x
Horizontal Elliptical and Arch	1.337	2	0.630	0.9 0.7	0.421 0.369
		3	0.763	0.5 0.3	0.268 0.148
Vertical Elliptical	1.021	2	0.516	0.9 0.7	0.718 0.639
		3	0.615	0.5 0.3	0.457 0.238

The value of the parameter q is taken as:

- For arch and horizontal elliptical pipe:

$$q = 0.23 \frac{p}{F_e} \left(1 + 0.35p \frac{B_c}{H} \right) \quad (10.62)$$

- For vertical elliptical pipe:

$$q = 0.48 \frac{p}{F_e} \left(1 + 0.73p \frac{B_c}{H} \right) \quad (10.63)$$

where:

p = projection ratio, ratio of the vertical distance between the outside top of the pipe, and the ground of bedding surface to the outside vertical height of the pipe

c. Live Load Bedding Factors

The bedding factors for live load, W_L , for both circular pipe and arch and for elliptical pipe are given in [Table 10.22](#). If B_{FE} is less than B_{FLL} , use B_{FE} instead of B_{FLL} , for the live load bedding factor. For pipe diameters not listed in [Table 10.22](#), the bedding factor may be determined by interpolation.

Table 10.22 Bedding Factors, B_{FLL} , for the Design Truck.

Fill Height, mm	Pipe Diameter, mm										
	300	600	900	1200	1500	1800	2100	2400	2700	3000	3600
150	2.2	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
300	2.2	2.2	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1
450	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.1
600	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3
750	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
900	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.4
1050	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4
1200	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.5
1350	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.7
1500	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8
1650	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9
1800	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.0
1950	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2

10.11.4.4. Development of Quadrant Mat Reinforcement

1. Minimum Cage Reinforcement

In lieu of a detailed analysis, when quadrant mat reinforcement is used, the area of the main cage shall be no less than 25 percent of the area required at the point of maximum moment.

2. Development Length of Welded Wire Fabric

Unless modified herein, the provisions of Article [5.16.2.5](#) shall apply.

3. Development of Quadrant Mat

Reinforcement Consisting of Welded Plain Wire Fabric The embedment of the outermost longitudinals on each end of the circumferentials shall not be less than:

- The greater of 12 circumferential bar diameters or three-quarters of the wall thickness of the pipe beyond the point where the quadrant reinforcement is no longer required by the orientation angle, and
- A distance beyond the point of maximum flexural stress by the orientation angle plus the development length, ℓ_d , where ℓ_d is specified in Article [5.16.2.5.2](#).

The mat shall contain no less than two longitudinals at a distance 25 mm greater than that determined by the orientation angle from either side of the point requiring the maximum flexural reinforcement.

The point of embedment of the outermost longitudinals of the mat shall be at least a distance determined by the orientation angle past the point where the continuing reinforcement is no less than double the area required for flexure.

4. Development of Quadrant Mat Reinforcement Consisting of Deformed Bars, Deformed Wire, or Deformed Wire Fabric

When deformed bars, deformed wire, or deformed wire fabric is used, the circumferential bars in quadrant mat reinforcement shall satisfy the following requirements:

- Circumferentials shall extend past the point where they are no longer required by the orientation angle plus the greater of 12 wire or bar diameters or three-quarters of the wall thickness of the pipe,
- Circumferentials shall extend on either side of the point of maximum flexural stress not less than the orientation angle plus the development length, ℓ_{hd} , as required by Article 5.16.2.5.1 and modified by the applicable modification factor or factors, and
- Circumferentials shall extend at least a distance determined by the orientation angle past the point where the continuing reinforcement is no less than double the area required for flexure.

10.11.5. Construction and Installation

The contract documents shall require that the construction and installation conform to Section 26, "Concrete Culverts," MA-100-C-V1/1.

10.12. REINFORCED CONCRETE CAST-IN-PLACE AND PRECAST BOX CULVERTS AND REINFORCED CAST-IN-PLACE ARCHES

10.12.1. General

The provisions herein shall apply to the structural design of cast-in-place and precast reinforced concrete box culverts and cast-in-place reinforced concrete arches with the arch barrel monolithic with each footing.

- C These structures become part of a composite system comprised of the box or arch culvert structure and the soil envelope.
- C Precast reinforced concrete box culverts may be manufactured using conventional structural concrete and forms, or they may be machine made with dry concrete and vibrating form pipe making methods.
- C Standard dimensions for precast reinforced concrete box culverts are shown in AASHTO M 259M (ASTM C 789M) and M 273M (ASTM C 850M).

10.12.2. Loads and Live Load Distribution

10.12.2.1. General

Loads and load combinations specified in Table 3.1 shall apply.

Live load shall be considered as specified in Article 3.6.1.3.

Distribution of wheel loads and concentrated loads for culverts with less than 600 mm of fill shall be taken as specified in Article 4.6.2.10.

For traffic traveling parallel to the span, box culverts shall be designed for a single loaded lane with the single lane multiple presence factors applied to the load.

Requirements for bottom distribution reinforcement in top slabs of such culverts shall be as specified in Article 7.7.3.2 for reinforcing bars and Article 5.18.1 for prestressed reinforcement.

- C Research into live load distribution on box culverts (McGrath et al., 2004) has shown that design for a single loaded lane with a multiple presence factor of 1.2 on the live load and using the live load distribution widths in Article 4.6.2.10 will provide adequate design loading for multiple loaded lanes with multiple presence factors of 1.0 or less when the traffic direction is parallel to the span.

Distribution of wheel loads to culverts with 600 mm or more of cover shall be as specified in Article 3.6.1.2.6.

The dynamic load allowance for buried structures shall conform to Article 3.6.2.2.

Edge beams shall be provided as specified in Article 4.6.2.1.4 as follows:

- at ends of culvert runs where wheel loads travel within 600 mm from the end of culvert,
- at expansion joints of cast-in-place culverts where wheel loads travel over or adjacent to the expansion joint.

10.12.2.2. Modification of Earth Loads for Soil-Structure Interaction

1. Embankment and Trench Conditions

In lieu of a more refined analysis, the total unfactored earth load, W_E , acting on the culvert may be taken as:

- For embankment installations:

$$W_E = F_e \gamma_s g B_c H \times 10^{-9} \quad (10.64)$$

in which:

$$F_e = 1 + 0.20 \frac{H}{B_c} \quad (10.65)$$

- For trench installations:

$$W_E = F_t \gamma_s g B_c H \times 10^{-9} \quad (10.66)$$

in which:

$$F_t = \frac{C_d B_d^2}{H B_c} \leq F_e \quad (10.67)$$

where:

- g = acceleration of gravity (m/sec.²)
- W_E = total unfactored earth load (N/mm)
- B_c = outside width of culvert as specified in Figure 10.15 or Figure 10.16, as appropriate (mm)
- H = depth of backfill as specified in Figure 10.15 or Figure 10.16 (mm)
- F_e = soil-structure interaction factor for embankment installation specified herein
- F_t = soil-structure interaction factor for trench installations specified herein
- γ_s = density of backfill (kg/m³)
- B_d = horizontal width of trench as specified in Figure 10.16 (mm)
- C_d = a coefficient specified in Figure 10.17

F_e shall not exceed 1.15 for installations with compacted fill along the sides of the box section, or 1.40 for installations with uncompacted fill along the sides of the box section.

For wide trench installations where the trench width exceeds the horizontal dimension of the culvert across the trench by more than 300 mm, F_t shall not exceed the value specified for an embankment installation.

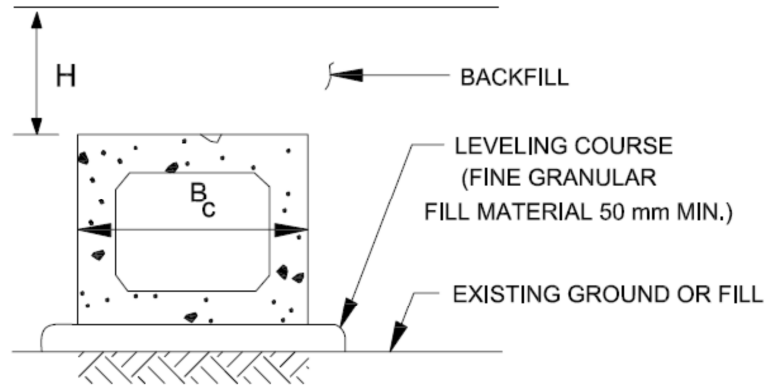


Figure 10.15: Embankment Condition—Precast Concrete Box Sections.

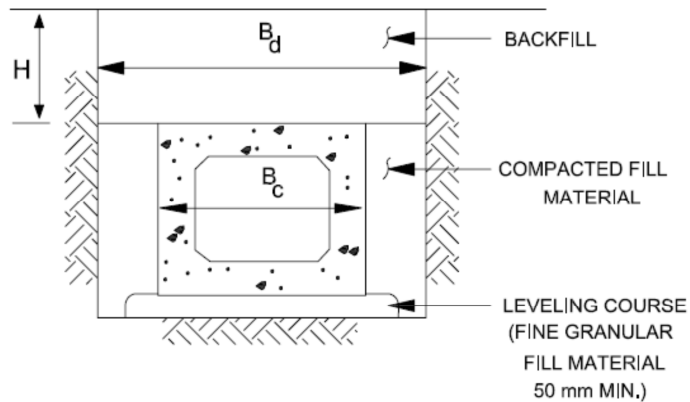


Figure 10.16: Trench Condition—Precast Concrete Box Sections.

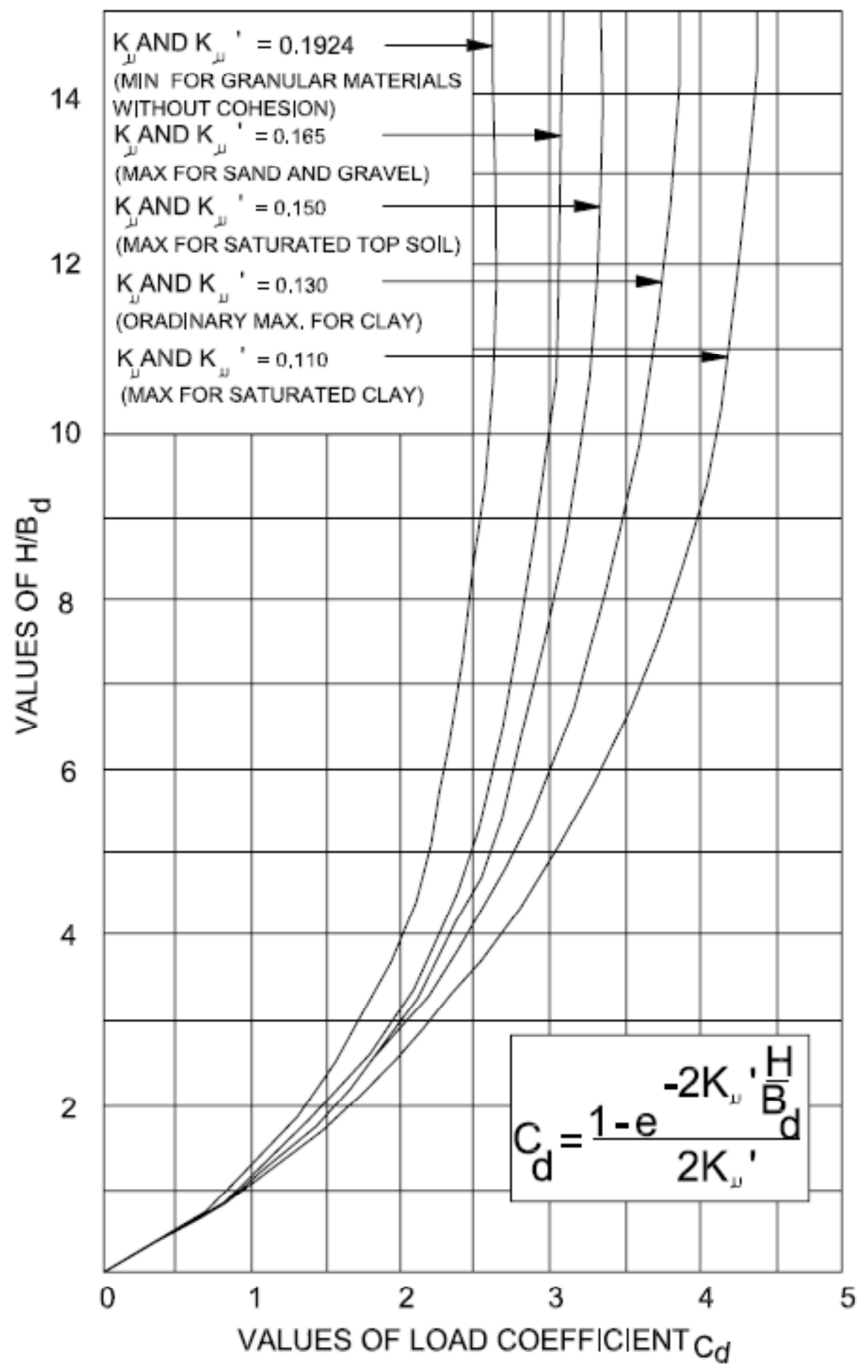


Figure 10.17: Coefficient C_d for Trench Installations.

2. Other Installations

Methods of installation other than embankment or trench may be used to reduce the loads on the culvert, including partial positive projection, 0.0 projection, negative projection, induced trench, and jacked installations. The loads for such installations

may be determined by accepted methods based on tests, soil-structure interaction analyses, or previous experience.

10.12.2.3. Distribution of Concentrated Loads to Bottom Slab of Box Culvert

The width of the top slab strip used for distribution of concentrated wheel loads, specified in Article 10.12.2, shall also be used for the determination of moments, shears, and thrusts in the side walls and the bottom slab.

- C Restricting the live load distribution width for the bottom slab to the same width used for the top slab provides designs suitable for multiple loaded lanes, even though analysis is only completed for a single loaded lane (as discussed in commentary of Article 10.11.2.1).
- C While typical designs assume a uniform pressure distribution across the bottom slab, a refined analysis that considers the actual soil stiffness under box sections will result in pressure distributions that reduce bottom slab shear and moment forces (McGrath et al., 2004).
- C Such an analysis requires knowledge of in-situ soil properties to select the appropriate stiffness for the supporting soil. A refined analysis taking this into account may be beneficial when analyzing existing culverts.

10.12.2.4. Distribution of Concentrated Loads in Skewed Box Culverts

Wheel distribution specified in Article 10.12.2.3 need not be corrected for skew effects.

10.12.3. Service Limit State

The provisions of Article 5.7.3.4 shall apply to crack width control in reinforced concrete cast-in-place and precast box culverts and reinforced cast-in-place arches.

- C Buried box culverts are subject to high compressive thrust forces compared to most flexural members and this thrust can result in a substantial reduction in the stresses at the service limit state that is often ignored in design. The following equations, derived from ACI SP-3 can be used to consider the effect of thrust on stresses at the service limit state:

$$f_s = \frac{M_s + N_s \left(d - \frac{h}{2} \right)}{A_s j d} \quad (10.68)$$

in which:

$$e = \frac{M_s}{N_s} + d - \frac{h}{2}$$

$$i = \frac{1}{1 - (jd/e)}$$

$$j = 0.74 + 0.1(e/d) \leq 0.9$$

where:

M_s = flexural moment at service limit state (N-mm)

N_s = axial thrust at service limit state (N/mm)

d = distance from compression face to centroid of tension reinforcement (mm)

h = wall thickness (mm)

A_s = area of reinforcement per unit length (mm²/mm)

f_s = reinforcement stress under service load condition (MPa)
 e/d min = 1.15 (dim.)

10.12.4. Safety against Structural Failure

10.12.4.1. General

All sections shall be designed for the applicable factored loads specified in [Table 3.1](#) at the strength limit state, except as modified herein. Shear in culverts shall be investigated in conformance with Article [5.18.5.3](#).

10.12.4.2. Design Moment for Box Culverts

Where monolithic haunches inclined at 45° are specified, negative reinforcement in walls and slabs may be proportioned based on the flexural moment at the intersection of the haunch and uniform depth member. Otherwise, the provisions of [Section 5](#) shall apply.

10.12.4.3. Minimum Reinforcement

1. Cast-in-place Structures

Reinforcement shall not be less than that specified in Article [5.7.3.3.2](#) at all cross-sections subject to flexural tension, including the inside face of walls.

Shrinkage and temperature reinforcement shall be provided near the inside surfaces of walls and slabs in accordance with Article [5.10.6](#).

2. Precast Box Structures

At all cross-sections subjected to flexural tension, the ratio of primary flexural reinforcement in the direction of the span to gross concrete area shall be not less than 0.002. Such minimum reinforcement shall be provided at the inside faces of walls and in each direction at the top of slabs of box sections having less than 600 mm of cover.

The provisions of Article [5.10.6](#) shall not apply to precast concrete box sections fabricated in lengths not exceeding 5000 mm. Where the fabricated length exceeds 5000 mm, the minimum longitudinal reinforcement for shrinkage and temperature should be in conformance with Article [5.10.6](#).

10.12.4.4. Minimum Cover for Precast Box Structures

The provisions of Article [5.10.1](#) shall apply unless modified herein for precast box structures.

If the height of the fill is <600 mm, the minimum cover in the top slab shall be 50 mm for all types of reinforcement.

Where welded wire fabric is used, the minimum cover shall be the greater of three times the diameter of the wire or 25 mm.

10.12.5. Construction and Installation

The contract documents shall require that construction and installation conform to Section 26, "Concrete Culverts," MA-100-C-V1/1.

10.13. THERMOPLASTIC PIPES

10.13.1. General

The provisions herein shall apply to the structural design of buried thermoplastic pipe with solid, corrugated, or profile wall, manufactured of PE or PVC.

- C These structures become part of a composite system comprised of the plastic pipe and the soil envelope.
- C The following specifications are applicable:

For PE:

Solid Wall-**ASTM F 714**: Polyethylene, PE, Plastic Pipe, SDR-PR, based on outside diameter,
 Corrugated-**AASHTO M 294**: Corrugated Polyethylene Pipe, Profile-ASTM F 894: Polyethylene, PE,
 Large-Diameter Profile Wall Sewer and Drain Pipe.

For PVC:

Solid Wall-**AASHTO M 278**: Class PS 46 Polyvinyl Chloride, PVC, Pipe; and ASTM F 679: Polyvinyl Chloride, PVC, Large-Diameter Plastic Gravity Sewer Pipe and Fittings,
 Profile-**AASHTO M 304**: Polyvinyl Chloride, PVC, Profile Wall Drain Pipe and Fittings Based on Controlled Inside Diameter.

10.13.2. Service Limit States

The allowable maximum localized distortion of installed plastic pipe shall be limited based on the service requirements and overall stability of the installation.

The extreme fiber tensile strain shall not exceed the allowable long-term strain in [Table 10.23](#).

The net tension strain shall be the numerical difference between the bending tensile strain and ring compression strain.

- C The allowable long-term strains should not be reached in pipes designed and constructed in accordance with this Specification.
- C Deflections resulting from conditions imposed during pipe installation should also be considered in design.

10.13.3. Safety against Structural Failure

10.13.3.1. General

Buried plastic pipe structures shall be investigated at the strength limit states for thrust, buckling, and combined strain.

- C Total compressive strain in an element can result in local buckling and total tensile strain can result in cracking.

10.13.3.2. Section Properties

Section properties for PE Corrugated Pipes, PE Ribbed Pipes and PVC Ribbed Pipes may be taken as listed in [Appendix A](#), [Table A10.11](#) through [Table A10.13](#), as appropriate.

10.13.3.3. Chemical and Mechanical Requirements

- C The PE and PVC materials described herein have stress/strain relationships that are nonlinear and time-dependent.

Mechanical properties for design shall be as specified in [Table 10.23](#).

Except for buckling, the choice of either initial or 50-year mechanical property requirements, as appropriate for a specific application, shall be determined by the Engineer. Investigation of buckling shall be based on the 50-year value for modulus of elasticity.

The cell class for **AASHTO M 294** corrugated PE Pipe specified in [Table 10.23](#) shall be taken as **435400C**.

- C The 50-year design tensile strength requirements are derived from hydrostatic design models and indicate a minimum 50-year life expectancy under continuous application of that stress. The 50-year moduli of elasticity do not indicate a softening of the pipe material but the time-dependent relation between stress and strain.
- C For each short-term increment of deflection, whenever it occurs, the response will reflect the initial modulus. Both short- and long-term properties are shown. Except for buckling, the Engineer should determine which is appropriate for the specific application. "Initial" and "long-term" relate to conditions of loading, not age of the installation. Response to live loads will reflect the initial modulus, regardless of the age of the installation.

Table 10.23 Mechanical Properties of Thermoplastic Pipes.

Type of Pipe	Minimum Cell Class	Allowable Long-term Strain %	Initial		50-Year	
			Fu min (MPa)	E min (MPa)	Fu min (MPa)	E min (MPa)
Solid Wall PE Pipe— ASTM F 714	ASTM D 3350, 335434C	5.0	20.7	758	9.93	152
Corrugated PE Pipe— AASHTO M 294	ASTM D 3350, 435400C	5.0	20.7	758	6.21	152
Profile PE Pipe— ASTM F 894	ASTM D 3350, 334433C	5.0	20.7	552	7.72	138
	ASTM D 3350, 335434C	5.0	20.7	758	9.93	152
Solid Wall PVC Pipe— AASHTO M 278, ASTM F 679	ASTM D 1784, 12454C	5.0	48.3	2760	25.5	965
	ASTM D 1784, 12364C	3.5	41.4	3030	17.9	1090
Profile PVC Pipe— AASHTO M 304	ASTM D 1784, 12454C	5.0	48.3	2760	25.5	965
	ASTM D 1784, 12364C	3.5	41.4	3030	17.9	1090

10.13.3.4. Thrust

The factored thrust per unit length of wall of buried plastic pipe structures shall be taken as:

$$T_L = P_F \left(\frac{D_o}{2} \right) \quad (10.69)$$

where:

T_L = factored thrust per unit length (N/mm)

D_o = outside diameter of pipe (mm)

P_F = factored vertical crown pressure (MPa)

For which, the factored vertical crown pressure, P_F , shall be taken as:

$$P_F = \eta_{EV} \left(\gamma_{EV} VAF P_{sp} + 1.3 \gamma_{WA} P_w \right) + \eta_{LL} C_L P_L \quad (10.70)$$

in which:

$$VAF = 0.76 - 0.71 \left(\frac{S_H - 1.17}{S_H + 2.92} \right) \quad (10.71)$$

$$S_H = \frac{\phi_s M_s R}{EA} \quad (10.72)$$

$$P_w = g \gamma_w H_s \times 10^{-9} \quad (10.73)$$

where:

P_F = factored vertical crown pressure (MPa)

η_{EV} = load modifier, specified in Article 1.3.2, as they apply to vertical earth loads on culverts

γ_{EV} = load factor for vertical pressure from dead load of earth fill, as specified in Article 3.4.1.

γ_{WA} = load factor for hydrostatic pressure, as specified in Article 3.4.1.

VAF = vertical arching factor

P_{sp} = geostatic earth pressure (EV) as specified in Section 3. Does not include hydrostatic pressure (MPa)

P_w = hydrostatic water pressure (MPa)

H_s = depth of water table above springline of pipe (mm)

γ_w = density of water (kg/m^3)

η_{LL} = load modifier, as specified in Article 1.3.2, as they apply to live loads on culverts

γ_{LL} = load factor for live load, as specified in Article 3.4.1.

P_L = pressure due to live load (LL) and dynamic load allowance (IM) impact loads (MPa)

C_L = live load distribution coefficient $L_W / D_o < 1$

L_W = horizontal live load distribution width in the circumferential direction, at the elevation of the crown (mm)

- S_H = hoop stiffness factor. If evaluating the short-term loading conditions, then use the initial modulus of elasticity to compute S_H . Similarly, if evaluating the long-term loading conditions, then use the 50-year modulus of elasticity to compute S_H .
- ϕ_s = resistance factor for soil stiffness, $\phi_s = 0.9$
- M_s = constrained soil modulus specified in [Table 10.24](#) (MPa)
- R = radius to centroid of culvert wall (mm)
- E = initial modulus of elasticity (when checking short-term thrust demands)
or long-term modulus of elasticity (when checking long-term thrust demands) as specified in [Table 10.23](#) (MPa)
- g = acceleration due to gravity (m/sec.²)
- A = wall area (mm²/mm)

- C In Eq. [\(10.70\)](#), a factor of 1.3 is applied to water load to account for uncertainty of the level of the groundwater. The Engineer may vary this factor based on knowledge of actual site conditions.
- C For η factors, refer to Article [10.5.4](#) regarding assumptions about redundancy for earth loads and live loads.
- C [Figure 3.23](#) shows the effect of groundwater on the earth pressure. P_{sp} does not include the hydrostatic pressure. P_{sp} is the pressure due to the soil above and below the water table directly above the pipe. See [Table 3.4](#) for common unit weights.
- C The use of the vertical arching factor is based on the behavior demonstrated by [Burns and Richard \(1964\)](#), that pipe with high hoop stiffness ratios (ratio of soil stiffness to pipe hoop stiffness) carry substantially less load than the weight of the prism of soil directly over the pipe. This behavior was demonstrated experimentally by [Hashash and Selig \(1990\)](#) and analytically by [Moore \(1995\)](#). [McGrath \(1999\)](#) developed the simplified form of the equation presented in Eq. [\(10.71\)](#).
- C If evaluating the short-term loading conditions, then use the initial modulus of elasticity to compute S_H . Similarly, if evaluating the long-term loading conditions, then use the 50-year modulus of elasticity to compute S_H .
- C The initial modulus should be used when checking short-term thrust demands. The long-term modulus should be used when checking long-term thrust demands.

In the absence of site-specific data, the secant constrained soil modulus, M_s , may be selected from [Table 10.24](#) based on the backfill type and density, and the geostatic earth pressure, P_{sp} . Linear interpolation between soil stress levels may be used for the determination of M_s .

- C The secant constrained modulus may also be determined experimentally using the stress-strain curve resulting from a uniaxial strain test on a sample of soil compacted to the field specified density. The constrained modulus is the slope of the secant from the origin of the curve to a point on the curve corresponding to the geostatic earth pressure, P_{sp} .

For culverts under depths of fill up to 3050 mm, the soil type and density selected from [Table 10.24](#) should be representative of the conditions for a width of one-half diameter each side of the culvert, but never less than 450 mm each side of the culvert.

For culverts under depths of fill greater than 3050 mm, the soil type and density selected from [Table 10.24](#) should be representative of the conditions for a width of one diameter each side of the culvert.

- C If the structural backfill does not extend for one diameter on each side of culverts under 3050 mm or more of fill, or one-half diameter, but not less than 450 mm each side of culverts under depths of fill up to 3050 mm, then the value of M_s used may be a composite value representative of the structural backfill and the material at the sides of the structural backfill (see [AWWA, 1996](#)).

Table 10.24: M_s Based on Soil Type and Compaction Condition.

P_{sp} Stress level (MPa)	Sn-100 (MPa)	Sn-95 (MPa)	Sn-90 (MPa)	Sn-85 (MPa)
0.007	16.201	13.789	8.790	3.240
0.036	23.786	17.925	10.342	3.585
0.072	28.957	20.683	11.203	3.930
0.144	37.919	23.786	12.410	4.481
0.287	51.708	29.301	14.478	5.688
0.431	64.118	34.472	17.236	6.894
P_{sp} Stress level (MPa)		Si-95 (MPa)	Si-90 (MPa)	Si-85 (MPa)
0.007		9.756	4.169	2.482
0.036		11.514	5.102	2.689
0.072		12.203	5.171	2.756
0.144		12.962	5.447	2.965
0.287		14.409	6.205	3.516
0.431				
P_{sp} Stress level (MPa)		Cl-95 (MPa)	Cl-90 (MPa)	Cl-85 (MPa)
0.007		3.654	1.758	0.896
0.036		4.309	2.206	1.207
0.072		4.757	2.448	1.379
0.144		5.102	2.723	1.586
0.287		5.619	3.171	1.965
0.431		6.171	3.620	2.379

1. The soil types are defined by a two-letter designation that indicates general soil classification, Sn for sands and gravels, Si for silts and Cl for clays. Specific soil groups that fall into these categories, based on [ASTM D 2487](#) and [AASHTO M 145](#), are listed in [Table 10.25](#).
2. The numerical suffix to the soil type indicates the compaction level of the soil as a percentage of maximum dry density determined in accordance with [AASHTO T 99](#).

Table 10.25: Equivalent ASTM and AASHTO Soil Classifications.

Basic Soil Type (1)	ASTM D 2487	AASHTO M 145
Sn (Gravelly sand, SW)	SW, SP(2) GW, GP sands and gravels with 12% or less fines	A1, A3 (2)
Si (Sandy silt, ML)	GM, SM, ML also GC and SC with less than 20% passing a 0.075-mm sieve	A-2-4, A-2-5, A4
Cl (Silty clay, CL)	CL, MH, GC, SC also GC and SC with more than 20% passing a 0.075-mm sieve	A-2-6, A-2-7, A5, A6

1. The soil classification listed in parentheses is the type that was tested to develop the constrained soil modulus values in [Table 10.24](#). The correlations to other soil types are approximate.
 2. Uniformly graded materials with an average particle size smaller than a 0.425-mm sieve shall not be used as backfill for thermoplastic culverts unless specifically allowed in the contract documents and special precautions are taken to control moisture content and monitor compaction levels.
- C If the structural backfill material is compacted or uncompacted crushed stone then M_s values for Sn-100 and Sn-85, respectively, may be used.

10.13.3.5. Wall Resistance

1. General

The factored tensile resistance of the wall to thrust, R_r , shall be taken as:

$$R_r = \phi A F_u \quad (10.74)$$

where:

- R_r = factored tensile resistance to thrust (N/mm)
- ϕ = resistance factor specified in Article 10.5.5
- A = wall area (mm²/mm)
- F_u = tensile strength as specified in Table 10.23 (MPa)

The factored compressive resistance of the wall to thrust, R_r , shall be taken as:

$$R_r = \phi A_{eff} F_u \quad (10.75)$$

where:

- R_r = factored compressive resistance to thrust (N/mm)
- A_{eff} = effective wall area (mm²/mm)

The limits on combined strain specified in Article 10.13.3.5.4 shall also apply.

If the evaluation for local buckling capacity in Article 10.13.3.5.3 results in a reduced total effective area, then the reduced effective area shall be used in evaluating the factored resistance.

- C The local buckling evaluation reduces the capacity of pipe wall sections with high ratios of width to thickness.

2. Buckling

The pipe wall shall be investigated for buckling. If $f_{cr} < F_u$, the value of R_r shall be recalculated using f_{cr} in lieu of F_u .

$$f_{cr} = 9.24 \frac{R}{A_{eff}} \sqrt{B' R_w \phi_s M_s \left(\frac{EI}{0.149 R^3} \right)} \quad (10.76)$$

in which:

$$B' = \frac{1}{1 + 4e^{-0.00021h}} \quad (10.77)$$

$$R_w = 1 - 0.33 \frac{h_w}{h} \quad (10.78)$$

where:

- f_{cr} = critical buckling stress (MPa)
- R = radius to centroid of culvert wall (mm)
- A_{eff} = effective wall area (mm²/mm)
- B' = nonuniform stress distribution factor

- h = height of ground surface above pipe (mm)
 R_w = water buoyancy factor
 h_w = height of water surface above pipe (mm)
 ϕ_s = resistance factor for soil stiffness, $\phi_s = 0.9$
 M_s = constrained soil modulus, [Table 10.24](#) (MPa)
 E = long-term modulus of elasticity as specified in [Table 10.23](#) (MPa)
 I = moment of inertia (mm^4/mm)

3. Resistance to Local Buckling of Pipe Wall

a. General

Elements of profile wall pipe shall be designed to resist local buckling in accordance with the following provisions.

b. Idealized Wall Profile

For the determination of buckling resistance, profile wall pipe shall be idealized as straight elements. Each element shall be assigned a width based on the clear distance between the adjoining elements and a thickness based on the thickness at the center of the element. See [Figure 10.18](#) for the idealization of a typical corrugated profile.

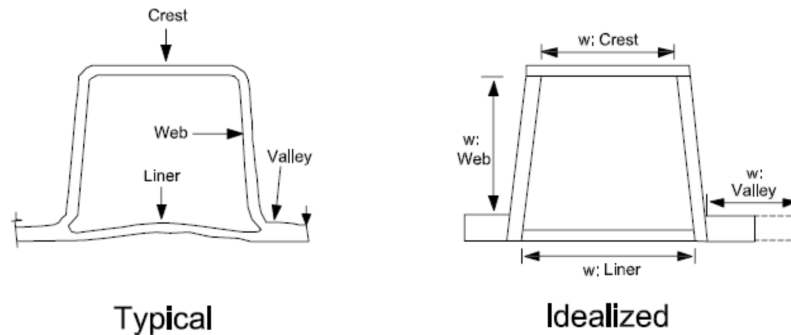


Figure 10.18: Typical and Idealized Cross-Section of Profile Wall Pipe.

c. Slenderness and Effective Width

- C The resistance to local buckling is based on the effective width concept used by the cold formed steel industry ([AISI, 1997](#)). This theory assumes that even though buckling is initiated in the center of a plate element, the element still has substantial post-buckling strength at the edges where the element is supported. This concept is demonstrated in [Figure 10.19](#).

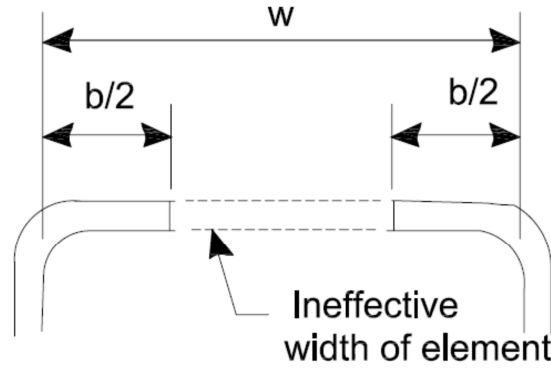


Figure 10.19: Effective Width Concept.

The effective width of each element for buckling shall be determined as:

$$b = \rho w \quad (10.79)$$

in which:

$$\rho = \frac{\left(1 - \frac{0.22}{\lambda}\right)}{\lambda} \leq 1 \quad (10.80)$$

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{w}{t}\right) \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon}{k}} > 0.673 \quad (10.81)$$

in which:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{T_L}{(AE_{50})} \quad (10.82)$$

where:

- A = wall area specified in Article [10.13.3.5.1](#) (mm²/mm)
- b = element effective width (mm)
- ε = strain in element (mm/mm)
- ρ = effective width factor
- w = total clear width of element between supporting elements (mm)
- λ = slenderness factor
- t = thickness of element (mm)
- k = edge support coefficient
- E_{50} = 50-year modulus of elasticity (MPa)
- T_L = factored thrust per unit length (N/mm)

The edge support coefficient, k , may be taken as 4.0 for elements with both edges supported, and 0.43 for free standing elements such as ribs.

The total effective area, A_{eff} , shall be determined as the summation of the effective area for each element of the idealized wall profile taken as:

$$A_{eff} = \frac{A_g - \sum (1 - \rho_i) w_i t_i}{\omega} \quad (10.83)$$

where:

- A_{eff} = effective area of pipe wall, the lesser of the gross area or the reduced area computed based on local buckling (mm²/mm)
- ω = spacing of corrugation (mm)
- A_g = gross wall area within a length of one period (mm²)

4. Combined Strain

a. General

- C The criterion for combined compressive strain is based on limiting local buckling. A higher strain limit is allowed for combined strain because the web elements, which are subjected primarily to bending, are less likely to buckle and increase the stability of elements near the crest and valley.
- C The strain limit for combined compression strain is 50 percent higher than that for hoop compression alone because the web elements, which experience low strains due to bending, are not likely to buckle, thus increasing the stability of elements near the crest and valley. While this behavior would be more accurately modeled as an increase in the k factor of Eq. (10.81), the increase in the limiting strain is considered adequate for this simplified design method.

The total factored compressive strain in a pipe wall due to thrust and bending shall not exceed the limiting combined compressive strain, ϵ_{cu} , determined as:

$$\epsilon_{cu} = \epsilon_{bu} + \frac{T_L}{A_{eff} E_{50}} \times \frac{\gamma_B}{\gamma_p} \leq \frac{1.5 F_u}{E_{50}} \quad (10.84)$$

in which:

$$\epsilon_{bu(max)} = \frac{1.5 F_u}{E_{50}} - \frac{T_L}{A_{eff} E_{50}} \times \frac{\gamma_B}{\gamma_p} \quad (10.85)$$

where:

- F_u = tensile strength specified in Article 10.13.3.5.1
- $\epsilon_{bu(max)}$ = factored limiting combined compressive strain taken as $\gamma_B \epsilon_c$ (mm/mm)
- γ_B = 1.5, modified load factor applied to combined strain
- γ_p = maximum load factor for permanent load resulting from Vertical Earth Pressure (EV) for the case of flexible buried structures other than metal box culverts, specified in Table 3.2

Total factored tension strain in the pipe wall due to thrust and bending shall not exceed the limiting combined tension strain, ϵ_{tu} , determined as:

$$\epsilon_{tu} = \epsilon_{bu} - \frac{T_L}{A_{eff} E_{50}} \times \frac{\gamma_B}{\gamma_p} \leq \epsilon_{tu} \quad (10.86)$$

where:

- ε_b = unfactored bending strain (mm/mm)
 ε_{bu} = factored bending strain = $\gamma_B \varepsilon_b$ (mm/mm)
 ε_{lt} = factored long-term tension strain = $\gamma_B \varepsilon_t$ (mm/mm)
 ε_t = allowable tension strain per [Table 10.23](#) (mm/mm)

- C For thrust capacity, the section is limited by consideration of hoop compression capacity alone. The check of combined compression strain, hoop plus bending, is used to limit the allowable pipe deflection.
- C Elements subjected primarily to bending (such as a web element in [Figure 10.18](#) when the pipe is deflected) are not highly stressed near the centroid, where buckling initiates, and theoretical k factors for plates in bending are greater than 20. To simplify the analysis for combined bending and thrust, elements, such as the web whose centroid is within $c/3$ of the centroid of the entire profile wall, may be analyzed only for the effect of hoop compression strains. That is, increases in strain due to bending may be ignored.

b. Bending Strain

In the absence of a more detailed analysis, the bending strain may be computed based on an empirical relationship between strain and deflection taken as:

$$\varepsilon_{bu} = \gamma_B D_f \left(\frac{c}{R} \right) \left(\frac{\Delta}{D} \right) \quad (10.87)$$

in which:

$$\Delta = \frac{5D}{100} - \frac{T_L D}{A_{eff} E_{50} \gamma_p} \quad (10.88)$$

where:

- ε_{bu} = factored bending strain (mm/mm)
 D_f = shape factor specified in [Table 10.26](#)
 R = radius to centroid of pipe wall profile (mm)
 c = distance from neutral axis to extreme fiber (mm)
 Δ = deflection of pipe, reduction of vertical diameter due to bending (mm)
 D = diameter to centroid of pipe wall (mm)

Table 10.26: Shape Factors, D_f , based on Pipe Stiffness, Backfill and Compaction Level.

Pipe Stiffness (F/Δ_y , MPa) = $EI / 0.149 R^3$	Pipe Zone Embedment Material and Compaction Level			
	Gravel (1)		Sand (2)	
	Dumped to Slight (3)	Moderate to High (4)	Dumped to Slight (3)	Moderate to High (4)
0.062	5.5	7.0	6.0	8.0
0.124	4.5	5.5	5.0	6.5
0.248	3.8	4.5	4.0	5.5
0.496	3.3	3.8	3.5	4.5

1. GW, GP, GW-GC, GW-GM, GP-GC and GP-GM per [ASTM D 2487](#) (includes crushed rock)
2. SW, SP, SM, SC, GM and GC or mixtures per [ASTM D 2487](#)

3. <85% of maximum dry density per [AASHTO T 99](#), <40% relative density ([ASTM D 4253](#) and [D 4254](#))
 4. ≤85% of maximum dry density per [AASHTO T 99](#), ≥40% relative density ([ASTM D 4253](#) and [D 4254](#))
- C The empirical shape factor is used in the design of fiberglass pipe and is presented in AWWA [Manual of Practice M45 Fiberglass Pipe Design \(1996\)](#). It demonstrates that bending strains are highest in low stiffness pipe backfilled in soils that require substantial compactive effort (silts and clays), and is lowest in high stiffness pipe backfilled in soils that require little compactive effort (sands and gravels).
 - C [Table 10.26](#) does not cover all possible backfills and density levels. Designers should interpolate or extrapolate the Table as necessary for specific projects.
 - C More detailed analyses must consider the likelihood of inconsistent soil support to the pipe in the haunch zone, and of local deformations during placement and compaction of backfill.
 - C Bending strains typically cannot be accurately predicted during design due to variations in backfill materials and compactive effort used during installation. Installation deflection limits are specified in the construction specifications to assure that design parameters are not exceeded.
 - C The deflection design limit is five percent reduction of the vertical diameter as specified in the construction specification. The pipe must be designed to permit this deflection, unless extraordinary measures are specified in contract documents to minimize compactive effort and to control deflections.

10.13.3.6. Handling and Installation Requirements

The flexibility factor, FF , in mm/N shall be taken as:

$$FF = \frac{S^2}{EI} \quad (10.89)$$

where:

- I = moment of inertia (mm⁴/mm)
- E = initial modulus of elasticity (MPa)
- S = diameter of pipe (mm)

The flexibility factor, FF , shall be limited as specified in Article [10.5.6.3](#).

10.14. STEEL TUNNEL LINER PLATE

10.14.1. General

The provisions of this Article shall apply to the structural design of steel tunnel liner plates.

Construction of steel tunnel liner shall conform to Section 24, “Steel and Concrete Tunnel Liners,” MA-100-C-V1/1.

Design and construction of tunnels in all its types shall conform to [Section 13](#).

The tunnel liner plate may be two-flange, fully corrugated with lapped longitudinal seams or fourflange, partially corrugated with flanged longitudinal seams. Both types shall be bolted together to form annular rings.

10.14.2. Loading

The provisions for earth loads given in Article [3.10.5](#) shall not apply to tunnels.

- C The earth load to be carried by the tunnel liner is a function of the type of soil. In granular soil with little or no cohesion, the load is a function of the angle of internal friction of the soil and the diameter

of the tunnel. In cohesive soils such as clays, the load to be carried by the tunnel liner is dependent on the shearing strength of the soil above the roof of the tunnel.

10.14.2.1. Earth Loads

The provisions of Article 10.4.1 shall apply. When more refined methods of soil analysis are not employed, the earth pressure may be taken as:

$$W_E = C_{dt} g \gamma_s S \times 10^{-9} \quad (10.90)$$

where:

- g = acceleration of gravity (m/sec.²)
- C_{dt} = load coefficient for tunnel installation specified in Figure 10.20
- γ_s = total density of soil (kg/m³)
- W_E = earth pressure at the crown (MPa)
- S = tunnel diameter or span (mm)

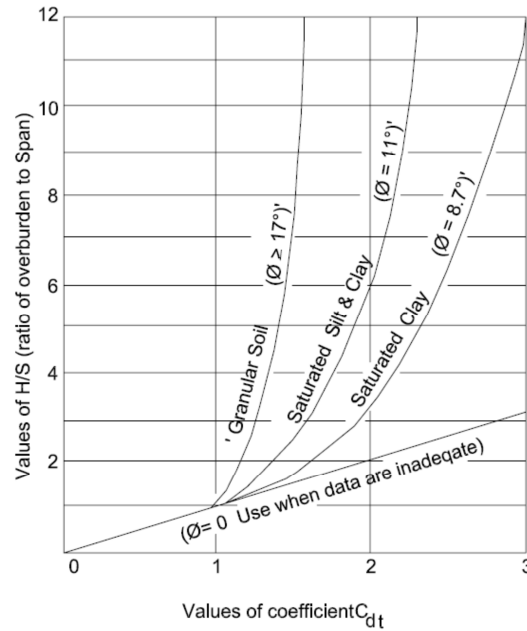


Figure 10.20: Diagram for Coefficient C_{dt} for Tunnel in Soil.

in which:

H = height of soil over top of tunnel (mm)

- C Eq. (10.90) is a form of the Marston formula. It proportions the amount of total overburden pressure acting on the tunnel based on the internal friction angle of the soil to be tunneled.
- C In the absence of adequate borings and soil tests, use $\phi_f = 0$ when calculating W_E .

10.14.2.2. Live Loads

The provisions of Article 10.6.1 shall apply.

10.14.2.3. Grouting Pressure

If the grouting pressure is greater than the computed design load, the design load, W_T , on the tunnel liner shall be the grouting pressure.

10.14.3. Safety against Structural Failure

10.14.3.1. Section Properties

Steel tunnel liner plate shall meet the minimum requirements of [Table 10.27](#) for cross-sectional properties, [Table 10.28](#) for seam strength, and [Table 10.29](#) for mechanical properties.

10.14.3.2. Wall Area

The requirements of Articles [10.8.2.2](#) and [10.8.2.3](#) shall apply using effective area from [Table 10.27](#).

10.14.3.3. Buckling

The requirements of [10.8.2.4](#) shall apply, except that the soil stiffness factor, k , may vary from 0.22 to 0.44 depending upon the quality and extent of the backpacking material used.

- C Wall buckling is a function of the stiffness, k , of the surrounding soil bearing on the plates. Where Portland cement grouting or quality backpacking (meeting the requirements of Section 24, "Steel and Concrete Tunnel Liners," MA-100-C-V1/1) material fill the void outside the plates, $k = 0.22$ is applicable. For other soils or in-situ backpacking material, $k = 0.44$ is suggested. Where tunneled soils slough or voids are left in the backpacking, additional consideration as to the value of k may be required.

10.14.3.4. Seam Strength

The requirements of Article [10.8.2.5](#) shall apply.

10.14.3.5. Construction Stiffness

Construction stiffness shall be indicated by a construction stiffness factor as:

$$C_s = \frac{EI}{S^2} \quad (10.91)$$

where:

- S = diameter or span (mm)
- E = modulus of elasticity (MPa)
- I = moment of inertia (mm^4/mm)

The value of C_s from Eq. [\(10.91\)](#) shall not be less than the values for steel tunnel liner plate as given in Article [10.5.6.4](#).

- C The liner plate ring should have sufficient rigidity to resist the unbalanced loads of normal construction from grouting, local slough-ins, and miscellaneous concentrated loads.
- C The minimum construction stiffness required for these loads, C_s , can be expressed for convenience by the formula below. It must be recognized, however, that the limiting values given here are only recommended minimums. Actual job conditions may require greater effective stiffness. Final determination of this factor should be based on intimate knowledge of the project and on practical experience.
- C The construction stiffness, C_s , given by Eq. [\(10.91\)](#), considers the moment of inertia of an individual plate.

Table 10.27: Cross-Sectional Properties—Steel Tunnel Liner Plate.

2-Flange Tunnel Liner Plates				
Thickness (mm)	Effective Area (mm ² /mm)	Moment of Inertia (mm ⁴ /mm)	Radius of Gyration (mm)	
1.91	2.44	557	15.12	
2.67	3.43	808	15.29	
3.43	4.42	1048	15.39	
4.17	5.42	1296	15.47	
4.55	5.92	1428	15.52	
5.31	6.91	1692	15.63	
6.08	7.92	1932	15.63	
4-Flange Tunnel Liner Plates				
Thickness (mm)	Area (mm ² /mm)	Effective Area (mm ² /mm)	Moment of Inertia (mm ⁴ /mm)	Radius of Gyration (mm)
2.67	3.38	1.70	689	14.3
3.04	3.86	1.93	803	14.4
3.43	4.32	2.16	901	14.4
4.17	5.31	2.67	1150	14.7
4.55	5.77	2.90	1230	14.1
5.31	6.71	3.35	1430	14.6
6.07	7.62	3.81	1970	16.1
6.35	7.85	3.94	1660	14.5
7.94	9.80	4.90	2020	14.3
9.53	11.68	5.84	2340	14.2

Table 10.28: Minimum Longitudinal Seam Strength with Bolt and Nut Requirements for Steel Tunnel Plate Liner.

Plate Thickness (mm)	2-Flange Plate			4-Flange Plate		
	Longitudinal Seam Bolts		Ultimate Seam Strength (N/mm)	Longitudinal Seam Bolts		Ultimate Seam Strength (N/mm)
	Diameter (mm)	Material ASTM		Diameter (mm)	Material ASTM	
1.91	16	A 307	292	—	—	—
2.67	16	A 307	438	13	A 307	380
3.43	16	A 307	686	13	A 307	628
4.17	16	A 307	803	13	A 307	730
4.55	16	A 307	905	16	A 307	788
5.31	16	A 449	1270	16	A 307	978
6.07	16	A 449	1343	16	A 307	1183
7.95	16	—	—	16	A 307	1679
9.53	16	—	—	16	A 307	1737

All nuts shall conform to **ASTM A 307, Grade A** or better. Circumferential seam bolts shall conform to **ASTM A 307** or better for all plate thicknesses.

Table 10.29: Mechanical Properties—Steel Tunnel Liner Plate (Plate before Cold Forming).

Minimum Tensile Strength	290 MPa
Minimum Yield Strength	193 MPa
Elongation, 50 mm	30%
Modulus of Elasticity	200 000 MPa

10.15. PRECAST REINFORCED CONCRETE THREE-SIDED STRUCTURES

10.15.1. General

The provisions herein shall apply to the design of precast reinforced concrete three-sided structures supported on a concrete footing foundation.

- C Units may be manufactured using conventional structural concrete and forms (formed) or machine made using dry concrete and vibrating forms.

10.15.2. Materials

10.15.2.1. Concrete

Concrete shall conform to Article 5.4.2, except that evaluation of f'_c may also be based on cores.

10.15.2.2. Reinforcement

Reinforcement shall meet the requirements of Article 5.4.3, except that for welded wire fabric a yield strength of 450 MPa may be used. For wire fabric, the spacing of longitudinal wires shall be a maximum of 200 mm.

Circumferential welded wire fabric spacing shall not be greater than 100 mm or less than 50 mm. Prestressing, if used, shall be in accordance with Article 5.9.

10.15.3. Concrete Cover for Reinforcement

The minimum concrete cover for reinforcement in precast three-sided structures reinforced with welded wire fabric shall be taken as three times the wire diameter, but not less than 25 mm, except for the reinforcement in the top of the top slab of structures covered by less than 600 mm of fill, in which case the minimum cover shall be taken as 50 mm.

10.15.4. Geometric Properties

Except as noted herein, the shape of the precast three-sided structures may vary in span, rise, wall thickness, haunch dimensions, and curvature. Specific geometric properties shall be specified by the manufacturer. Wall thicknesses shall be a minimum of 200 mm for spans under 7300 mm and 250 mm for 7300 mm and larger spans.

10.15.5. Design

10.15.5.1. General

Designs shall conform to applicable sections of these Specifications, except as provided otherwise herein. Analysis shall be based on a pinned connection at the footing and shall take into account anticipated footing movement.

10.15.5.2. Distribution of Concentrated Load

Effects in Top Slab and Sides Distribution of wheel loads and concentrated loads for the top slab and sides of three-sided structures with less than 600 mm of fill shall be taken as specified in Article [10.12.2.1](#).

Distribution of wheel loads and concentrated loads for the top slab and sides for three-sided structures with depths of fill 600 mm or greater shall be taken as specified in Article [3.6.1.2.6](#).

10.15.5.3. Distribution of Concentrated Loads in Skewed Culverts

Wheel loads on skewed culverts shall be distributed using the same provisions as given for culverts with main reinforcement parallel to traffic. For culvert elements with skews greater than 15°, the effect of the skew shall be considered in analysis.

10.15.5.4. Shear Transfer in Transverse Joints between Culvert Sections

Shear keys shall be provided in the top surface of the structures between precast units having flat tops under shallow cover.

- C Flat top structures with shallow cover may experience differential deflection of adjacent units, which can cause pavement cracking if a shear key is not utilized.

10.15.5.5. Span Length

When monolithic haunches inclined at 45° are taken into account, negative reinforcement in walls and slabs may be proportioned on the basis of bending moment at the intersection of the haunch and uniform depth member.

10.15.5.6. Resistance Factors

The provisions of Article [5.5.4.2](#) and [1.3.1](#) shall apply as appropriate.

10.15.5.7. Crack Control

The provisions of Article [5.7.4.3](#) for buried structures shall apply.

10.15.5.8. Minimum Reinforcement

The provisions of Article [5.10.6](#) shall not be taken to apply to precast three-sided structures.

The primary flexural reinforcement in the direction of the span shall provide a ratio of reinforcement area to gross concrete area at least equal to 0.002. Such minimum reinforcement shall be provided at all cross-sections subject to flexural tension, at the inside face of walls, and in each direction at the top of slabs of three-sided sections with less than 600 mm of fill.

10.15.5.9. Deflection Control at the Service Limit State

The deflection limits for concrete structures specified in Article [2.6.2.6.2](#) shall be taken as mandatory and pedestrian usage as limited to urban areas.

10.15.5.10. Footing Design

Design shall include consideration of differential horizontal and vertical movements and footing rotations. Footing design shall conform to the applicable Articles in [Section 5](#) and [Section 8](#).

10.15.5.11. Structural Backfill

Specification of backfill requirements shall be consistent with the design assumptions used. The contract documents should require that a minimum backfill compaction of 90 percent Standard Proctor Density be achieved to prevent roadway settlement adjacent to the structure. A higher backfill compaction density may be required on structures utilizing a soil-structure interaction system.

10.15.5.12. Scour Protection and Waterway Considerations

The provisions of Article [2.7](#) shall apply as appropriate.

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Transportation Association of Canada's Guide to Bridge Hydraulics or those of the Regulatory Authority.

10.17. APPENDIX A10

Table A10.1: Corrugated Steel Pipe-Cross-Section Properties.

39 × 6.4 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
0.71	0.64	—	—
0.86	0.80	—	—
1.0	0.97	2.07	4.15
1.3	1.29	2.09	5.64
1.6	1.61	2.11	7.19
2.0	2.01	2.15	9.29
2.8	2.82	2.23	14.00
3.5	3.63	2.33	19.80
4.3	4.45	2.46	26.80

68 × 13 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.02	0.98	4.32	18.4
1.32	1.31	4.34	24.6
1.63	1.64	4.35	31.0
2.01	2.05	4.37	39.2
2.77	2.87	4.42	56.1
3.51	3.69	4.49	74.3
4.27	4.52	4.56	93.8

78 × 26 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.63	1.88	8.68	142
2.01	2.33	8.70	178
2.77	3.33	8.76	254
3.51	4.25	8.82	331
4.27	5.17	8.89	411

127 × 26 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.63	1.68	9.29	145
2.01	2.10	9.30	182
2.77	2.94	9.34	256
3.51	3.79	9.38	333
4.27	4.63	9.43	411

Table A10.2: Spiral Rib Steel Pipe-Cross-Section Properties.

19 × 19 × 190 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.63	1.08	6.55	46.2
2.01	1.51	6.35	60.6
2.77	2.51	6.02	90.7
3.51	3.63	5.79	121.8
20 × 26 × 292 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.63	0.79	9.73	75.1
2.01	1.11	9.47	99.6
2.77	1.87	9.02	152

Table A10.3: Steel Structural Plate-Cross-Section Properties.

150 × 50 mm Corrugations			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
2.79	3.294	17.3	990
3.56	4.240	17.4	1280
4.32	5.184	17.4	1580
4.78	5.798	17.5	1770
5.54	6.771	17.5	2080
6.32	7.726	17.6	2400
7.11	8.719	17.7	2720
8.08	9.887	17.7	3115
9.65	11.881	17.9	3800

38 × 6.5 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.22	1.29	2.10	5.64
1.52	1.61	2.11	5.72

68 × 13 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.52	1.64	4.35	31.0
1.91	2.05	4.37	39.2
2.67	2.87	4.42	56.1
3.43	3.69	4.49	74.3
4.17	4.51	4.56	93.8

Table A10.4: Corrugated Aluminum Pipe-Cross-Section Properties (continued).

78 × 26 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.52	1.88	8.68	142
1.91	2.37	8.70	178
2.67	3.30	8.76	253
3.43	4.42	8.82	331
4.17	5.20	8.89	411

155 × 25 mm Corrugation			
Effective Thickness	A	Effective Area	r
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)
1.52	1.64	0.82	9.22
1.91	2.05	1.02	9.22
2.67	2.87	1.44	9.24
3.43	3.69	1.85	9.26
4.17	4.52	2.26	9.29

Table A10.5: Aluminum Spiral Rib Pipe-Cross-Section Properties.

19 × 19 × 190 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.52	0.88	6.91	41.9
1.91	1.20	6.78	55.3
2.67	1.93	6.55	83.1
3.43	2.73	6.40	111.9

20 × 26 × 292 mm Corrugation			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
1.52	0.66	10.06	66.9
1.91	0.90	9.93	89.3
2.67	1.48	9.65	137
3.43	2.14	9.37	188

Note: Effective section properties are taken at full yield stress.

Table A10.6: Corrugated Aluminum Structural Plate or Pipe Arch-Cross-Section Properties.

230 × 64 mm Corrugations			
Thickness	A	r	I
(mm)	(mm ² /mm)	(mm)	(mm ⁴ /mm)
2.54	2.97	21.43	1360
3.18	3.70	21.45	1700
3.81	4.45	21.46	2050
4.45	5.18	21.47	2390
5.08	5.93	21.49	2740
5.72	6.67	21.51	3080
6.35	7.41	21.52	3430

Table A10.7: Minimum Longitudinal Seam Strength Corrugated Aluminum and Steel Pipe-Riveted or Spot Welded.

64 and 67 × 13 mm Corrugated Aluminum Pipe			
	Rivet	Single	Double
Thickness	Size	Rivets	Rivets
(mm)	(mm)	(N/mm)	(N/mm)
1.52	7.94	131	204
1.91	7.94	131	263
2.67	9.53	228	460
3.43	9.53	237	482
4.17	9.53	245	496

76 × 26 mm Corrugated Aluminum Pipe		
	Rivet	Double
Thickness	Size	Rivets
(mm)	(mm)	(N/mm)
1.52	9.53	241
1.91	9.53	299
2.67	12.7	409
3.43	12.7	613
4.17	12.7	796

152 × 26 mm Corrugated Aluminum Pipe		
	Rivet	Double
Thickness	Size	Rivets
(mm)	(mm)	(N/mm)
1.52	12.7	234
1.91	12.7	291
2.67	12.7	407
3.43	12.7	524
4.24	12.7	635

Table A10.8: Minimum Longitudinal Seam Strength Corrugated Aluminum and Steel Pipe-Riveted or Spot Welded (continued).

64 and 67 × 13 mm Corrugated Steel Pipe			
	Rivet	Single	Double
Thickness	Size	Rivets	Rivets
(mm)	(mm)	(N/mm)	(N/mm)
1.63	7.94	244	315
2.01	7.94	266	435
2.77	9.53	342	683
3.51	9.53	358	715
4.27	9.53	374	749

76 × 26 mm Corrugated Steel Pipe		
Thickness	Rivet Size	Double Rivets
(mm)	(mm)	(N/mm)
1.63	9.53	419
2.01	9.53	521
2.77	11.1	774
3.51	11.1	930
4.27	11.1	1030

Table A10.9: Minimum Longitudinal Seam Strengths Steel and Aluminum Structural Plate Pipe-Bolted.

150 × 50 mm Steel Structural Plate Pipe				
Thickness (mm)	Bolt Diameter (mm)	13 Bolts/m (N/mm)	20 Bolts/m (N/mm)	26 Bolts/m (N/mm)
2.77	19.1	628	—	—
3.51	19.1	905	—	—
4.27	19.1	1180	—	—
4.78	19.1	1360	—	—
5.54	19.1	1640	—	—
6.32	19.1	1930	—	—
7.11	19.1	2100	2630	2830
8.08	22.2	—	—	3430
9.65	22.2	—	—	4160

230 × 64 mm Aluminum Structural Plate Pipe			
Thickness (mm)	Bolt Diameter (mm)	Steel Bolts 18 Bolts Per m (N/mm)	Aluminum Bolts 18 Bolts Per m (N/mm)
2.54	20	409	385
3.18	20	599	508
3.81	20	790	648
4.45	20	930	771
5.08	20	1070	771
5.72	20	1220	771
6.35	20	1360	771

Table A10.10: Mechanical Properties for Spiral Rib and Corrugated Metal Pipe and Pipe Arch.

Material	Minimum Tensile Strength, F_u (MPa)	Minimum Yield Stress, F_y (MPa)	Modulus of Elasticity, E_m (MPa)
Aluminum H34 ^{(1)&(4)}	214	165	69 000
Aluminum H32 ^{(2)&(4)}	186	138	69 000
Steel ⁽³⁾	310	228	200 000

(1) Shall meet the requirements of AASHTO M 197 (ASTM B 744M), for Alclad Alloy 3004-H34

(2) Shall meet the requirements of AASHTO M 197 (ASTM B 744M), for Alclad Alloy 3004-H32

(3) Shall meet the requirements of AASHTO M 167M/M 167 (ASTM A 761/ A 761 M), M 218, and M 246 (ASTM A 742)

(4) H34 temper material shall be used with riveted pipe to achieve seam strength. Both H32 and H34 temper material may be used with helical pipe.

Table A10.11: Mechanical Properties-Corrugated Aluminum and Steel Plate.

Material	Minimum Tensile Strength (MPa)	Minimum Yield Stress (MPa)	Modulus of Elasticity (MPa)
Aluminum ⁽¹⁾ Plate Thickness (mm)			
2.54–4.44	241	165	69 000
4.45–6.35	234	165	69 000
Steel ⁽²⁾ Plate Thickness (mm)			
All	310	228	200 000

(1) Shall meet the requirements of AASHTO M 219 (ASTM B 746M), Alloy 5052

(2) Shall meet the requirements of AASHTO M 167M/ M 167 (ASTM A 761/A 761M)

Table A10.12: PE Corrugated Pipes (**AASHTO M 294**).

Nominal Size (mm)	Min. ID (mm)	Max. OD (mm)	Min. A (mm ² /mm)	Min. c (mm)	Min. I (mm ⁴ /mm)
305	300	373	3.17	8.89	393
380	376	457	4.02	11.4	869
455	450	546	4.87	12.7	1020
610	599	729	6.56	16.5	1900
760	749	925	8.25	19.1	2670
915	902	1080	9.52	22.9	3640
1050*	1034	1200	9.93	28.2	8900
1200*	1182	1380	10.90	29.2	8900

* For the 1050-mm and 1200-mm pipe, the wall thickness should be designed using the long-term tensile strength provision, i.e., 6.21 MPa, until new design criteria are established in the AASHTO bridge and structures specifications.

Table A10.13: PE Ribbed Pipes (**ASTM F 894**).

Nominal Size (mm)	Min. <i>ID</i> (mm)	Max. <i>OD</i> (mm)	Min. <i>A</i> (mm ² /mm)	Min. <i>c</i> (mm)	Min. <i>I</i> (mm ⁴ /mm)	
					Cell Class 334433C	Cell Class 335434C
457	452	533	6.26	8.7	852	623
533	528	615	8.78	10.4	1150	836
610	605	691	9.86	10.9	1330	968
686	679	770	12.5	13.2	2050	1490
762	756	851	12.5	13.2	2050	1490
838	832	945	14.8	15.1	2640	2160
914	908	1020	17.1	16.3	3310	2700
1070	1060	1200	16.5	18.1	4540	3720
1220	1210	1350	18.7	20.0	5540	4540

Table A10.14: PVC Profile Wall Pipes (**AASHTO M 304**).

Nominal Size (mm)	Min. <i>ID</i> (mm)	Max. <i>OD</i> (mm)	Min. <i>A</i> (mm ² /mm)	Min. <i>c</i> (mm)	Min. <i>I</i> (mm ⁴ /mm)	
					Cell Class 12454C	Cell Class 12364C
305	297	345	2.54	3.81	66	49
381	363	419	2.75	4.32	98	82
457	445	508	3.39	4.57	147	131
533	523	584	3.81	5.33	197	180
610	594	660	4.13	5.84	262	246
762	747	833	4.87	6.86	393	328
914	897	1000	5.50	7.87	574	508
1070	1050	1170	6.14	8.64	770	705
1220	1200	1320	6.69	9.40	1000	918

SECTION 11. RAILINGS

11.1. SCOPE

This Section applies to railings for new bridges and for rehabilitated bridges to the extent that railing replacement is determined to be appropriate where the expression “railing” is expressed for all bridge traffic barriers systems.

- C The bridge railing performance need not be identical over the whole highway network. New railing designs should match site needs leading to a multiple test level concept, as described in [NCHRP Report 350](#).

This Section provides six bridge railing test levels and their associated crash test requirements. Guidance for determining the level to meet the warrants for the more common types of bridge sites and guidance for structural and geometric design of railings are provided.

- C Previously crash tested railing should retain its test level approval and should not have to be tested to meet [NCHRP Report 350](#) updating.
- C With the finite resources available to bridge owners, it is not reasonable to expect all existing rails to be updated any more than to expect every existing building to be immediately updated with the passing of a new building code. Many existing bridge rails have proven functional and need only be replaced when removed for bridge widenings.

A process for the design of crash test specimens to determine their crashworthiness is described in [Appendix A11](#). This methodology is based on an application of the yield line theory. For use beyond the design of test specimens with expected failure modes similar to those shown in [Figure A11.6](#) and [Figure A11.7](#), a rigorous yield line solution or a finite element solution should be developed. The procedures of [Appendix A11](#) are not applicable to traffic railings mounted on rigid structures, such as retaining walls or spread footings, when the cracking pattern is expected to extend to the supporting components.

11.2. DEFINITIONS

<i>Agency</i>	: A responsible business or service authorized to act on behalf of others, i.e., a governmental department, consulting engineering firm, or owner of the facility or feature.
<i>Barrier Curb (Brit. Kerb)</i>	: A platform or block used to separate a raised pedestrian and/or bicycle sidewalk above the roadway level; see Figure 11.2 .
<i>Bicycle Railing</i>	: A railing or fencing system, as illustrated in Figure 11.4 , that provides a physical guide for bicyclists crossing bridges to minimize the likelihood of a bicyclist falling over the system.
<i>Bridge Approach Railing</i>	: A roadside guardrail system preceding the structure and attached to the bridge rail system that is intended to prevent a vehicle from impacting the end of the bridge railing or parapet.
<i>Combination Railing</i>	: A bicycle or pedestrian railing system, as illustrated in Figure 11.3 and Figure 11.4 , added to a crashworthy bridge vehicular railing or barrier system.

<i>Concrete Barrier</i>	: A railing system of reinforced concrete having a traffic face that usually but not always adopts some form of a safety shape.
<i>Concrete Parapet</i>	: A railing system of reinforced concrete, usually considered an adequately reinforced concrete wall.
<i>Crash Testing of Bridge Railings</i>	: Conducting a series of full-scale impact tests of a bridge railing in accordance with the recommended guidelines in NCHRP Report 350 in order to evaluate the railing's strength and safety performance.
<i>Crashworthy</i>	: A system that has been successfully crash-tested to a currently acceptable crash test matrix and test level or one that can be geometrically and structurally evaluated as equal to a crash-tested system.
<i>Design Force</i>	: An equivalent static force that represents the dynamic force imparted to a railing system by a specified vehicle impacting a railing at a designated speed and angle.
<i>Encroachment</i>	: An intrusion into prescribed, restrictive, or limited areas of a highway system, such as crossing a traffic lane or impacting a barrier system. Also, the occupancy of highway right-of-way by non-highway structures or objects of any kind or character.
<i>End Zone</i>	: The area adjacent to any open joint in a concrete railing system that requires added reinforcement.
<i>Expressway</i>	: A controlled access arterial highway that may or may not be divided or have grade separations at intersections.
<i>Face of the Curb</i>	: The vertical or sloping surface on the roadway side of the curb.
<i>Freeway</i>	: A controlled access divided arterial highway with grade separations at intersections.
<i>Longitudinal Loads</i>	: Horizontal design forces that are applied parallel to the railing or barrier system and that result from friction on the transverse loads.
<i>Multiple Use Railing</i>	: Railing that may be used either with or without a raised sidewalk.
<i>Owner</i>	: An authority or governmental department representing investors and/or taxpayers that is responsible for all the safety design features and functions of a bridge.
<i>Pedestrian Railing</i>	: A railing or fencing system, as illustrated in Figure 11.3 , providing a physical guidance for pedestrians across a bridge so as to minimize the likelihood of a pedestrian falling over the system.

<i>Post</i>	: A vertical or sloping support member of a rail system that anchors a railing element to the deck.
<i>Rail Element</i>	: Any component that makes up a railing system. It usually pertains to a longitudinal member of the railing.
<i>Severity</i>	: A characterization of the degree of an event. It is usually associated with characterizing accidents as fatal, injury, or property damage only so that a dollar value can be assessed for economic study. It may also pertain to indexing the intensity of an accident so that a railing system can be assessed as a preventive or safety measure.
<i>Speeds— Low/High</i>	: Vehicle velocities in km/h. Low speeds are usually associated with city or rural travel where speeds are well posted and are under 70 km/h. High speeds are usually associated with expressways or freeways where posted speeds are 70 km/h or more.
<i>Traffic Railing</i>	: Synonymous with vehicular railing; used as a bridge or structure-mounted railing, rather than a guardrail or median barrier as in other publications.
<i>Transverse Loads</i>	: Horizontal design forces that are applied perpendicular to a railing or barrier system.
<i>Vehicle Rollover</i>	: A term used to describe an accident in which a vehicle rotates at least 90° about its longitudinal axis after contacting a railing. This term is used if the vehicle rolls over as a result of contacting a barrier and not another vehicle.
<i>Warrants</i>	: A document that provides guidance to the Designer in evaluating the potential safety and operational benefits of traffic control devices or features. Warrants are not absolute requirements; rather, they are a means of conveying concern over a potential traffic hazard.

11.3. NOTATION

A_f	= area of post compression flange (mm ²)
B	= out-to-out wheel spacing on an axle (mm); distance between centroids of tensile and compressive stress resultants in post (mm)
b	= length of deck resisting post strength or shear load = $h + W_b$
C	= vertical post capacity or compression flange resistance of post in bending (N-mm)
d_b	= distance from the outer edge of the base plate to the innermost row of bolts (mm)

E	= distance from edge of slab to centroid of compressive stress resultant in post (mm)
F_L	= longitudinal friction force along rail = $0.33 F_t$ (N)
F_t	= transverse vehicle impact force distributed over a length L_t at a height H_e above bridge deck (N)
F_v	= vertical force of vehicle laying on top of rail (N)
f_c	= 28-day compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
G	= height of vehicle center of gravity above bridge deck (mm)
H	= height of wall (mm)
H_R	= height of rail (mm)
H_w	= height of wall (mm)
h	= depth of slab (mm)
L	= post spacing of single span (mm)
L_c	= critical length of wall failure (mm)
L_L	= longitudinal length of distribution of friction force F_L , $L_L = L_t$ (mm)
L_t	= longitudinal length of distribution of impact force F_t along the railing located a height of the H_e above the deck (mm)
L_v	= longitudinal distribution of vertical force F_v on top of railing (mm)
ℓ	= length of vehicle impact load on railing or barrier taken as L_t , L_v or L_L , as appropriate (mm)
M_b	= ultimate moment capacity of beam at top of wall (N-mm)
M_c	= ultimate flexural resistance of wall about horizontal axis (N-mm/mm)
M_d	= deck overhang moment (N-mm/mm)
M_p	= plastic or yield line resistance of rail (N-mm)
M_{post}	= plastic moment resistance of a single post (N.mm)
M_w	= ultimate flexural resistance of wall about vertical axis (N-mm)
P_p	= shear force of a single post which corresponds to M_{POST} and is located $\bar{Y}$ above the deck (N)
R	= total ultimate resistance, i.e., nominal resistance, of the railing (N)
R_R	= ultimate capacity of rail over one span (N)
R'_R	= ultimate transverse resistance of rail over two spans (N)

- R_w = total transverse resistance of the railing (N); ultimate capacity of wall (N)
 R'_w = capacity of wall, reduced to resist post load (N)
 $\bar{R}$ = sum of horizontal components of rail strengths (N)
 T = tensile force per unit of deck length (N/m)
 V_c = nominal shear resistance provided by tensile stresses in the concrete (N)
 V_n = nominal shear resistance of the section considered (N)
 V_r = factored shear resistance (N)
 V_u = factored shear force at section (N)
 W = weight of vehicle corresponding to the required test level, from [Table 11.1](#) (N)
 W_b = width of base plate or distribution block (mm)
 X = length of overhang from face of support to exterior girder or web (mm)
 $\bar{Y}$ = height of $\bar{R}$ above bridge deck (mm)
 β_c = ratio of the long side to the short side of the concentrated load or reaction area
 ϕ = resistance factor = 1.0

11.4. GENERAL

The Owner shall develop the warrants for the bridge site. A bridge railing should be chosen to satisfy the concerns of the warrants as completely as possible and practical.

Railings shall be provided along the edges of structures for protection of traffic and pedestrians. Other applications may be warranted on bridge-length culverts.

- C Additional guidance applicable to bridge-length culverts may be found in the [AASHTO Roadside Design Guide](#).
- C A pedestrian walkway may be separated from an adjacent roadway by a barrier curb, traffic railing, or combination railing, as indicated in [Figure 11.1](#). On high-speed urban expressways where a pedestrian walkway is provided, the walkway area shall be separated from the adjacent roadway by a traffic railing or combination railing.
- C The following guidelines indicate the application of various types of rails:
- Traffic railing is used when a bridge is for the exclusive use of highway traffic;
 - A combination barrier in conjunction with a raised curb and sidewalk is used only on low-speed highways;
 - On high-speed highways, the pedestrian or bicycle path should have both an outboard pedestrian or bicycle railing and an inboard combination railing; and
 - Separate pedestrian bridges should be considered where the amount of pedestrian traffic or other risk factors so indicate.
- C For the purpose of this Article, low speed may be taken as speeds not exceeding 70 km/h. High speed may be taken as speeds in excess of 70 km/h.
- C The walkway faces of combination railings separating walkways from adjacent roadways serve as pedestrian or bicycle railings. When the height of such railings above the walkway surface is less

than the minimum height required for pedestrian or bicycle railings, as appropriate, the Designer may consider providing additional components, such as metal rails, on top of the combination railing. The additional components need to be designed for the appropriate pedestrian or bicycle railing design forces.

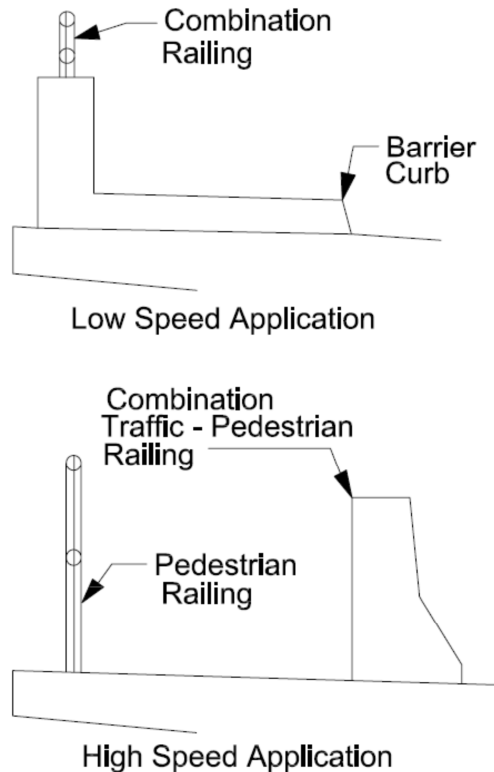


Figure 11.1: Pedestrian Walkway.

New bridge railings and the attachment to the deck overhang shall satisfy crash testing requirements to confirm that they meet the structural and geometric requirements of a specified railing test level using the test criteria specified in Article [11.7.2](#).

- C Warning devices for pedestrians are beyond the scope of these Specifications, but they should be considered. Procedures for testing railing are given in [NCHRP Report 350: Recommended Procedures for the Safety Performance Evaluation of Highway Features](#).

11.5. MATERIALS

The requirements of [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#) shall apply to the materials employed in a railing system, unless otherwise modified herein.

- C Factors to be considered in choosing the material for use in any railing system include ultimate strength, durability, ductility, maintenance, ease of replacement, and long-term behavior.

11.6. LIMIT STATES AND RESISTANCE FACTORS

11.6.1. Strength Limit State

The strength limit states shall apply using the applicable load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) and the loads specified herein. The resistance factors for post and railing components shall be as specified in Articles [5.5.4](#) and [6.5.4](#).

Design loads for pedestrian railings shall be as specified in Article [11.8.2](#). Design loads for bicycle railings shall be as specified in Article [11.9.2](#). Pedestrian or bicycle loadings shall be applied to combination railings as specified in Article [11.10.2](#). Deck overhangs shall be designed for applicable strength load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#).

11.6.2. Extreme Event Limit State

The forces to be transmitted from the bridge railing to the bridge deck may be determined from an ultimate strength analysis of the railing system using the loads given in [Appendix A11](#). Those forces shall be considered to be the factored loads at the extreme event limit state.

11.7. TRAFFIC RAILING

11.7.1. Railing System

11.7.1.1. General

The primary purpose of traffic railings shall be to contain and redirect vehicles using the structure. All new vehicle traffic barrier systems, traffic railings, and combination railings shall be shown to be structurally and geometrically crashworthy.

- C Variations in traffic volume, speed, vehicle mix, roadway alignment, activities and conditions beneath a structure, and other factors combine to produce a vast variation in traffic railing performance requirements.

Consideration should be given to:

- Protection of the occupants of a vehicle in collision with the railing,
- Protection of other vehicles near the collision,
- Protection of persons and property on roadways and other areas underneath the structure,
- Possible future rail upgrading,
- Railing cost-effectiveness, and Variations in traffic volume, speed, vehicle mix, roadway alignment, activities and conditions beneath a structure, and other factors combine to produce a vast variation in traffic railing performance requirements.
- Appearance and freedom of view from passing vehicles.

A combination railing, conforming to the dimensions given in [Figure 11.3](#) and [Figure 11.4](#), and crash tested with a sidewalk may be considered acceptable for use with sidewalks having widths 1000 mm or greater and curb heights up to the height used in the crash test installation.

- C Because of more recent tests on sidewalks, a 200-mm maximum height for sidewalk curbs has generally been accepted.

A railing designed for multiple uses shall be shown to be crashworthy with or without the sidewalk. Use of the combination vehicle-pedestrian rail shown in [Figure 11.2](#) shall be restricted to roads designated for 70 km/h or less and need be tested to Test Level 1 or 2.

- C *AASHTO's A Policy on Geometric Design of Highways and Streets* recommends that a barrier curb be used only for speeds of 70 km/h or less. For speeds of 80 km/h. or greater, pedestrians should be protected by a separation traffic barrier.
- C A railing intended for use only on a sidewalk need not be tested without the sidewalk.

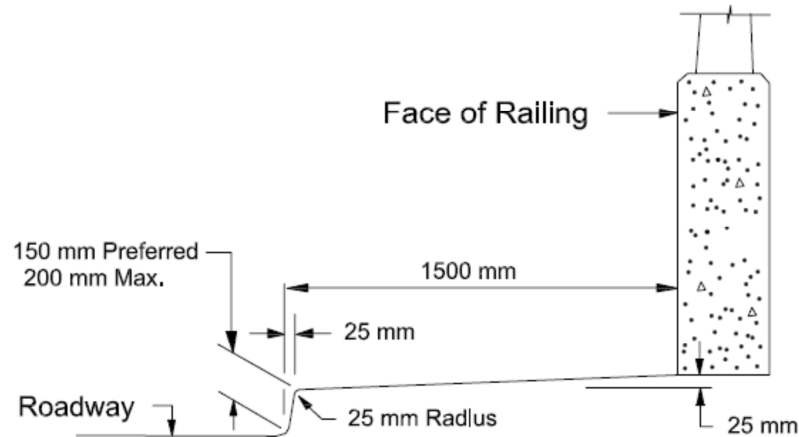


Figure 11.2: Typical Raised Sidewalk.

11.7.1.2. Approach Railings

An approach guardrail system should be provided at the beginning of all bridge railings in high-speed rural areas.

- C In urban areas or where city streets and/or sidewalks prevent installation of approach guardrail transitions or crashworthy terminals, consideration should be given to:
 - Extending the bridge rail or guard rail in a manner that prevents encroachment of a vehicle onto any highway system below the bridge,
 - Providing a barrier curb,
 - Restricting speed,
 - Adding signing of intersections, and
 - Providing recovery areas.

A bridge approach railing system should include a transition from the guardrail system to the rigid bridge railing system that is capable of providing lateral resistance to an errant vehicle. The approach guardrail system shall have a crashworthy end terminal at its nosing.

- C A bridge end drainage facility should be an integral part of the barrier transition design.

11.7.1.3. End Treatment

In high-speed rural areas, the approach end of a parapet or railing shall have a crashworthy configuration or be shielded by a crashworthy traffic barrier.

- C If the approach railing is connected to a side of road railing system, it can be continuous with the bridge approach system, and only a transition from a flexible to a rigid railing system is required.

11.7.2. Test Level Selection Criteria

One of the following test levels should be specified:

- TL-1—Test Level One—taken to be generally acceptable for work zones with low posted speeds and very low volume, low speed local streets;
 - TL-2—Test Level Two—taken to be generally acceptable for work zones and most local and collector roads with favorable site conditions as well as where a small number of heavy vehicles is expected and posted speeds are reduced;
 - TL-3—Test Level Three—taken to be generally acceptable for a wide range of high-speed arterial highways with very low mixtures of heavy vehicles and with favorable site conditions;
 - TL-4—Test Level Four—taken to be generally acceptable for the majority of applications on high speed highways, freeways, expressways, and Interstate highways with a mixture of trucks and heavy vehicles;
 - TL-5—Test Level Five—taken to be generally acceptable for the same applications as TL-4 and where large trucks make up a significant portion of the average daily traffic or when unfavorable site conditions justify a higher level of rail resistance; and
 - TL-6—Test Level Six—taken to be generally acceptable for applications where tanker-type trucks or similar high center of gravity vehicles are anticipated, particularly along with unfavorable site conditions.
- C The six test levels mentioned herein are intended to correspond with the six test levels contained in [NCHRP Report 350, "Recommended Procedures for the Safety Performance Evaluation of Highway Features."](#)
- C AASHTO's 2001 A Policy on Geometric Design on Highways and Streets and its 2002 Roadside Design Guide are referred to as aides in the bridge railing selection process.
- C The individual tests are designed to evaluate one or more of the principal performance factors of the bridge railing, which include structural adequacy, occupant risk, and post impact behavior of the test vehicle. In general, the lower test levels are applicable for evaluating and selecting bridge railings to be used on segments of lower service level roadways and certain types of work zones. The higher test levels are applicable for evaluating and selecting bridge railings to be used on higher service level roadways or at locations that demand a special, high-performance bridge railing. In this regard, TL-4 railings are expected to satisfy the majority of interstate design requirements.
- C TL-5 provides for a van-type tractor-trailer that will satisfy design requirements where TL-4 railings are deemed inadequate due to the high number of this type of vehicle anticipated, or due to unfavorable site conditions where rollover or penetration beyond the railing could result in severe consequences.
- C TL-6 provides for a tanker-type truck that will satisfy design requirements where this type vehicle with a higher center of gravity has shown a history of rollover or penetration, or unfavorable site conditions may indicate the need for this level of rail resistance.
- C Unfavorable site conditions include but are not limited to reduced radius of curvature, steep downgrades on curvature, variable cross slopes, and adverse weather conditions.

It shall be the responsibility of the user agency to determine which of the test levels is most appropriate for the bridge site.

- C Agencies should develop objective guidelines for use of bridge railings. These guidelines should take into account factors such as traffic conditions, traffic volume and mix, cost and in-service performance, and life-cycle cost of existing railings.

The testing criteria for the chosen test level shall correspond to vehicle weights and speeds and angles of impact outlined in [Table 11.1](#).

- C These criteria, including other vehicle characteristics and tolerances, are described in detail in the [NCHRP Report 350](#).

Table 11.1: Bridge Railing Test Levels and Crash Test Criteria.

Vehicle Characteristics	Small Automobiles		Pickup Truck	Single-Unit Van Truck	Van-Type Tractor-Trailer		Tractor-Tanker Trailer
W (N)	7000	8000	20 000	80 000	220 000	355 000	355 000
B (mm)	1700	1700	2000	2300	2450	2450	2450
G (mm)	550	550	700	1250	1630	1850	2050
Crash angle, θ	20°	20°	25°	15°	15°	15°	15°
Test Level	Test Speeds (km/h)						
TL-1	50	50	50	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TL-2	70	70	70	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TL-3	100	100	100	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TL-4	100	100	100	80	N/A	N/A	N/A
TL-5	100	100	100	N/A	N/A	80	N/A
TL-6	100	100	100	N/A	N/A	N/A	80

11.7.3. Railing Design

11.7.3.1. General

A traffic railing should normally provide a smooth continuous face of rail on the traffic side. Steel posts with rail elements should be set back from the face of rail.

- C Test specimens should include a representative length of the overhang to account for the effect of deck flexibility on the distance over which the railing engages the deck.

Structural continuity in the rail members and anchorages of ends should be considered.

- C Protrusions or depressions at rail openings may be acceptable, provided that their thickness, depth, or geometry does not prevent the railing from meeting the crash test evaluation criteria.

1. Application of Previously Tested Systems

A crashworthy railing system may be used without further analysis and/or testing, provided that the proposed installation does not have features that are absent in the tested configuration and that might detract from the performance of the tested railing system.

- C When a minor detail is changed on or an improvement is made to a railing system that has already been tested and approved, engineering judgment and analysis should be used when determining the need for additional crash testing.

2. New Systems

New railing systems may be used, provided that acceptable performance is demonstrated through full-scale crash tests.

The crash test specimen for a railing system may be designed to resist the applied loads in accordance with [Appendix A11](#) of this Section or **NCHRP Report 350** with its revisions.

Provision shall be made to transfer loads from the railing system to the deck. Railing loads may be taken from Appendix A of this Section.

Unless a lesser thickness can be proven satisfactory during the crash testing procedure, the minimum edge thickness for concrete deck overhangs shall be taken as:

- For concrete deck overhangs supporting a deck-mounted post system: 200 mm
 - For a side-mounted post system: 300 mm
 - For concrete deck overhangs supporting concrete parapets or barriers: 200 mm
- C Preliminary design for bridge decks should comply with Article [11.13.1.2](#). A determination of the adequacy of deck reinforcement for the distribution of post anchorage loads to the deck should be made during the rail-testing program. If the rail-testing program satisfactorily models the bridge deck, damage to the deck edge can be assessed at this time.
- C In adequately designed bridge deck overhangs, the major crash-related damage presently occurs in short sections of slab areas where the barrier is hit.

11.7.3.2. Height of Traffic Parapet or Railing

Traffic railings shall be at least 685 mm for TL-3, 810 mm for TL-4, 1070 mm for TL-5, and 2290 mm in height for TL-6.

The bottom 75-mm lip of the safety shape shall not be increased for future overlay considerations.

- C These heights have been determined as satisfactory through crash tests and experience.
- C For future deck overlays, an encroachment of 50 mm, leaving a 25-mm lip, has been satisfactorily tested for safety shapes.

The minimum height for a concrete parapet with a vertical face shall be 685 mm. The height of other combined concrete and metal rails shall not be less than 685 mm and shall be determined to be satisfactory through crash testing for the desired test level.

The minimum height of the pedestrian or bicycle railing should be measured above the surface of the sidewalk or bikeway.

The minimum geometric requirements for combination railings beyond those required to meet crash test requirements shall be taken as specified in Articles [11.8](#), [11.9](#), and [11.10](#).

11.8. PEDESTRIAN RAILING

11.8.1. Geometry

The minimum height of a pedestrian railing shall be 1070 mm measured from the top of the walkway.

A pedestrian rail may be composed of horizontal and/or vertical elements. The clear opening between elements shall be such that a 150-mm diameter sphere shall not pass through.

When both horizontal and vertical elements are used, the 150-mm clear opening shall apply to the lower 685 mm of the railing, and the spacing in the upper portion shall be such that a 200-mm diameter sphere shall not pass through.

A safety toe rail or curb should be provided. Rails should project beyond the face of posts and/or pickets as shown in [Figure A11.2](#).

The rail spacing requirements given above should not apply to chain link or metal fabric fence support rails and posts. Mesh size in chain link or metal fabric fence should have openings no larger than 50 mm.

C The size of openings should be capable of retaining an average size beverage container.

11.8.2. Design Live Loads

The design live load for pedestrian railings shall be taken as $w = 0.73$ kN/m, both transversely and vertically, acting simultaneously. In addition, each longitudinal element will be designed for a concentrated load of 0.89 kN, which shall act simultaneously with the above loads at any point and in any direction at the top of the longitudinal element.

C These live loads apply to the railing. The pedestrian live load, specified in Article [3.6.1.6](#) applies to the sidewalk.

The posts of pedestrian railings shall be designed for a concentrated design live load applied transversely at the center of gravity of the upper longitudinal element or, for railings with a total height greater than 1500 mm, at a point 1500 mm above the top surface of the sidewalk. The value of the concentrated design live load for posts, P_{LL} , in N, shall be taken as:

$$P_{LL} = 890 + 0.73L \quad (11.1)$$

where:

L = post spacing (mm)

The design load for chain link or metal fabric fence shall be 0.72 kN/m² acting normal to the entire surface.

The application of loads shall be as indicated in [Figure 11.3](#), in which the shapes of rail members are illustrative only. Any material or combination of materials specified in Article [11.5](#) may be used.

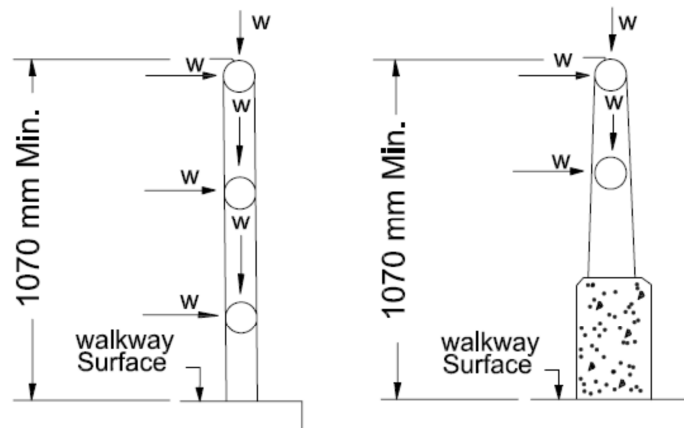


Figure 11.3: Pedestrian Railing Loads—to be used on the outer edge of a sidewalk when highway traffic is separated from pedestrian traffic by a traffic railing. Railing shape illustrative only.

11.9. BICYCLE RAILINGS

11.9.1. General

Bicycle railings shall be used on bridges specifically designed to carry bicycle traffic and on bridges where specific protection of bicyclists is deemed necessary.

11.9.2. Geometry

The height of a bicycle railing shall not be less than 1070 mm, measured from the top of the riding surface.

The height of the upper and lower zones of a bicycle railing shall be at least 685 mm. The upper and lower zones shall have rail spacing satisfying the respective provisions of Article [11.8.1](#).

- C Railings, fences or barriers on either side of a shared use path on a structure, or along bicycle lane, shared use path or signed shared roadway located on a highway bridge should be a minimum of 1070 mm high. The 1070-mm minimum height is in accordance with the [AASHTO Guide for the Development of Bicycle Facilities, 3rd Edition, \(1999\)](#).
- C On such a bridge or bridge approach where high-speed high-angle impact with a railing, fence or barrier are more likely to occur (such as short radius curves with restricted sight distance or at the end of a long descending grade) or in locations with site-specific safety concerns, a railing, fence or barrier height above the minimum should be considered.

If deemed necessary, rubrails attached to the rail or fence to prevent snagging should be deep enough to protect a wide range of bicycle handlebar heights.

- C The need for rubrails attached to a rail or fence is controversial among many bicyclists.

If screening, fencing, or a solid face is utilized, the number of rails may be reduced.

11.9.3. Design Live Loads

If the rail height exceeds 1400 mm above the riding surface, design loads shall be determined by the Designer.

The design loads for the lower 1400 mm of the bicycle railing shall not be less than those specified in Article [11.8.2](#), except that for railings with total height greater than 1400 mm, the design live load for posts shall be applied at a point 1400 mm above the riding surface.

The application of loads shall be as indicated in [Figure 11.4](#). Any material or combination of materials specified in Article [11.5](#) may be used.

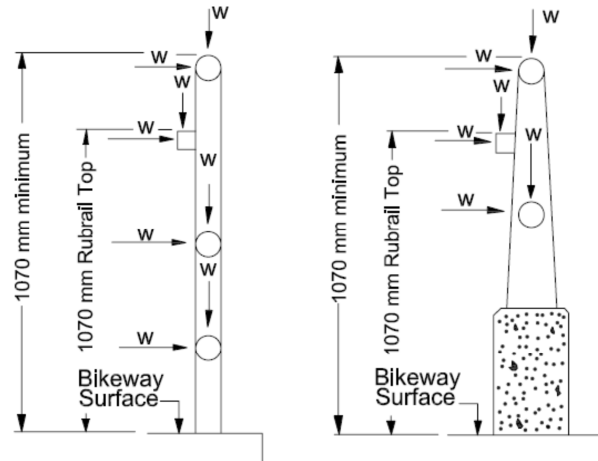


Figure 11.4: Bicycle Railing Loads—to be used on the outer edge of a bikeway when highway traffic is separated from bicycle traffic by a traffic railing. Railing shape illustrative only.

11.10. COMBINATION RAILINGS

11.10.1. General

The combination railing shall conform to the requirements of either the pedestrian or bicycle railings, as specified in Articles 11.8 and 11.9, whichever is applicable. The traffic railing portion of the combination railing shall conform to Article 11.7.

11.10.2. Geometry

The geometric provisions of Articles 11.7, 11.8, and 11.9 shall apply to their respective portions of a combination railing.

11.10.3. Design Live Loads

Design loads, specified in Articles 11.8 and 11.9, and shall not be applied simultaneously with the vehicular impact loads.

11.11. CURBS AND SIDEWALKS

11.11.1. General

Horizontal measurements of roadway width shall be taken from the bottom of the face of the curb. A sidewalk curb located on the highway traffic side of a bridge railing shall be considered an integral part of the railing and shall be subject to the crash test requirements specified in Article 11.7.

11.11.2. Sidewalks

When curb and gutter sections with sidewalks are used on roadway approaches, the curb height for raised sidewalks on the bridge should be no more than 200 mm. If a barrier curb is required, the curb height should not be less than 150 mm. If the height of the curb on the bridge differs from that off the bridge, it should be uniformly transitioned over a distance greater than or equal to 20 times the change in height.

- C Raised sidewalks on bridges are not usually provided where the approach roadway is not curbed for pedestrians or the structure is not planned for pedestrian occupancy.
- C For recommendations on sidewalk width, see [Figure 11.2](#) and [AASHTO's A Policy on Geometric Design of Highways and Streets](#).
- C During stage construction, the same transition considerations will be given to the provision of ramps from the bridge sidewalk to the approach surface.

11.11.3. End Treatment of Separation Railing

The end treatment of any traffic railing or barrier shall meet the requirements specified in Articles [11.7.1.2](#) and [11.7.1.3](#).

11.12. REFERENCES

AASHTO LRFD BRIDGE DESIGN SPECIFICATION, 4th Edition 2007

AASHTO LRFD BRIDGE DESIGN SPECIFICATION 2007, Interim Revision 2008.

AASHTO Guide for the Development of Bicycle Facilities, 3rd Edition, (1999)

AASHTO. 2002. Roadside Design Guide, 3rd Edition, RSDG-3. American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials, Washington, DC.

AASHTO. 2004. A Policy on Geometric Design of Highways and Streets, 5th Edition, GDHS-5. American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials, Washington, DC.

Alberson, D. C., R. A. Zimmer, and W. L. Menges. 1997. NCHRP Report 350 Compliance Test 5-I 2 of the I. 07-m Vertical Wall Bridge Railing, FHW AIRD-96/199. Federal Highway Administration, U.S. Department of Transportation, Washington, DC.

Ross, H. E., D. L. Sicking, R. A. Zimmer, and I. D. Michie. 1993. NCHRP Report 350: Recommended Procedures for the Safety Performance Evaluation of Highway Features. Transportation Research Board, National Research Council, Washington, DC.

11.13. APPENDIX A11

11.13.1. Geometry and Anchorages

11.13.1.1. Separation of Rail Elements

For traffic railings, the criteria for maximum clear opening below the bottom rail, C_b , the setback distance, S , and maximum opening between rails, c , shall be based on the following criteria:

- The rail contact widths for typical railings may be taken as illustrated in [Figure A11.1](#);
 - The total width of the rail(s) in contact with the vehicle, $\sum A$, shall not be less than 25 percent of the height of the railing;
 - For post railings, the vertical clear opening, c , and the post setback, S , shall be within or below the shaded area shown in [Figure A11.2](#); and
 - For post railings, the combination of $(\sum A / H)$ and the post setback, S shall be within or above the shaded area shown in [Figure A11.3](#).
- C The post setback shown from face of rail for various post shapes is based upon a limited amount of crash test data. The potential for wheel snagging involved with a given design should be evaluated as part of the crash test program.
- C The post setback, S , shown for various shape posts in [Figure A11.2](#), recognizes the tendency for various shape posts to snag wheels. The implication of the various definitions of setback, S , is that all other factors being equal, the space between a rail and the face of a rectangular post will be greater than the distance between a rail and the face of a circular post.

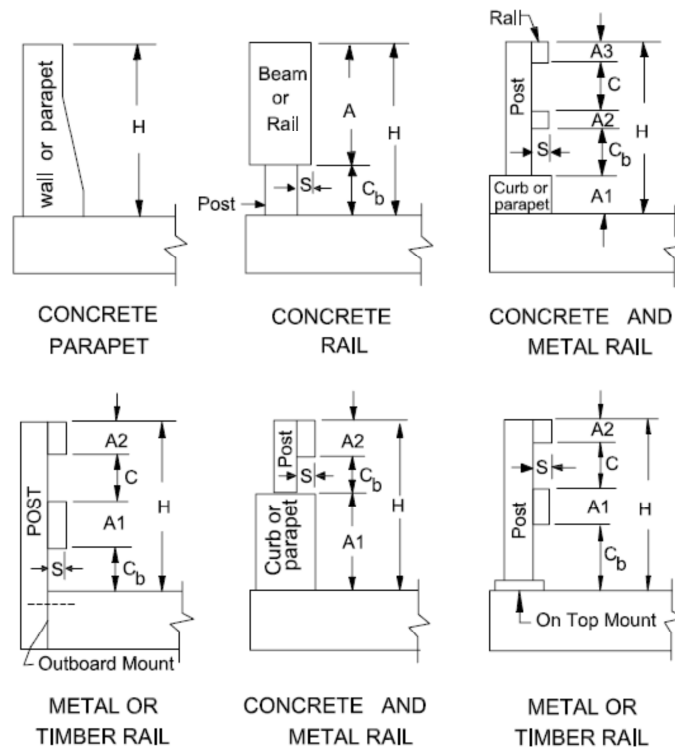
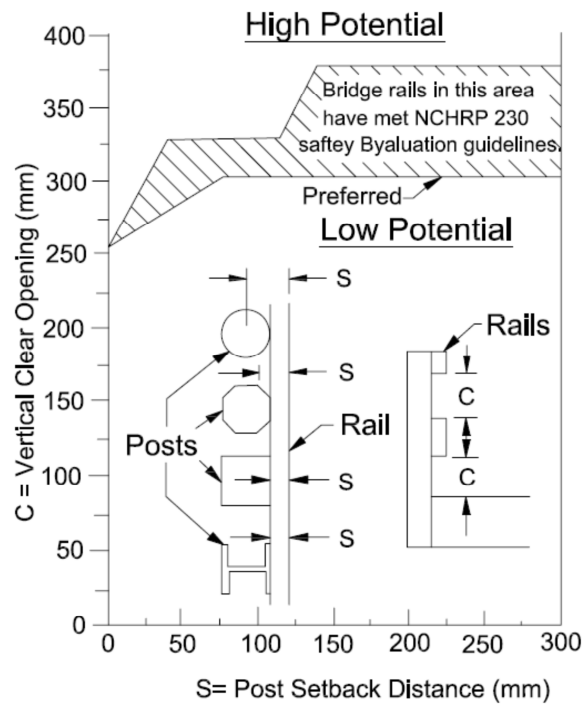


Figure A11.1: Typical Traffic Railings.



Floure A11.2:Potential for Wheel ,Bumber , or Hood Impac

Figure A11.2: Potential for Wheel, Bumper, or Hood Impact with Post.

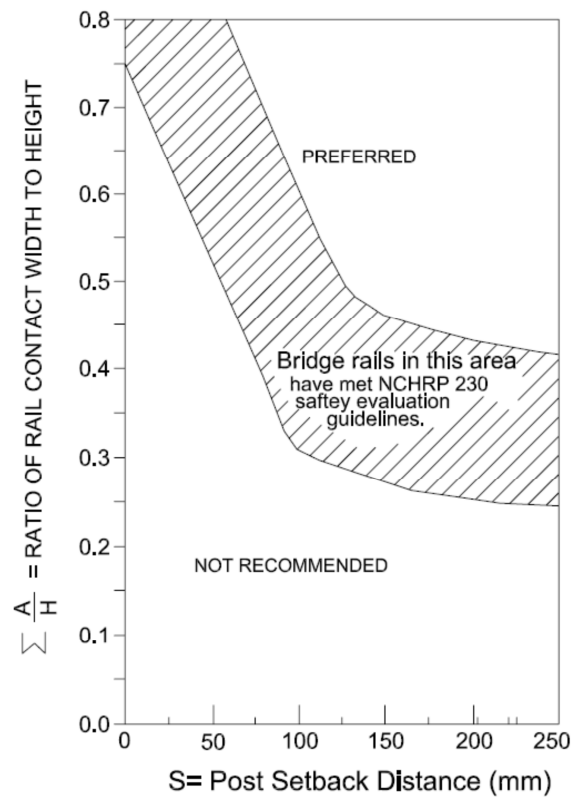


Figure A11.3: Post Setback Criteria.

The maximum clear vertical opening between succeeding rails or posts shall be as specified in Articles 11.8, 11.9 and 11.10.

11.13.1.2. Anchorages

The yield strength of anchor bolts for steel railing shall be fully developed by bond hooks, attachment to embedded plates, or any combination thereof.

- C Non-corrosive bonding agents for anchor dowels may be cement grout, epoxy, or a magnesium phosphate compound. Sulfur or expansive-type grouts should not be used.
- C Some bonding agents on the market have corrosive characteristics; these should be avoided.

Reinforcing steel for concrete barriers shall have embedment length sufficient to develop the yield strength.

- C Development length for reinforcing bars is specified in Section 5.

11.13.2. Traffic Railing Design Forces

Unless modified herein, the extreme event limit state and the corresponding load combinations in Table 3.1 shall apply.

Railing design forces and geometric criteria to be used in developing test specimens for a crash test program should be taken as specified in Table A11.1 and illustrated in Figure A11.5. The transverse and longitudinal loads given in Table A11.1 need not be applied in conjunction with vertical loads.

The effective height of the vehicle rollover force is taken as:

$$H_e = G - \frac{WB}{2F_t} \quad (\text{A11.1})$$

where:

- G = height of vehicle center of gravity above bridge deck, as specified in Table 11.1 (mm)
- W = weight of vehicle corresponding to the required test level, as specified in Table 11.1 (N)
- B = out-to-out wheel spacing on an axle, as specified in Table 11.1 (mm)
- F_t = transverse force corresponding to the required test level, as specified in Table A11.1 (N)

Railings shall be proportioned such that:

$$\bar{R} \geq F_t \quad (\text{A11.2})$$

$$\bar{Y} \geq H_e \quad (\text{A11.3})$$

in which:

$$\bar{R} = \sum R_i \quad (\text{A11.4})$$

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{\sum (R_i Y_i)}{\bar{R}} \quad (\text{A11.5})$$

where:

- R_i = resistance of the rail (N)

Y_i = distance from bridge deck to the i^{th} rail (mm)

C Nomenclature for Eqs. (A11.1) and (A11.2) is illustrated in Figure A11.4.

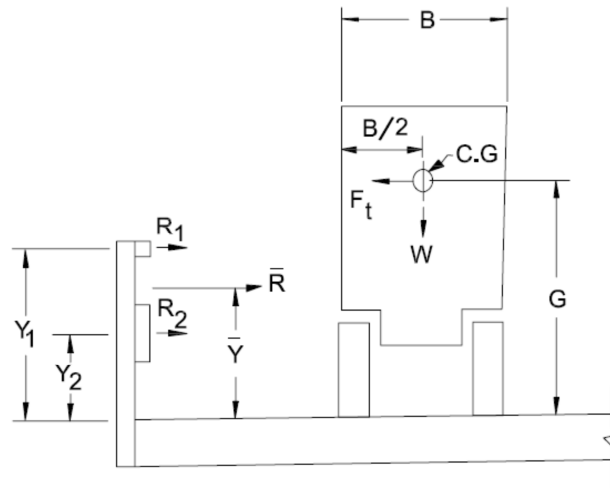


Figure A11.4: Traffic Railing.

- C If the total resistance, $\bar{R}$, of a post-and-beam railing system with multiple rail elements is significantly greater than the applied load, F_t , then the resistance, R_i , for the lower rail element(s) used in calculations may be reduced.
- C The reduced value of $\bar{R}$ will result in an increase in the computed value of $\bar{Y}$. The reduced notional total rail resistance and its effective height must satisfy Eqs. (A11.2) and (A11.3).

All forces shall be applied to the longitudinal rail elements. The distribution of longitudinal loads to posts shall be consistent with the continuity of rail elements. Distribution of transverse loads shall be consistent with the assumed failure mechanism of the railing system.

- C Eq. (A11.1) has been found to give reasonable predictions of effective railing height requirements to prevent rollover.
- C If the design load located at H_e falls between rail elements, it should be distributed proportionally to rail elements above and below such that $Y \geq H_e$.
- C As an example of the significance of the data in Table A11.1, the length of 1220 mm for L_t and L_L is the length of significant contact between the vehicle and railing that has been observed in films of crash tests. The length of 1070 mm for TL-4 is the rear-axle tire diameter of the truck. The length of 2440 mm for TL-5 and TL-6 is the length of the tractor rear tandem axles: two 1070-mm diameter tires, plus 300 mm between them.
- C F_v , the weight of the vehicle lying on top of the bridge rail, is distributed over the length of the vehicle in contact with the rail, L_v .
- C For concrete railings, Eq. (A11.1) results in a theoretically required height, H , of 857 mm for Test Level TL-4. However, a height of 810 mm, shown in Table A11.1, was considered to be acceptable because many railings of that height have been built and appear to be performing acceptably.
- C The minimum height, H , listed for TL-1, TL-2, and TL-3 is based on the minimum railings height used in the past. The minimum effective height, H_e for TL-1 is an estimate based on the limited information available for this test level.

- C The minimum height, H , of 1070 mm, shown in [Table A11.1](#), for TL-5 is based on the height used for successfully crash-tested concrete barrier engaging only the tires of the truck. For post and beam metal bridge railings, it may be prudent to increase the height by 300 mm so as to engage the bed of the truck.
- C The minimum height, H , shown in [Table A11.1](#), for TL-6 is the height required to engage the side of the tank as determined by crash test.

Table A11.1: Design Forces for Traffic Railings.

Design Forces and Designations	Railing Test Levels					
	TL-1	TL-2	TL-3	TL-4	TL-5	TL-6
F_t Transverse (N)	60 000	120 000	240 000	240 000	550 000	780 000
F_L Longitudinal (N)	20 000	40 000	80 000	80 000	183 000	260 000
F_v Vertical (N) Down	20 000	20 000	20 000	80 000	355 000	355 000
L_t and L_L (mm)	1220	1220	1220	1070	2440	2440
L_v (mm)	5500	5500	5500	5500	12 200	12 200
H_e (min) (mm)	460	510	610	810	1070	1420
Minimum H Height of Rail (mm)	685	685	685	810	1070	2290

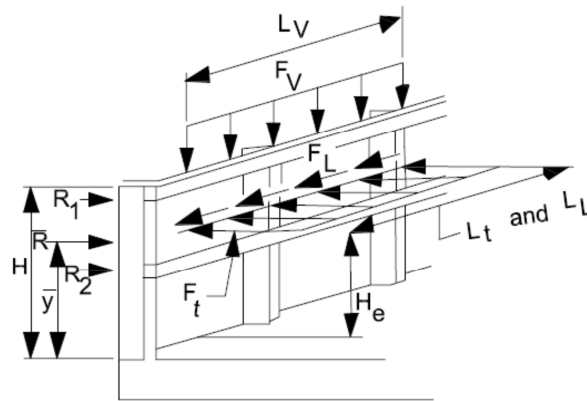


Figure A11.5: Metal Bridge Railing Design Forces, Vertical Location, and Horizontal Distribution Length.

- C [Figure A11.5](#) shows the design forces from [Table A11.1](#) applied to a beam and post railing. This is for illustrative purposes only. The forces and distribution lengths shown apply to any type of railing.

11.13.3. Design Procedure for Railing Test Specimens

11.13.3.1. Concrete Railings

Yield line analysis and strength design for reinforced concrete and prestressed concrete barriers or parapets may be used.

The nominal railing resistance to transverse load, R_w , may be determined using a yield line approach as:

- For impacts within a wall segment:

$$R_w = \left(\frac{2}{2L_c - L_t} \right) \left(8M_b + 8M_w + \frac{M_c L_c^2}{H} \right) \quad (\text{A11.6})$$

The critical wall length over which the yield line mechanism occurs, L_c , shall be taken as:

$$L_c = \frac{L_t}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{L_t}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{8H(M_b + M_w)}{M_c}} \quad (\text{A11.7})$$

- For impacts at end of wall or at joint:

$$R_w = \left(\frac{2}{2L_c - L_t}\right) \left(M_b + M_w + \frac{M_c L_c^2}{H}\right) \quad (\text{A11.8})$$

$$L_c = \frac{L_t}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{L_t}{2}\right)^2 + H \left(\frac{M_b + M_w}{M_c}\right)} \quad (\text{A11.9})$$

where:

- F_t = transverse force specified in [Table A11.1](#) assumed to be acting at top of a concrete wall (N)
- H = height of wall (mm)
- L_c = critical length of yield line failure pattern (mm)
- L_t = Longitudinal length of distribution of impact force F_t (mm)
- R_w = total transverse resistance of the railing (N)
- M_b = additional flexural resistance of beam in addition to M_w , if any, at top of wall (N-mm)
- M_c = flexural resistance of cantilevered walls about an axis parallel to the longitudinal axis of the bridge (N-mm/mm)
- M_w = flexural resistance of the wall about its vertical axis (N-mm)

For use in the above equations, M_e and M_w should not vary significantly over the height of the wall. For other cases, a rigorous yield line analysis should be used.

- C The yield line analysis shown in [Figure A11.6](#) and [Figure A11.7](#) includes only the ultimate flexural capacity of the concrete component. Stirrups or ties should be provided to resist the shear and/or diagonal tension forces.
- C The ultimate flexural resistance, M_s , of the bridge deck or slab should be determined in recognition that the deck is also resisting a tensile force, caused by the component of the impact forces, F_t .
- C In this analysis it is assumed that the yield line failure pattern occurs within the parapet only and does not extend into the deck. This means that the deck must have sufficient resistance to force the yield line failure pattern to remain within the parapet. If the failure pattern extends into the deck, the equations for resistance of the parapet are not valid.
- C The analysis is also based on the assumption that sufficient longitudinal length of parapet exists to result in the yield line failure pattern shown. For short lengths of parapet, a single yield line may form along the juncture of the parapet and deck. Such a failure pattern is permissible, and the resistance of the parapet should be computed using an appropriate analysis.
- C This analysis is based on the assumption that the negative and positive wall resisting moments are equal and that the negative and positive beam resisting moments are equal.
- C The measurement of system resistance of a concrete railing is R_w , which is compared to the loads in [Table A11.1](#) to determine structural adequacy. The flexure resistances, M_b , M_w and M_c are related to the system resistance R_w through the yield line analysis embodied in Eqs. [\(A11.6\)](#) and [\(A11.7\)](#). In the terminology of these Specifications, R_w is the "nominal resistance" because it is compared to the "nominal load" given in [Table A11.1](#).

- C Where the width of the concrete railing varies along the height, M_c used in Eqs. (A11.6) through (A11.9) for wall resistance should be taken as the average of its value along the height of the railing.

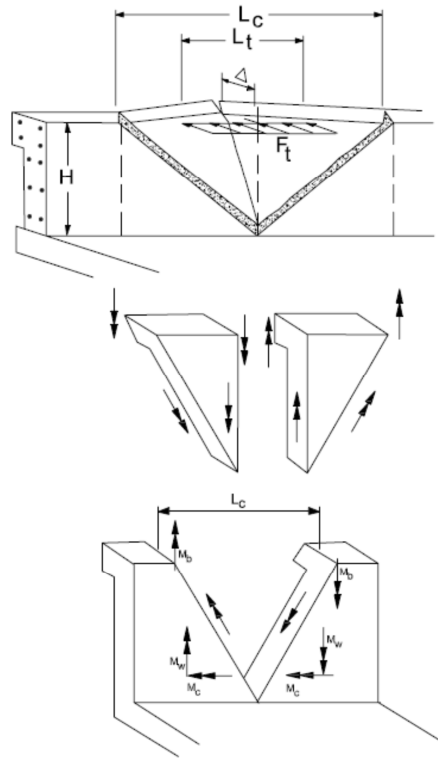


Figure A11.6: Yield Line Analysis of Concrete Parapet Walls for Impact within Wall Segment.

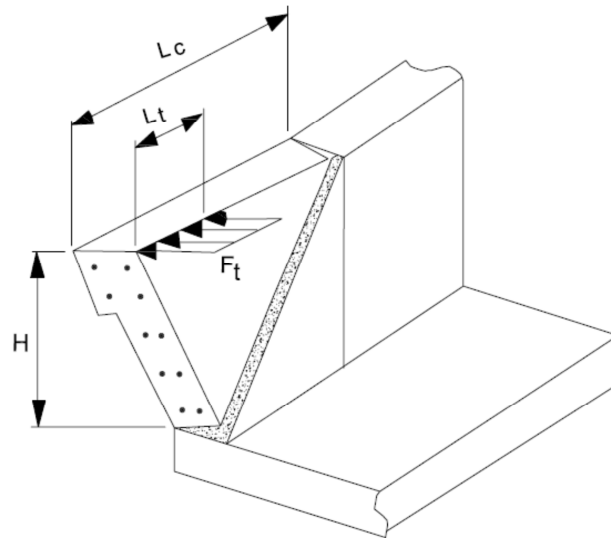


Figure A11.7: Yield Line Analysis of Concrete Parapet Walls for Impact Near End of Wall Segment.

11.13.3.2. Post-and-Beam Railings

Inelastic analysis shall be used for design of post-and-beam railings under failure conditions. A basis for applying inelastic analysis is shown in [Figure A11.8](#). The critical rail nominal resistance, R , when the failure does not involve the end post of a segment, shall be taken as the least value determined from Eqs. [\(A11.10\)](#) and [\(A11.11\)](#) for various numbers of railing spans, N .

- For failure modes involving an odd number of railing spans, N :

$$R = \frac{16M_p + (N-1)(N+1)P_p L}{2NL - L_t} \quad (\text{A11.10})$$

C This design procedure is applicable to concrete and metal post and beam railings.

C The post on each end of the plastic mechanism must be able to resist the rail or beam shear.

- For failure modes involving an even number of railing spans, N :

$$R = \frac{16M_p + N^2 P_p L}{2NL - L_t} \quad (\text{A11.11})$$

where:

L = post spacing or single-span (mm)

M_p = inelastic or yield line resistance of all of the rails contributing to a plastic hinge (N-mm)

P_p = ultimate transverse load resistance of a single post located $\bar{Y}$ above the deck (N)

R = total ultimate resistance, i.e., nominal resistance, of the railing (N)

L_t, L_L = transverse length of distributed vehicle impact loads, F_t and F_L (mm)

For impact at the end of rail segments that causes the end post to fail, the critical rail nominal resistance, R , shall be calculated using Eq. [\(A11.12\)](#).

- For any number of railing spans, N .

$$R = \frac{2M_p + 2P_p L \left(\sum_{i=1}^N i \right)}{2NL - L_t} \quad (\text{A11.12})$$

C For multiple rail systems, each of the rails may contribute to the yield mechanism shown schematically in [Figure A11.8](#), depending on the rotation corresponding to its vertical position.

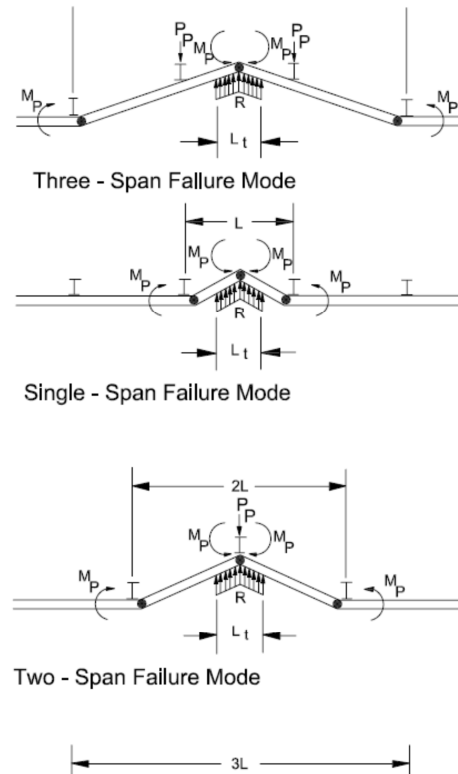


Figure A11.8: Possible Failure Modes for Post-and-Beam Railings.

11.13.3.3. Concrete Parapet and Metal Rail

The resistance of each component of a combination bridge rail shall be determined as specified in Articles [11.13.3.1](#) and [11.13.3.2](#). The flexural strength of the rail shall be determined over one span, R_R , and over two spans, R'_R . The resistance of the post on top of the wall, P_p , including the resistance of the anchor bolts or post shall be determined.

The resistance of the combination parapet and rail shall be taken as the lesser of the resistances determined for the two failure modes shown in [Figure A11.9](#) and [Figure A11.10](#).

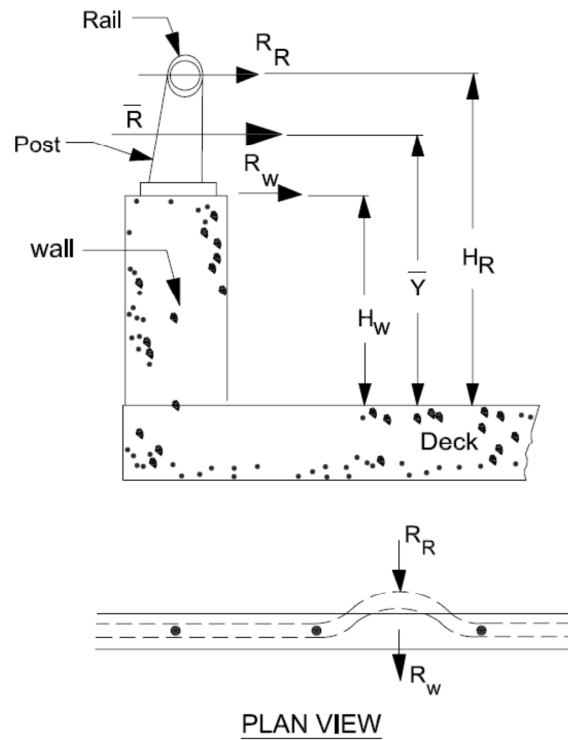


Figure A11.9: Concrete Wan and Metal Rail Evaluation-Impact at Mid-span of Rail.

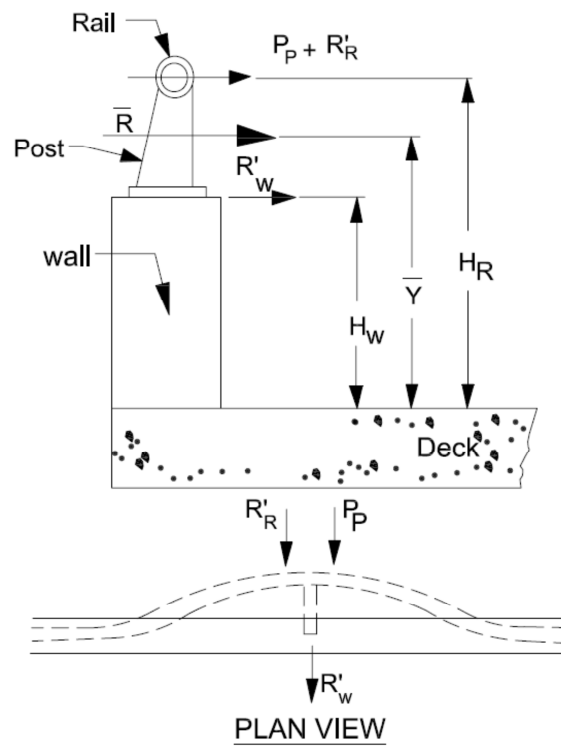


Figure A11.10: Concrete Wall and Metal Rail Evaluation-Impact at Post.

Where the vehicle impact is at mid-span of the metal rail, as illustrated in [Figure A11.9](#), the flexural resistance of the rail, R_R , and the maximum strength of the concrete wall, R_w , shall be added together to determine the combined resultant strength, $\bar{R}$, and the effective height, $\bar{Y}$, taken as:

$$\bar{R} = R_R + R_w \quad (\text{A11.13})$$

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{R_R H_R + R_w H_w}{\bar{R}} \quad (\text{A11.14})$$

where:

R_R = ultimate capacity of rail over one span (N)

R_w = ultimate capacity of wall as specified in Article [11.13.3.1](#) (N)

H_w = height of wall (mm)

H_R = height of rail (mm)

C The commentary to Article [11.13.2](#) applies.

Where the vehicle impact is at a post, as illustrated in [Figure A11.10](#), the maximum resultant strength, $\bar{R}$, shall be taken as the sum of the post capacity, P_p , the rail strength, R'_R , and a reduced wall strength, R'_w , located at a height $\bar{Y}$.

$$\bar{R} = P_p + R'_R + R'_w \quad (\text{A11.15})$$

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{P_p H_R + R'_R H_R + R'_w H_w}{\bar{R}} \quad (\text{A11.16})$$

in which:

$$R'_w = \frac{R_w H_w - P_p H_R}{H_w} \quad (\text{A11.17})$$

where:

P_p = ultimate transverse resistance of post (N)

R'_R = ultimate transverse resistance of rail over two spans (N)

R'_w = capacity of wall, reduced to resist post load (N)

R_w = ultimate transverse resistance of wall as specified in Article [11.13.3.1](#) (N)

C It should also be recognized that a maximum effective height, $\bar{Y}$, equal to the centroid rail height, H_R , could be obtained, but at a reduced resultant strength, $\bar{R}$, equal to the post capacity, P_p , and rail capacity, R'_R , only.

C The analysis herein does not consider impacts near open joints in the concrete wall or parapet. The metal rail will help distribute load across such joints. Improved rail resistance will be obtained if the use of expansion and contraction joints is minimized.

C For impact near the end of railing segments, the nominal resistance may be calculated as the sum of the wall resistance, calculated using Eq. [\(A11.8\)](#), and the metal rail resistance over one span, calculated using Eq. [\(A11.8\)](#).

11.13.4. Deck Overhang Design

11.13.4.1. Design Cases

Bridge deck overhangs shall be designed for the following design cases considered separately:

- Design Case 1: the transverse and longitudinal forces specified in Article 11.13.3.2- Extreme Event Load Combination II limit state
- Design Case 2: the vertical forces specified in Article 11.13.3.2-Extreme Event Load Combination II limit state
- Design Case 3: the loads, specified in Article 3.6.1, that occupy the overhang Load Combination Strength I limit state.

For Design Case 1 and 2, the load factor for dead load, γ_p , shall be taken as 1.0.

The total factored force effect shall be taken as:

$$Q = \sum \eta_i \gamma_i Q_i \quad (\text{A11.18})$$

where:

- η_i = load modifier specified in Article 1.3.2
- γ_i = load factors specified in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2, unless specified elsewhere
- Q_i = force effects from loads specified herein.

11.13.4.2. Decks Supporting Concrete Parapet Railings

For Design Case 1, the deck overhang may be designed to provide a flexural resistance, M_s in N-mm/mm which, acting coincident with the tensile force T in N/mm, specified herein, exceeds M_c of the parapet at its base. The axial tensile force, T , may be taken as:

$$T = \frac{R_w}{L_c + 2H} \quad (\text{A11.19})$$

where:

- R_w = parapet resistance specified in Article 11.13.3.1 (N)
- L_c = critical length of yield line failure pattern (mm)
- H = height of wall (mm)
- T = tensile force per unit of deck length (N/mm)

- C If the deck overhang capacity is less than that specified, the yield line failure mechanism for the parapet may not develop as shown in Figure A11.6, and Eqs. (A11.6) and (A11.7) will not be correct.
- C The crash testing program is oriented toward survival, not necessarily the identification of the ultimate strength of the railing system. This could produce a railing system that is significantly over-designed, leading to the possibility that the deck overhang is also over-designed.

Design of the deck overhang for the vertical forces specified in Design Case 2 shall be based on the overhanging portion of the deck.

11.13.4.3. Decks Supporting Post-and-Beam Railings

1. Overhang Design

For Design Case 1, the moment per mm, M_d , and thrust per mm of deck, T , may be taken as:

$$M_d = \frac{M_{post}}{W_b + d_b} \quad (A11.20)$$

$$T = \frac{P_p}{W_b + d_b} \quad (A11.21)$$

For Design Case 2, the punching shear force and overhang moment may be taken as:

$$p_v = \frac{F_v L}{L_v} \quad (A11.22)$$

$$M_d = \frac{P_v X}{b} \quad (A11.23)$$

in which:

$$b = 2X + W_b \leq L \quad (A11.24)$$

where:

M_{pos} = plastic moment resistance of single post (N.mm)

t

P_p = shear corresponding to M_{post} (N)

x = distance from the outside edge of the post base plate to the section under investigation, as specified in [Figure A11.11](#) (mm)

W_b = width of base plate (mm)

T = tensile force in deck (N/mm)

d_b = distance from the outer edge of the base plate to the innermost row of bolts, as shown in [Figure A11.11](#) (mm)

L = post spacing (mm)

L_v = longitudinal distribution of vertical force F , on top of railing (mm)

F_v = vertical force of vehicle laying on top of rail after impact forces F_t and F_L are over (N)

- C Vehicle collision on the beam and post railing systems, such as a metal system with wide flange or tubular posts, imposes large concentrated forces and moments on the deck at the point where the post is attached to the deck.
- C Previous editions of the Standard Specifications distributed railing or post loads to the slab using similar simplified analysis, e.g., "The effective length of slab resisting post loadings shall be equal to $E = 0.8 x + 1140$ mm where no parapet is used and equal to $E = 0.8 x + 1520$ mm where a parapet is used, where x is the distance in mm from the center of the post to the point under investigation."

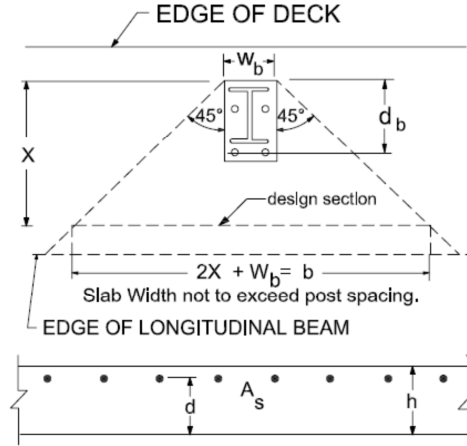


Figure A11.11: Effective Length of Cantilever for Carrying Concentrated Post Loads, Transverse or Vertical.

2. Resistance to Punching Shear

For Design Case 1, the factored shear may be taken as:

$$V_u = A_f F_y \quad (\text{A11.25})$$

The factored resistance of deck overhangs to punching shear may be taken as:

$$V_r = \phi V_n \quad (\text{A11.26})$$

$$V_n = V_c \left[W_b + h + 2 \left(E + \frac{B}{2} + \frac{h}{2} \right) \right] h \quad (\text{A11.27})$$

$$v_c = \left(0.166 + \frac{0.332}{\beta_c} \right) \sqrt{f'_c} \leq \phi 0.332 \sqrt{f'_c} \quad (\text{A11.28})$$

$$\frac{B}{2} + \frac{h}{2} \leq B \quad (\text{A11.29})$$

in which:

$$\beta_c = W_b / d_b \quad (\text{A11.30})$$

where:

V_u = factored shear force at section (N)

A_f = area of post compression flange (mm^2)

F_y = yield strength of post compression flange (MPa)

V_r = factored shear resistance (N)

V_n = nominal shear resistance of the section considered (N)

v_c = nominal shear resistance provided by tensile stresses in the concrete (N)

W_b = width of base plate (mm)

b = length of deck resisting post strength or shear load = $h + W_b$

- h = depth of slab (mm)
 E = distance from edge of slab to centroid of compressive stress resultant in post (mm)
 B = distance between centroids of tensile and compressive stress resultants in post (mm)
 β_c = ratio of the long side to the short side of the concentrated load or reaction area
 f'_c = 28-day compressive strength of concrete (MPa)
 ϕ = resistance factor = 1.0
 d_b = distance from the outer edge of the base plate to the innermost row of bolts as shown in [Figure A11.11](#) (mm).

The assumed distribution of forces for punching shear shall be as shown in [Figure A11.12](#).

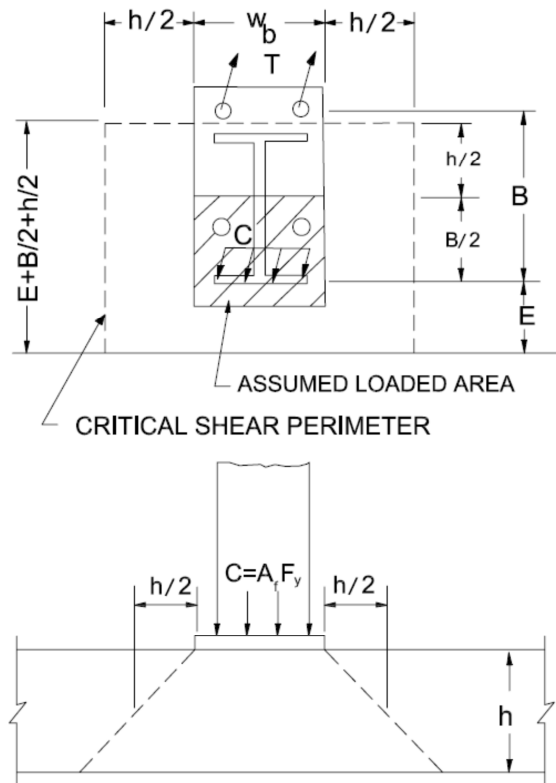


Figure A11.12: Punching Shear Failure Mode.

- C Concrete slabs or decks frequently fail in punching shear resulting from the force in the compression flange of the post, C . Adequate thickness, h , edge distance, E , or base plate size (W_b or B or thickness) should be provided to resist this type failure.
- C Test results and in-service experience have shown that where deck failures have occurred, the failure mode has been a punching shear-type failure with loss of structural integrity between the concrete and reinforcing steel. Use of various types of shear reinforcement may increase the ultimate strength

of the post-deck connection but is ineffective in reducing shear, diagonal tension, or cracking in the deck. Shear resistance can be increased by increasing the slab thickness, base plate width and depth, or edge distance.

SECTION 12. JOINTS AND BEARINGS

12.1. SCOPE

This Section contains requirements for the design and selection of structural bearings and deck joints.

Units used in this Section shall be taken as N, mm, rad., °C, and Shore Hardness, unless otherwise noted.

12.2. DEFINITIONS

- Bearing* : A structural device that transmits loads while facilitating translation and/or rotation.
- Bearing Joint* : A deck joint provided at bearings and other deck supports to facilitate horizontal translation and rotation of abutting structural elements. It may or may not provide for differential vertical translation of these elements.
- Bronze Bearing* : A bearing in which displacements or rotations take place by the sliding of a bronze surface against a mating surface.
- Cotton-Duck-Reinforced Pad (CDP)* : A pad made from closely spaced layers of elastomer and cotton-duck, bonded together during vulcanization.
- Closed Joint* : A deck joint designed to prevent the passage of debris through the joint and to safeguard pedestrian and cycle traffic.
- Compression Seal* : A preformed elastomeric device that is precompressed in the gap of a joint with expected total range of movement less than 50 mm.
- Construction Joint* : A temporary joint used to permit sequential construction.
- Cycle-Control Joint* : A transverse approach slab joint designed to permit longitudinal cycling of integral bridges and attached approach slabs.
- Damper* : A device that transfers and reduces forces between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements, while permitting thermal movements. The device provides damping by dissipating energy under seismic, braking, or other dynamic loads.
- Deck Joint* : A structural discontinuity between two elements, at least one of which is a deck element. It is designed to permit relative translation and/or rotation of abutting structural elements.

<i>Disc Bearing</i>	: A bearing that accommodates rotation by deformation of a single elastomeric disc molded from a urethane compound. It may be movable, guided, unguided, or fixed. Movement is accommodated by sliding of polished stainless steel on PFTE.
<i>Double Cylindrical Bearing</i>	: A bearing made from two cylindrical bearings placed on top of each other with their axes at right angles to facilitate rotation about any horizontal axis.
<i>Fiberglass-Reinforced Pad (FGP)</i>	: A pad made from discrete layers of elastomer and woven fiberglass bonded together during vulcanization.
<i>Fixed Bearing</i>	: A bearing that prevents differential longitudinal translation of abutting structural elements. It may or may not provide for differential lateral translation or rotation.
<i>Integral Bridge</i>	: A bridge without deck joints.
<i>Joint</i>	: A structural discontinuity between two elements. The structural members used to frame or form the discontinuity.
<i>Joint Seal</i>	: A poured or preformed elastomeric device designed to prevent moisture and debris from penetrating joints.
<i>Knuckle Bearing</i>	: A bearing in which a concave metal surface rocks on a convex metal surface to provide rotation capability about any horizontal axis.
<i>Longitudinal</i>	: Parallel with the main span direction of a structure.
<i>Longitudinal Joint</i>	: A joint parallel to the span direction of a structure provided to separate a deck or superstructure into two independent structural systems.
<i>Metal Rocker or Roller Bearing</i>	: A bearing that carries vertical load by direct contact between two metal surfaces and that accommodates movement by rocking or rolling of one surface with respect to the other.
<i>Movable Bearing</i>	: A bearing that facilitates differential horizontal translation of abutting structural elements in a longitudinal and/or lateral direction. It may or may not provide for rotation.
<i>Multirotational Bearing</i>	: A bearing consisting of a rotational element of the pot type, disc type, or spherical type when used as a fixed bearing and that may, in addition, have sliding surfaces to accommodate translation when used as an expansion bearing. Translation may be constrained to a specified direction by guide bars.
<i>Neutral Point</i>	: The point about which all of the cyclic volumetric changes of a structure take place.

<i>Open Joint</i>	: A joint designed to permit the passage of water and debris through the joint.
<i>Plain Elastomeric Pad (PEP)</i>	: A pad made exclusively of elastomer, which provides limited translation and rotation.
<i>Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)</i>	: Also known as Teflon.
<i>Pot Bearing</i>	: A bearing that carries vertical load by compression of an elastomeric disc confined in a steel cylinder and that accommodates rotation by deformation of the disc.
<i>Poured Seal</i>	: A seal made from a material that remains flexible (asphaltic, polymeric, or other), which is poured into the gap of a joint and is expected to adhere to the sides of the gap. Typically used only when expected total range of movement is less than 40 mm.
<i>PTFE Sliding Bearing</i>	: A bearing that carries vertical load through contact stresses between a PTFE sheet or woven fabric and its mating surface, and that permits movements by sliding of the PTFE over the mating surface.
<i>Relief Joint</i>	: A deck joint, usually transverse, that is designed to minimize either unintended composite action or the effect of differential horizontal movement between a deck and its supporting structural system.
<i>Restrainers</i>	: A system of high-strength cables or rods that transfers forces between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements under seismic or other dynamic loads after an initial slack is taken up, while permitting thermal movements.
<i>Root Mean Square</i>	: RMS
<i>Rotation about the Longitudinal Axis</i>	: Rotation about an axis parallel to the main span direction of the bridge.
<i>Rotation about the Transverse Axis</i>	: Rotation about an axis parallel to the transverse axis of the bridge.
<i>Sealed Joint</i>	: A joint provided with a joint seal.

<i>Shock Transmission Unit (STU)</i>	: A device that provides a temporary rigid link between superstructure elements and/or superstructure and substructure elements under seismic, braking, or other dynamic loads, while permitting thermal movements.
<i>Single-Support-Bar System (SSB)</i>	: A MBJS designed so that only one support bar is connected to all of the centerbeams. The centerbeam/support bar connection typically consists of a yoke through which the support bar slides.
<i>Sliding Bearing</i>	: A bearing that accommodates movement by translation of one surface relative to another.
<i>Steel-Reinforced Elastomeric Bearing</i>	: A bearing made from alternate laminates of steel and elastomer bonded together during vulcanization. Vertical loads are carried by compression of the elastomer. Movements parallel to the reinforcing layers and rotations are accommodated by deformation of the elastomer.
<i>Strip Seal</i>	: A sealed joint with an extruded elastomeric seal retained by edgebeams that are anchored to the structural elements (deck, abutment, etc). Typically used for expected total movement ranges from 40 to 100 mm, although single seals capable of spanning a 125 mm gap are also available.
<i>Translation</i>	: Horizontal movement of the bridge in the longitudinal or transverse direction.
<i>Transverse</i>	: The horizontal direction normal to the longitudinal axis of the bridge.
<i>Waterproofed Joints</i>	: Open or closed joints that have been provided with some form of trough below the joint to contain and conduct deck discharge away from the structure.
<i>Welded Multiple-Support-Bar System (WMSB)</i>	: A MBJS designed so that each support bar is welded to only one centerbeam. Although some larger WMSB systems have been built and are performing well, WMSB systems are typically impractical for more than nine seals or for movement ranges larger than 675 mm.

12.3. NOTATION

A	= plan area of elastomeric element or bearing (mm^2)
a_{cr}	= creep deflection divided by initial dead load deflection (dim.)
A_{wbot}	= area of weld at the bottom (mm^2)
A_{wmid}	= minimum cross-sectional area of weld (mm^2)
A_{wtop}	= area of weld at the top (mm^2)

B	= length of pad if rotation is about its transverse axis or width of pad if rotation is about its longitudinal axis (mm)
c	= minimum vertical clearance between rotating and nonrotating parts (mm), design clearance between piston and pot (mm)
D	= diameter of the projection of the loaded surface of the bearing in the horizontal plane (mm); diameter of pad (mm)
D_d	= diameter of the disc element (mm)
D_P	= internal pot diameter of pot bearing (mm)
D_l	= diameter of the rocker or roller surface (mm)
D_2	= diameter of the mating surface, positive if the curvatures have the same sign, infinite if the mating surface is flat (mm)
d	= diameter of rocker or roller (mm); the diameter of the hole or holes in the bearing (mm)
d_{cb}	= depth of the centerbeam (mm)
d_{sb}	= depth of the support bar (mm)
E_c	= effective modulus of elastomeric bearing in compression (MPa); uniaxial compressive stiffness of the CDP (Cotton Duck Pad) bearing pad. It may be taken as 207 MPa in lieu of pad specific test data (MPa)
E_s	= Young's modulus for steel (MPa)
F_y	= specified minimum yield strength of the weakest steel at the contact surface (MPa); yield strength of steel (MPa); yield strength of steel reinforcement (MPa)
G	= shear modulus of the elastomer (MPa); shear modulus of the CDP (MPa)
H_{bu}	= lateral load transmitted to the superstructure and substructure by bearings from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations in Table 3.1 (N)
H_s	= horizontal load from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (N)
H_u	= lateral load from applicable strength and extreme load combinations in Table 3.1 (N)
h_{max}	= thickness of thickest elastomeric layer in elastomeric bearing (mm)
h_{p1}	= pot cavity depth (mm)
h_{p2}	= vertical clearance between top of piston and top of pot wall for a pot bearing (mm)
h_r	= depth of elastomeric disc for a pot bearing (mm)

h_{ri}	=	thickness of the elastomeric layer in elastomeric bearing (mm)
h_{rt}	=	total elastomer thickness (mm); smaller of total elastomer or bearing thickness (mm)
h_s	=	thickness of steel reinforcement (mm)
h_w	=	height of weld (mm); height from top of rim to underside of piston for a pot bearing (mm)
I	=	moment of inertia of plan shape of bearing (mm ⁴)
K	=	rotational stiffness of CDP (N-mm/rad.)
L	=	projected length of the sliding surface perpendicular to the rotation axis (mm); length of a rectangular elastomeric bearing (parallel to longitudinal bridge axis) (mm); length of a CDP bearing pad in the plane of rotation (mm)
M_H	=	horizontal bending moment range in the centerbeam on the critical section located at the weld toe due to horizontal force range (N-mm)
M_{OT}	=	overturning moment range from horizontal reaction force (N-mm)
M_V	=	vertical bending moment range in the centerbeam on the critical section located at the weld toe due to the vertical force range (N-mm); component of vertical bending moment range in the support bar due to the vertical reaction force range in the connection located on the critical section at the weld toe (N-mm)
M_u	=	moment transmitted to the superstructure and substructure by bearings from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations (N-mm)
m	=	modification factor
n	=	the number of centerbeams; number of interior layers of elastomer
P_D	=	compressive load at the service limit state (load factor = 1.0) due to permanent loads (N)
P_S	=	total compressive load from applicable service load combinations (N)
P_u	=	compressive force from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations (N)
p	=	allowable bearing at the service limit state (MPa.)
R	=	radius of curved sliding surface (mm)
R_H	=	horizontal reaction force range in the connection (N)
R_o	=	radial distance from center of pot to object in question (ex., pot wall, anchor bolt, etc.) (mm)
R_V	=	vertical reaction force range in the connection (N)

r	= length of pad if rotation is about its transverse axis or width of pad if rotation is about its longitudinal axis (mm)
S	= shape factor of the CDP pad computed based on Eq. (12.37) and based on total pad thickness; shape factor of an individual elastomer layer; shape factor of thickest layer of an elastomeric bearing.
S_i	= shape factor of the i^{th} layer of an elastomeric bearing
S_{RB}	= combined bending stress range in the centerbeam (MPa); bending stress range in the support bar due to maximum moment including moment from vertical reaction and overturning at the connection (MPa)
S_{RZ}	= vertical stress range in the top of the centerbeam-to-support-bar weld from the concurrent reaction of the support beam (MPa); vertical stress range in the bottom of the centerbeam-to-support-bar weld from the vertical and horizontal reaction force ranges in the connection (MPa)
S_{Wbot}	= section modulus of the weld at the bottom for bending in the direction of the support bar axis (mm^3)
S_{Wmid}	= section modulus of the weld at the most narrow cross-section for bending in the direction normal to the centerbeam axis (mm^3)
S_{Wtop}	= section modulus of the weld at the top for bending in the direction normal to the centerbeam axis (mm^3)
S_{Xcb}	= vertical section modulus to the bottom of centerbeam (mm^3)
S_{Xsb}	= vertical section modulus of the support bar to the top of support bar (mm^3)
S_{Ycb}	= horizontal section modulus of the centerbeam (mm^3)
t_b	= pot base thickness (mm)
t_p	= total thickness in CDP pad (mm)
t_w	= pot wall thickness (mm)
W	= roadway surface gap in a transverse deckjoint. measured in the direction of travel at the extreme movement determined using the appropriate strength load combination specified in Table 3.1 (mm); width of the bearing in the transverse direction (mm); length of cylinder (mm); length of cylindrical surface (mm.); width of the bearing in the transverse direction (mm.)
w	= height of piston rim in pot bearing (mm)
β	= angle between the vertical and resultant applied load (rad.)
ΔF_{TH}	= constant amplitude fatigue threshold (MPa); constant amplitude fatigue threshold for Category A.

Δf	=	force effect, design live load stress range due to the simultaneous application of vertical and horizontal axle loads (MPa)
Δ_O	=	maximum horizontal displacement of the bridge superstructure at the service limit state (mm)
Δ_T	=	design thermal movement range (mm)
Δ_S	=	maximum total shear deformation of the elastomer from applicable service load combinations (mm); maximum total shear deformation of the bearing from applicable service load combinations (mm)
Δ_u	=	shear deformation from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations in Table 3.1 (mm)
δ	=	instantaneous compressive deflection of bearing (mm)
δ_d	=	initial dead load compressive deflection of bearing (mm)
δ_L	=	instantaneous live load compressive deflection of bearing (mm)
δ_{lt}	=	long term dead load compressive deflection of bearing (mm)
δ_u	=	vertical deflection from applicable strength load combinations in Table 3.1 (mm)
ε	=	compressive strain in an elastomer layer of a laminated bearing
ε_c	=	maximum uniaxial strain due to compression under total load from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 .
ε_{di}	=	initial dead load compressive strain in <i>i</i> th elastomer layer of a laminated bearing
ε_{Li}	=	instantaneous live load compressive strain in <i>i</i> th elastomer layer of a laminated bearing
ε_s	=	average compressive strain due to total load from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 .
ε_t	=	maximum uniaxial strain due to combined compression and rotation from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 .
θ_L	=	maximum rotation of the CDP pad at the service limit state (load factor = 1.0) due to live load (rad.)
θ_s	=	maximum service limit state rotation due to total load for bearings unlikely to experience hard contact between metal components (rad.); maximum service limit state design rotation angle (rad.); maximum rotation of the CDP pad from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (rad.); maximum service limit state design rotation angle about any axis of the pad (rad.)
$\theta_{s,x}$	=	maximum service limit state design rotation angle about transverse axis (rad.)

$\theta_{s,z}$	= maximum service limit state design rotation angle about longitudinal axis (rad.)
θ_u	= maximum strength limit state rotation for bearings that may experience hard contact between metal components (rad.); maximum strength limit state rotation for bearings which are less likely to experience hard contact between metal components (rad.); design rotation from applicable strength load combinations in Table 3.1 (rad.); maximum strength limit state design rotation angle (rad.); maximum strength limit state design rotation angle (rad.)
μ	= coefficient of friction; coefficient of friction of the PTFE slider.
σ	= instantaneous live load compressive stress or dead load compressive stress in an individual elastomer layer (MPa)
σ_L	= average compressive stress at the service limit state (load factor = 1.6) due to live load (MPa)
σ_s	= average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (MPa); average compressive stress due to total load associated with the maximum rotation from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (MPa)
σ_{SS}	= maximum average contact stress at the strength limit state permitted on PTFE by Table 12.3 or on bronze by Table 12.8 (MPa)
σ_u	= factored average compressive stress (MPa)
ϕ	= resistance factor
$\phi_{tension}$	= resistance factor for tension for anchors governed by the steel
ϕ_{shear}	= resistance factor for shear for anchors governed by the steel
$\phi_{A\ tension}$	= resistance factor for tension for anchors governed by the concrete, Condition A, supplemental reinforcement in the failure area
$\phi_{A\ shear}$	= resistance factor for shear for anchors governed by the concrete, Condition A, supplemental reinforcement in the failure area
$\phi_{B\ tension}$	= resistance factor for tension for anchors governed by the concrete, Condition B, no supplemental reinforcement in the failure area
$\phi_{B\ shear}$	= resistance factor for shear for anchors governed by the concrete, Condition B, no supplemental reinforcement in the failure area
Ψ	= subtended semiangle of the curved surface (rad.)

12.4. MOVEMENTS AND LOADS

12.4.1. General

The selection and layout of the joints and bearings shall allow for deformations due to temperature and other time-dependent causes and shall be consistent with the proper functioning of the bridge.

- C The joints and bearings should allow movements due to temperature changes, creep and shrinkage, elastic shortening due to prestressing, traffic loading, construction tolerances or other effects. If these movements are restrained, large horizontal forces may result. If the bridge deck is cast-in-place concrete, the bearings at a single support should permit transverse expansion and contraction. Externally applied transverse loads such as wind, earthquake, or traffic braking forces may be carried either on a small number of bearings near the centerline of the bridge or by an independent guide system. The latter is likely to be needed if the horizontal forces are large and fusing or irreparable damage is not permitted.
- C See commentary in Article [12.6.5.3](#) for discussion concerning bearings which are designed to act as fuses at the extreme event limit state.

Deck joints and bearings shall be designed to resist loads and accommodate movements at the service and strength limit states and to satisfy the requirements of the fatigue and fracture limit state. The loads induced on the joints, bearings, and structural members depend on the stiffness of the individual elements and the tolerances achieved during fabrication and erection. These influences shall be taken into account when calculating design loads for the elements. No damage due to joint or bearing movement shall be permitted at the service limit state, and no irreparable damage shall occur at the strength limit or extreme event states. At the extreme event limit state, bearings which are designed to act as fuses or sustain irreparable damage may be permitted by the Owner provided loss of span is prevented.

- C Distribution of vertical load among bearings may adversely affect individual bearings. This is particularly critical when the girders are stiff in bending and torsion and bearings are stiff in compression, and the construction method does not allow minor misalignments to be corrected.
- C Bridge movements arise from a number of different causes. Simplified estimates of bridge movements, particularly on bridges with complex geometry, may lead to improper estimation of the direction of motion and, as a result, an improper selection of the bearing or joint system. Curved and skewed bridges have transverse as well as longitudinal movement due to temperature effects and creep or shrinkage. Transverse movement of the superstructure relative to the substructure may become significant for very wide bridges. Relatively wide curved and skewed bridges often undergo significant diagonal thermal movement, which introduces large transverse movements or large transverse forces if the bridge is restrained against such movements. Rotations caused by permissible levels of misalignment during installation should also be considered, and in many cases they will be larger than the live load rotations.

In the designing and detailing of deck joints and bearings, the following shall be considered:

- (a) the properties of the materials in the structure, including the coefficient of thermal expansion, the modulus of elasticity, Poisson's ratio, elastic shortening, creep, and shrinkage;
- (b) the effective temperature range of the structure;
- (c) the sizes of the structural members in contact with the bearings;
- (d) the method and sequence of construction;
- (e) the anticipated tilt, settlement, and movement of supports;
- (f) the construction tolerances;
- (g) the static and dynamic response of the structure;
- (h) the interaction of the force effects to which the structure could be subjected, including those due to dead and live loads, wind, earthquake, and earth pressures;

- (i) the structural restraints; and
- (j) inspection and maintenance requirements.

In all cases, both short-term and long-term effects shall be considered.

The most adverse combination shall be tabulated for the bearings in a rational form such as shown in [Table 12.1](#).

The effects of curvature, skew, rotations, and support restraint shall be recognized in the analysis.

The forces resulting from transverse or longitudinal prestressing of the concrete deck or steel girders shall be considered in the design of the bearings.

- C The neutral axis of a girder that acts compositely with its bridge deck is typically close to the underside of the deck. As a result, the neutral axis of the beam and the center of rotation of the bearing seldom coincide. Under these conditions, end rotation of the girder induces either horizontal movements or forces at the bottom flange or bearing level. The location of bearings off the neutral axes of the girders can create horizontal forces due to elastic shortening of the girders when subjected to vertical loads.
- C The failure of bridge bearings or joint seals may ultimately lead to deterioration or damage to the bridge.
- C When integral piers or abutments are used, the substructure and superstructure are connected such that additional restraints against superstructure rotation are introduced.
- C In curved bridges, thermal stresses are minimized when bearings are oriented such that they permit free translation along rays from a single point. With bearings arranged to permit such movement along these rays, there will be no thermal forces generated when the superstructure temperature changes uniformly. Any other orientation of the bearings will induce thermal forces into the superstructure and substructure. However, other considerations often make impractical the orientation along rays from a single point.
- C Prestressing of the deck causes changes in the vertical reactions due to the eccentricity of the forces, which creates restoring forces. Effects of creep and shrinkage also should be considered.

Table 12.1: Typical Bridge Bearing Schedule.

Bridge name or ref.			
Bearing identification mark			
Number of bearings required			
Seating material	Upper surface		
	Lower surface		
Permitted average contact pressure	Service limit state	Upper face	
		Lower face	
Design load effects (N)	Service limit state	Vertical	max.
			perm.
			min.
		Transverse	
		Longitudinal	
	Strength limit state	Vertical	
		Transverse	
		Longitudinal	
Translation	Service limit state	Irreversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
		Reversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
	Strength limit state	Irreversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
		Reversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
Rotation (rad.)	Service limit state	Irreversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
		Reversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
	Strength limit state	Irreversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
		Reversible	Transverse
			Longitudinal
Maximum bearing Dimensions (mm)	Upper surface	Transverse	
		Longitudinal	
	Lower surface	Transverse	
		Longitudinal	
	Overall height		
Tolerable movement of bearing under transient loads (mm)		Vertical	
		Transverse	
		Longitudinal	
Permitted resistance to translation under strength or service limit state as applicable (N)		Transverse	
		Longitudinal	
Allowable resistance to rotation under service limit state (N/mm)		Transverse	
		Longitudinal	
Type of attachment to structure and substructure		Transverse	
		Longitudinal	

12.4.2. Design Requirements

The minimum thermal movements shall be computed from the extreme temperature specified in Article 3.11.2 and the estimated setting temperatures.

Design loads shall be based on the load combinations and load factors specified in Section 3.

- C Rotations are considered at the service and strength limit states as appropriate for different types of bearings. Bearings must accommodate movements in addition to supporting loads, so factored displacements, and in particular factored rotations, are needed for design. Live load rotations are typically less than 0.005 rad., but the total rotation due to fabrication and setting tolerances for seats, bearings, and girders may be significantly larger than this. Therefore, the total design rotation is found by summing rotations due to dead and live load and adding allowances for profile grade effects and the tolerances described above. Article 12.6.7.2 specifies when a tapered plate shall be used if the rotation due to unfactored permanent load at service limit state (load factor = 1.0) becomes excessive. An owner may reduce the fabrication and setting tolerance allowances if justified by a suitable quality control plan; therefore, these tolerance limits are stated as recommendations rather than absolute limits.
- C Failure of deformable components such as elastomeric bearings is generally governed by a gradual deterioration under many cycles of load rather than sudden failure under a single load application. Further, the design limits for elastomeric bearings were originally developed under ASD service load conditions rather than the strength limit state loads considered during development of the high load multirotational bearing systems. As a result, such bearings are permitted temporary overstress during construction. If this was not so, temporary local uplift caused by light load and a large rotation might unreasonably govern the design. Unless smaller tolerances can be justified, θ_s for elastomeric components is the service limit state rotation plus 0.005 rad.
- C Metal or concrete components are susceptible to damage under a single rotation that causes metal-to-metal contact, and so they must be designed using the strength limit state rotations. Unless smaller tolerances can be justified, θ_u is the strength limit state rotation plus 0.01 rad.
- C Disc bearings are less likely to experience metal-to-metal contact than other High Load Multirotational (HLMR) bearings because the load element is unconfined. As a result, the total allowance for rotation is consequently smaller for a disc bearing than other HLMR bearings; however, the proofload test, as specified in the MA-100-C-V1/1, assures against metal-to-metal contact.

12.4.2.1. Elastomeric Pads and Steel Reinforced Elastomeric Bearings

The maximum service limit state rotation due to total load, θ_s , for bearings unlikely to experience hard contact between metal components shall be taken as the sum of:

- The rotations from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1;
- An allowance for uncertainties, which shall be taken as 0.005 rad. unless an approved quality control plan justifies a smaller value.

12.4.2.2. High Load Multi-rotational (HLMR) Bearings

1. Pot Bearings and Curved Sliding Surface Bearings

The strength limit state rotation, θ_u , for bearings such as pot bearings and curved sliding surfaces that may potentially experience hard contact between metal components shall be taken as the sum of:

- The rotations from applicable strength load combinations in Table 3.1;
- The maximum rotation caused by fabrication and installation tolerances, which shall be taken as 0.005 rad. unless an approved quality control plan justifies a smaller value; and
- An allowance for uncertainties, which shall be taken as 0.005 rad. unless an approved quality control plan justifies a smaller value.

2. Disc Bearings

The strength limit state rotation, θ_u , for disc bearings which are less likely to experience hard contact between metal components due to their unconfined load element, shall be taken as the sum of:

- The rotations from applicable strength load combinations in [Table 3.1](#);
- An allowance for uncertainties, which shall be taken as 0.005 rad. unless an approved quality control plan justifies a smaller value.

12.5. DECK JOINTS

12.5.1. Requirements

12.5.1.1. General

Deck joints shall consist of components arranged to accommodate the translation and rotation of the structure at the joint.

The type of joints and surface gaps shall accommodate the movement of motorcycles, bicycles, and pedestrians, as required, and shall neither significantly impair the riding characteristics of the roadway nor cause damage to vehicles.

The joints shall be detailed to prevent damage to the structure from water, deicing chemicals, and roadway debris.

Longitudinal deck joints shall be provided only where necessary to modify the effects of differential lateral and/or vertical movement between the superstructure and substructure.

- C To accommodate differential lateral movement, elastomeric bearings or combination bearings with the capacity for lateral movement should be used instead of longitudinal joints where practical.

Joints and joint anchors for grid decks and orthotropic deck superstructures require special details.

12.5.1.2. Structural Design

Joints and their supports shall be designed to withstand force effects for the appropriate design limit state or states over the range of movements for the appropriate design limit state or states, as specified in [Section 3](#). Resistance factors and modifiers shall be taken as specified in [Section 1](#), [Section 5](#) and [Section 6](#), as appropriate.

The following factors shall be considered in determining force effects and movements:

- Properties of materials in the structure, including coefficient of thermal expansion, modulus of elasticity, and Poisson's ratio;
- Effects of temperature, creep, and shrinkage;
- Sizes of structural components;
- Construction tolerances;
- Method and sequence of construction;
- Skew and curvature;
- Resistance of the joints to movements;
- Approach pavement growth;
- Substructure movements due to embankment construction;

- Foundation movements associated with the consolidation and stabilization of subsoils;
 - Structural restraints; and
 - Static and dynamic structural responses and their interaction.
- C Superstructure movements include those due to placement of bridge decks, volumetric changes, such as shrinkage, temperature, moisture and creep, passage of vehicular and pedestrian traffic, pressure of wind, and the action of earthquakes. Substructure movements include differential settlement of piers and abutments, tilting, flexure, and horizontal translation of wall-type abutments responding to the placement of backfill as well as shifting of stub abutments due to the consolidation of embankments and insitu soils.
- C Any horizontal movement of a bridge superstructure will be opposed by the resistance of bridge bearings to movement and the rigidity or flexural resistance of substructure elements. The rolling resistance of rocker and rollers, the shear resistance of elastomeric bearings, or the frictional resistance of bearing sliding surfaces will oppose movement. In addition, the rigidity of abutments and the relative flexibility of piers of various heights and foundation types will affect the magnitude of bearing movement and the bearing forces opposing movement.
- C Rigid approach pavements composed of cobblestone, brick, or jointed concrete will experience growth or substantial longitudinal pressure due to restrained growth. To protect bridge structures from these potentially destructive pressures and to preserve the movement range of deck joints and the performance of joint seals, either effective pavement pressure relief joints or pavement anchors should be provided in approach pavements, as described in [Transportation Research Record 1113](#).
- C When horizontal movements at the ends of a superstructure are due to volumetric changes, the forces generated within the structure in resistance to these changes are balanced. The neutral point can be located by estimating these forces, taking into account the relative resistance of bearings and substructures to movement. The length of superstructure contributing to movement at a particular joint can then be determined.

The length of superstructure affecting the movement at one of its joints shall be the length from the joint being considered to the structure's neutral point.

For a curved superstructure that is laterally unrestrained by guided bearings, the direction of longitudinal movement at a bearing joint may be assumed to be parallel to the chord of the deck centerline taken from the joint to the neutral point of the structure.

The potential for unaligned longitudinal and rotational movement of the superstructure at a joint should be considered in designing the vertical joints in curbs and raised barriers and in determining the appropriate position and orientation of closure or bridging plates.

12.5.1.3. Geometry

The moving surfaces of the joint shall be designed to work in concert with the bearings to avoid binding the joints and adversely affecting force effects imposed on bearings.

- C For square or slightly skewed bridge layouts, moderate roadway grades at the joint and minimum changes in both horizontal and vertical joint alignment may be preferred in order to simplify the movements of joints and to enhance the performance of the structure.

12.5.1.4. Materials

The materials shall be selected so as to ensure that they are elastically, thermally, and chemically compatible. Where substantial differences exist, material interfaces shall be formulated to provide fully functional systems.

- C Preference should be given to those materials that are least sensitive to field compounding and installation variables and to those that can be repaired and altered by non-specialized maintenance forces. Preference should also be given to those components and devices that will likely be available when replacements are needed.

Materials, other than elastomers, should have a service life of not less than 75 years. Elastomers for joint seals and troughs should provide a service life not less than 25 years.

Joints exposed to traffic should have a skid-resistant surface treatment, and all parts shall be resistant to attrition and vehicular impact.

Except for high-strength bolts, fasteners for joints exposed to de-icing chemicals shall be made of stainless steel.

12.5.1.5. Maintenance

Deck joints shall be designed to operate with a minimum of maintenance for the design life of the bridge.

Detailing should permit access to the joints from below the deck and provide sufficient area for maintenance.

- C The position of bearings, structural components, joints and abutment backwalls, and the configuration of pier tops should be chosen so as to provide sufficient space and convenient access to joints from below the deck. Inspection hatches, ladders, platforms, and/or catwalks shall be provided for the deck joints of large bridges not directly accessible from the ground.

Mechanical and elastomeric components of the joint shall be replaceable.

Joints shall be designed to facilitate vertical extension to accommodate roadway overlays.

12.5.2. Selection

12.5.2.1. Number of Joints

The number of movable deck joints in a structure should be minimized. Preference shall be given to continuous deck systems and superstructures and, where appropriate, integral bridges.

- C Integral bridges, bridges without movable deck joints, should be considered where the length of superstructure and flexibility of substructures are such that secondary stresses due to restrained movement are controlled within tolerable limits.

The need for a fully functional cycle-control joint shall be investigated on approaches of integral bridges.

- C Where a floorbeam design that can tolerate differential longitudinal movements resulting from relative temperature and live load response of the deck and independent supporting members, such as girders and trusses, is not practical, relief joints in the deck slab, movable joints in the stringers, and movable bearings between the stringers and floorbeams should be used.
- C Long-span deck-type structures with steel stringers that are slightly skewed, continuous, and composite can withstand substantial differential settlement without significant secondary stresses. Consequently, intermediate deckjoints are rarely necessary for multiple-span bridges supported by secure foundations, i.e., piles, bedrock, dense subsoils, etc. Because the stresses induced by settlement can alter the point of inflection, a more conservative control of fatigue-prone detail locations is appropriate.

Movable joints may be provided at abutments of single-span structures exposed to appreciable differential settlement. Intermediate deck joints should be considered for multiple-span bridges where differential settlement would result in significant overstresses.

- C Guidance on the movements of the substructure can be found in Articles [8.5.2](#), [8.6.2](#), [8.7.2](#) and [8.8.2](#).

12.5.2.2. Location of Joints

Deck joints should be avoided over roadways, railroads, sidewalks, other public areas, and at the low point of sag vertical curves.

- C Open joints with drainage troughs should not be placed where the use of horizontal drainage conductors would be necessary.

Deck joints should be positioned with respect to abutment backwalls and wingwalls to prevent the discharge of deck drainage that accumulates in the joint recesses onto bridge seats.

Open deck joints should be located only where drainage can be directed to bypass the bearings and discharged directly below the joint.

Closed or waterproof deck joints should be provided where joints are located directly above structural members and bearings that would be adversely affected by debris accumulation. Where deicing chemicals are used on bridge decks, sealed or waterproofed joints should be provided.

For straight bridges, the longitudinal elements of deck joints, such as plate fingers, curb and barrier plates, and modular bridge joint system support bars, should be placed parallel to the longitudinal axis of the deck. For curved and skewed structures, allowance shall be made for deck end movements consistent with that provided by the bearings.

- C End rotations of deck-type structures occur about axes that are roughly parallel to the centerline of bearings along the bridge seat. In skewed structures, these axes are not normal to the direction of longitudinal movement. Sufficient lateral clearances between plates, open joints, or elastomeric joint devices should be provided to prevent binding due to lack of alignment between longitudinal and rotational movements.

Where possible, modular bridge joint systems should not be located in the middle of curved bridges to avoid unforeseeable movement demands. Preferably, modular bridge joint systems should not be located near traffic signals or toll areas so as to avoid extreme braking forces.

12.5.3. Design Requirements

12.5.3.1. Movements during Construction

Where practicable, construction staging should be used to delay construction of abutments and piers located in or adjacent to embankments until the embankments have been placed and consolidated. Otherwise, deck joints should be sized to accommodate the probable abutment and pier movements resulting from embankment consolidation after their construction.

- C Where it is either desirable or necessary to accommodate settlement or other construction movements prior to deck joint installation and adjustment, the following construction controls may be used:
- Placing abutment embankment prior to pier and abutment excavation and construction,
 - Surcharging embankments to accelerate consolidation and adjustment of in-situ soils,
 - Backfilling wall-type abutments up to sub grade prior to placing bearings and backwalls above bridge seats, and
 - Using deck slab blockouts to allow placing the major portion of span dead loads prior to joint installation.

Closure pours in concrete structures may be used to minimize the effect of prestress-induced shortening on the width of seals and the size of bearings.

12.5.3.2. Design Movements

A roadway surface gap, W , in a transverse deck joint, measured in the direction of travel at the maximum movement determined using the appropriate strength load combination specified in [Table 3.1](#) shall satisfy:

For single gap:

$$W \leq 100 \text{ mm} \quad (12.1)$$

For multiple modular gaps:

$$W \leq 75 \text{ mm} \quad (12.2)$$

For steel superstructures, the minimum opening of a transverse deck joint and roadway surface gap therein shall not be less than 25 mm for movement determined using the appropriate strength load combination specified in [Table 3.1](#).

For concrete superstructures, consideration shall be given to the opening of joints due to creep and shrinkage that may require initial minimum openings of less than 25 mm at strength limit state.

Unless more appropriate criteria are available, the maximum surface gap of longitudinal roadway joints shall not exceed 25 mm at strength limit state.

At the maximum movement determined using the appropriate strength load combination specified in [Table 3.1](#), the opening between adjacent fingers on a finger plate shall not exceed:

- 50 mm for longitudinal openings greater than 200 mm, or
- 75 mm for longitudinal openings 200 mm or less.

C Safe operation of motorcycles is one of the prime considerations in choosing the size of openings for finger plate joints.

The finger overlap at the maximum movement shall be not less than 40 mm at strength limit state.

Where bicycles are anticipated in the roadway, the use of special covering floor plates in shoulder areas shall be considered.

12.5.3.3. Protection

Deck joints shall be designed to accommodate the effects of vehicular traffic, pavement maintenance equipment, and other long-term environmentally induced damage.

Joints in concrete decks should be armored with steel shapes, weldments, or castings. Such armor shall be recessed below roadway surfaces.

Jointed approach pavements shall be provided with pressure relief joints and/or pavement anchors. Approaches to integral bridges shall be provided with cycle control pavement joints.

12.5.3.4. Bridging Plates

Joint bridging plates and finger plates should be designed as cantilever members capable of supporting wheel loads at strength limit state.

The differential settlement between the two sides of a joint bridging plate shall be investigated. If the differential settlement cannot be either reduced to acceptable levels or accommodated in the design and detailing of the bridging plates and their supports, a more suitable joint should be used.

- C Where binding of bridging plates can occur at bearing joints due to differential vertical translation of abutting structural elements or due to the longitudinal movement of bridging plates and bearings on different planes, the plates can be subjected to the total dead and live load superstructure reaction. Where bridging plates are not capable of resisting such loads, they may fail and become a hazard to the movement of vehicular traffic.

Rigid bridging plates shall not be used at elastomeric bearings or hangers unless they are designed as cantilever members, and the contract documents require them to be installed to prevent binding of the joints due to horizontal and vertical movement at bearings.

- C Thick elastomeric bearings responding to the application of vertical load or short hangers responding to longitudinal deck movements may cause appreciable differential vertical translation of abutting structural elements at bearing joints. To accommodate such movements, an appropriate type of sealed joint or a waterproofed open joint, rather than a structural joint with rigid bridging plates or fingers, should be provided.

12.5.3.5. Armor

Joint-edge armor embedded in concrete substrates should be pierced by 20-mm minimum-diameter vertical vent holes spaced on not more than 460-mm centers.

- C Vent holes are necessary to help expel entrapped air and facilitate the attainment of a solid concrete substrate under joint edge armor.
- C The contract documents should require hand packing of concrete under joint armor.

Metal surfaces wider than 300 mm that are exposed to vehicular traffic shall be provided with an antiskid treatment.

12.5.3.6. Anchors

Armor anchors or shear connectors should be provided to ensure composite behavior between the concrete substrate and the joint hardware and to prevent subsurface corrosion by sealing the boundaries between the armor and concrete substrate.

Anchors for roadway joint armor shall be directly connected to structural supports or extended to effectively engage the reinforced concrete substrate.

The free edges of roadway armor, more than 75 mm from other anchors or attachments, shall be provided with 12.0-mm diameter end-welded studs not less than 100 mm long spaced at not more than 300 mm from other anchors or attachments. The edges of sidewalk and barrier armor shall be similarly anchored.

12.5.3.7. Bolts

Anchor bolts for bridging plates, joint seals, and joint anchors shall be fully torqued high-strength bolts.

- C Grouted anchors may be used for maintenance of existing joints.

The inter-bedding of non-metallic substrates in connections with high-strength bolts shall be avoided. Cast-in-place anchors shall be used in new concrete. Expansion anchors, countersunk anchor bolts, and grouted anchors shall not be used in new construction.

12.5.4. Fabrication

Shapes or plates shall be of sufficient thickness to stiffen the assembly and minimize distortion due to welding.

To ensure appropriate fit and function, the contract documents should require that:

- Joint components be fully assembled in the shop for inspection and approval,
- Joints and seals be shipped to the job-site fully assembled, and
- Assembled joints in lengths up to 18 000 mm be furnished without intermediate field splices.

- C Construction procedures and practices should be developed to allow joint adjustment for installation temperatures without altering the orientation of joint parts established during shop assembly.

12.5.5. Installation

12.5.5.1. Adjustment

The setting temperature of the bridge or any component thereof shall be taken as the actual air temperature averaged over the 24-hour period immediately preceding the setting event.

- C Except for short bridges where installation temperature variations would have only a negligible effect on joint width, plans for each expansion joint should include required joint installation widths for a range of probable installation temperatures. For concrete structures, use of a concrete thermometer and measurement of temperature in expansion joints between superstructure units may be considered.
- C An offset chart for installation of the expansion joints is recommended to account for uncertainty in the setting temperature at the time of design. The designer may provide offset charts in appropriate increments and include the chart on the design drawings. Placement of the expansion joint hardware during deck forming should accommodate differences between setting temperature and an assumed design installation temperature.

For long structures, an allowance shall be included in the specified joint widths to account for the inaccuracies inherent in establishing installation temperatures and for superstructure movements that may take place during the time between the setting of the joint width and completion of joint installation. In the design of joints for long structures, preference should be given to those devices, details, and procedures that will allow joint adjustment and completion in the shortest possible time.

Connections of joint supports to primary members should allow horizontal, vertical, and rotational adjustments.

Construction joints and blockouts should be used where practicable to permit the placement of backfill and the major structure components prior to joint placement and adjustment.

- C Construction procedures that will allow major structure dead load movements to occur prior to placement and adjustment of deck joints should be used.

12.5.5.2. Temporary Supports

Deck joints shall be furnished with temporary devices to support joint components in proper position until permanent connections are made or until encasing concrete has achieved an initial set. Such supports shall provide for adjustment of joint widths for variations in installation temperatures.

- C Temporary attachments should be released to avoid damaging anchorage encasements due to movement of superstructures responding to rapid temperature changes.

- C For long structures with steel primary members, instructions should be included in the contract documents to ensure the removal of temporary supports or release of their connections as soon as possible after concrete placement.

12.5.5.3. Field Splices

Joint designs shall include details for transverse field splices for staged construction and for joints longer than 18 000 mm. Where practicable, splices should be located outside of wheel paths and gutter areas.

Details in splices should be selected to maximize fatigue life.

Field splices provided for staged construction shall be located with respect to other construction joints to provide sufficient room to make splice connections.

- C Splices for less critical portions of joints or for lightly loaded joints should be provided with connections rigid enough to withstand displacement if joint armor is used as a form during concrete placement.

When a field splice is required, the contract documents should require that permanent seals not be placed until after joint installation has been completed.

Where practicable, only those seals that can be installed in one continuous piece should be used. Where field splicing is unavoidable, splices should be vulcanized.

12.5.6. Considerations for Specific Joint Types

12.5.6.1. Open Joints

Open deck joints shall permit the free flow of water through the joint. Open deck joints should not be used where deicing chemicals are applied. Piers and abutments at open joints shall satisfy the requirements of Article [2.6.2](#) in order to prevent the accumulation of water and debris.

- C Under certain conditions, open deck joints can provide an effective and economical solution. In general, open joints are well-suited for secondary highways where little sand and salt are applied during the winter. They are not suited for urban areas where the costs of provisions for deck joint drainage are high.
- C Satisfactory performance depends upon an effective deck drainage system, control of deck discharge through joints, and containment and disposal of runoff from the site. It is essential that surface drainage and roadway debris not be permitted to accumulate on any part of the structure below such joints.
- C Protection against the deleterious effects of deck drainage may include shaping structural surfaces to prevent the retention of roadway debris and providing surfaces with deflectors, shields, covers, and coatings.

12.5.6.2. Closed Joints

Sealed deck joints shall seal the surface of the deck, including curbs, sidewalks, medians, and, where necessary, parapet and barrier walls. The sealed deck joint shall prevent the accumulation of water and debris, which may restrict its operation. Closed or waterproof joints exposed to roadway drainage shall have structure surfaces below the joint shaped and protected as required for open joints.

- C Completely effective joint seals have yet to be developed for some situations, particularly where there are severely skewed joints with raised curbs or barriers, and especially where joints are subjected to substantial movements. Consequently, some type of open or closed joint, protected as appropriate, should be considered instead of a sealed joint.
- C Sheet and strip seals that are depressed below the roadway surface and that are shaped like gutters will fill with debris. They may burst upon closing, unless the joints that they seal are extended straight to the deck edges where accumulated water and debris can be discharged clear of the structure. To allow this extension and safe discharge, it may be necessary to move the backwalls and bridge seats

of some abutment types forward until the backwalls are flush with the wingwalls, or to reposition the wingwalls so that they do not obstruct the ends of the deck joints.

Joint seals should be watertight and extrude debris when closing.

Drainage accumulated in joint recesses and seal depressions shall not be discharged on bridge seats or other horizontal portions of the structure.

Where joint movement is accommodated by a change in the geometry of elastomeric glands or membranes, the glands or membranes shall not come into direct contact with the wheels of vehicles.

12.5.6.3. Waterproofed Joints

Waterproofing systems for joints, including joint troughs, collectors, and downspouts, shall be designed to collect, conduct, and discharge deck drainage away from the structure.

In the design of drainage troughs, consideration should be given to:

- Trough slopes of not less than 1 mm/12 mm;
- Open-ended troughs or troughs with large discharge openings;
- Prefabricated troughs;
- Troughs composed of reinforced elastomers, stainless steel, or other metal with durable coatings;
- Stainless steel fasteners;
- Troughs that are replaceable from below the joint;
- Troughs that can be flushed from the roadway surface; and
- Welded metal joints and vulcanized elastomeric splices.

12.5.6.4. Joint Seals

Seals shall accommodate all anticipated movements.

In the choice of a seal type, consideration should be given to seals that:

- Are preformed or prefabricated,
- Can be replaced without major joint modification,
- Do not support vehicular wheel loads,
- Can be placed in one continuous piece,
- Are recessed below joint armor surface,
- Are mechanically anchored, and
- Respond to joint width changes without substantial resistance.

Elastomeric material for seals should be:

- Durable, of virgin neoprene or natural rubber and reinforced with steel or fabric laminates;
- Vulcanized;
- Verified by long-term cyclic testing; and
- Connected by adhesives that are chemically cured.

12.5.6.5. Poured Seals

Unless data supports a smaller joint width, the joint width for poured seals should be at least 6.0 times the anticipated joint movement determined using the appropriate strength load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#).

- C Poured seals should be used only for joints exposed to small movements and for applications where watertightness is of secondary importance.

Sealant bond to metal and masonry materials should be documented by national test methods.

12.5.6.6. Compression and Cellular Seals

Where seals with heavy webbing are exposed to the full movement range, joints shall not be skewed more than 20°.

Compression seals for bearing joints shall not be less than 64 mm nor more than 150 mm wide when uncompressed and shall be specified in width increments in multiples of 12.0 mm.

Primary roadway seals shall be furnished without splices or cuts, unless specifically approved by the Engineer.

In gutter and curb areas, roadway seals shall be bent up in gradual curves to retain roadway drainage. Ends of roadway seals shall be protected by securely attached vented caps or covers. Secondary seals in curbs and barrier areas may be cut and bent as necessary to aid in bending and insertion into the joint.

Closed cell seals shall not be used in joints where they would be subjected to sustained compression, unless seal and adhesive adequacy have been documented by long-term demonstration tests for similar applications.

- C Compression seals should be used only in those structures where the joint movement range can be accurately predicted.
- C Performance of compression and cellular seals is improved when concrete joint recesses are made by saw-cutting in a single pass, rather than by being cast with the aid of removable forms.

12.5.6.7. Sheet and Strip Seals

In the selection and application of either sheet or strip seals, consideration should be given to:

- Joint designs for which glands with anchorages not exposed to vehicular loadings,
- Joint designs that allow complete closure without detrimental effects to the glands,
- Joint designs where the elastomeric glands extend straight to deck edges rather than being bent up at curbs or barriers,
- Decks with sufficient crown or superelevation to ensure lateral drainage of accumulated water and debris,
- Glands that are shaped to expel debris, and
- Glands without abrupt changes in either horizontal or vertical alignment.

Sheet and strip seals should be spliced only when specifically approved by the engineer.

12.6. REQUIREMENTS FOR BEARINGS

12.6.1. General

Bearings may be fixed or movable as required for the bridge design. Movable bearings may include guides to control the direction of translation. Fixed and guided bearings shall be designed to resist all loads and restrain unwanted translation.

Unless otherwise noted, the resistance factor for bearings, ϕ , shall be taken as 1.0.

- C Bearings support relatively large loads while accommodating large translation or rotations.
- C The behavior of bearings is quite variable, and there is very little experimental evidence to precisely define ϕ for each limit state. ϕ is taken to be equal to 1.0 in many parts of Article 12.6 where a more refined estimate is not warranted. The resistance factors are often embedded in the design equations and based on judgment and experience, but they are generally thought to be conservative.

Bearings subject to net uplift at any limit state shall be secured by tie-downs or anchorages.

The magnitude and direction of movements and the loads to be used in the design of the bearing shall be clearly defined in the contract documents.

Combinations of different types of fixed or movable bearings should not be used at the same expansion joint, bent, or pier, unless the effects of differing deflection and rotation characteristics on the bearings and the structure are accounted for in the design.

- C Differing deflection and rotational characteristics may result in damage to the bearings and/or structure.

Multirotational bearings conforming to the provisions of this Section should not be used where vertical loads are less than 20 percent of the vertical bearing capacity.

- C Bearings loaded to less than 20 percent of their vertical capacity require special design (FHWA, 1991).

All bearings shall be evaluated for component and connection strength and bearing stability.

Where two bearings are used at a support of box girders, the vertical reactions should be computed with consideration of torque resisted by the pair of bearings.

- C Bearings can provide a certain degree of horizontal load resistance by limiting the radius of the spherical surface. However, the ability to resist horizontal loads is a function of the vertical reaction on the bearing, which could drop during earthquakes or other extreme event loadings. In general, bearings are not recommended for horizontal to vertical load ratios of over 40 percent unless the bearings are intended to act as fuses or irreparable damage is permitted.

12.6.2. Characteristics

The bearing chosen for a particular application shall have appropriate load and movement capabilities. Table 12.2 and Figure 12.1 may be used as a guide when comparing the different bearing systems.

- C Practical bearings will often combine more than one function to achieve the desired results. For example, a pot bearing may be combined with a PTFE sliding surface to permit translation and rotation.

The following terminology shall apply to Table 12.2:

S = Suitable

U = Unsuitable

L = Suitable for limited applications

R = May be suitable, but requires special considerations or additional elements such as sliders or guideways

Long. = Longitudinal axis

Trans. = Transverse axis

Vert. = Vertical axis

- C Information in [Table 12.2](#) is based on general judgment and observation, and there will obviously be some exceptions. Bearings listed as suitable for a specific application are likely to be suitable with little or no effort on the part of the Engineer other than good design and detailing practice. Bearings listed as unsuitable are likely to be marginal, even if the Engineer makes extraordinary efforts to make the bearing work properly. Bearings listed as suitable for limited application may work if the load and rotation requirements are not excessive.

Table 12.2 Bearing Suitability.

Type of Bearing	Movement		Rotation about Bridge Axis Indicated			Resistance to Loads		
	Long.	Trans.	Long	Trans.	Vert.	Long.	Trans.	Vert.
Plain Elastomeric Pad	S	S	S	S	L	L	L	L
Fiberglass-Reinforced Pad	S	S	S	S	L	L	L	L
Cotton-Duck-Reinforced Pad	U	U	U	U	U	L	L	S
Steel-Reinforced Elastomeric Bearing	S	S	S	S	L	L	L	S
Plane Sliding Bearing	S	S	U	U	S	R	R	S
Curved Sliding Spherical Bearing	R	R	S	S	S	R	R	S
Curved Sliding Cylindrical Bearing	R	R	U	S	U	R	R	S
Disc Bearing	R	R	S	S	L	S	S	S
Double Cylindrical Bearing	R	R	S	S	U	R	R	S
Pot Bearing	R	R	S	S	L	S	S	S
Rocker Bearing	S	U	U	S	U	R	R	S
Knuckle Pinned Bearing	U	U	U	S	U	S	R	S
Single Roller Bearing	S	U	U	S	U	U	R	S
Multiple Roller Bearing	S	U	U	U	U	U	U	S

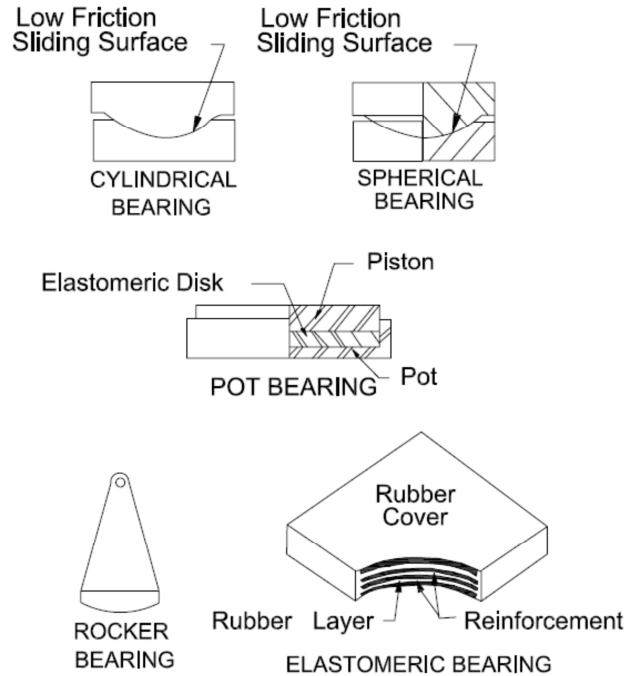


Figure 12.1: Common Bearing Types.

12.6.3. Force Effects Resulting from Restraint of Movement at the Bearing

12.6.3.1. Horizontal Force and Movement

Horizontal forces and moments induced in the bridge by restraint of movement at the bearings shall be determined using the movements and bearing characteristics specified in Article 12.6.6. For bearings with elastomeric elements, these characteristics should include, but are not limited to, the consideration of increased shear modulus, G , at temperatures below 23°C.

- C Restraint of movement results in a corresponding force or moment in the structure. These force effects should be calculated taking into account the stiffness of the bridge and the bearings. The latter should be estimated by the methods outlined in Article 12.6.6. In some cases, the bearing stiffness depends on time and temperature, as well as on the movement. For example, the designer should take note that in cold temperatures which approach the appropriate minimum specified zone temperatures, the shear modulus, G , of an elastomer may be as much as four times that at 23°C. See Article 12.6.6.5.2 and the AASHTO M 251 for more information.

Expansion bearings and their supports shall be designed in a manner such that the structure can undergo movements to accommodate the seismic and other extreme event displacement determined using the provisions in Section 3 without collapse. Adequate support length shall be provided for all bearings in accordance with 4.7.4.4.

- C Expansion bearings should allow sufficient movement in their unrestrained direction to prevent premature failure due to seismic and other extreme event displacements.

The Engineer shall determine the number of bearings required to resist the loads specified in Section 3 with consideration of the potential for unequal participation due to tolerances, unintended misalignments, the capacity of the individual bearings, and the skew.

- C Often, bearings do not resist load simultaneously, and damage to only some of the bearings at one end of a span is not uncommon. When this occurs, high load concentrations can result at the location of the undamaged bearings, which should be taken into account. The number of bearings engaged should be based on type, design, and detailing of the bearings used, and on the bridge skew. Skew angles under 15° are usually ignored. Skew angles over 30° are usually considered significant and need to be considered in analysis. Skewed bridges have a tendency to rotate under seismic loading, and bearings should be designed and detailed to accommodate this effect.

Consideration should be given to the use of field adjustable elements to provide near simultaneous engagement of the intended number of bearings.

At the strength and extreme event limit states, horizontal forces transmitted to the superstructure and substructure by bearings, H_{bu} , shall be taken as those induced by sliding friction, rolling friction, or shear deformation of a flexible element in the bearing.

- C Horizontal forces transmitted to other bridge elements by bearings do not include forces associated with the deformations of stiff bearing elements or hard metal-on-metal contact of bearing components because provisions in Article 12.6.6 are intended to avoid such contact.
- C Maximum extreme event limit state forces should be considered when the bearing is not intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is not permitted.
- C Special consideration should be given to bearings that support large horizontal loads relative to the vertical load (SCEF, 1991).
- C Eq. (12.3) is a function of vertical forces and friction, and is a measure of the maximum horizontal force which could be transmitted to the superstructure or substructure before slip occurs. Eq. (12.4) is also a measure of the maximum transmitted horizontal force, but is dependant primarily upon the shear modulus (stiffness) of the elastomer and applied lateral forces such as braking.

Sliding friction force shall be taken as:

$$H_{bu} = \mu P_u \quad (12.3)$$

where:

H_{bu} = lateral load transmitted to the superstructure and substructure by bearings from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations in Table 3.1 (N).

μ = coefficient of friction

P_u = compressive force from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations in Table 3.1 (N)

The factored force due to the deformation of an elastomeric element shall be taken as:

$$H_{bu} = GA \frac{\Delta_u}{h_n} \quad (12.4)$$

where:

G = shear modulus of the elastomer (MPa)

A = plan area of elastomeric element or bearing (mm²)

Δ_u = shear deformation from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations in Table 3.1 (mm)

h_{rt} = total elastomer thickness (mm)

Strength and extreme event limit states rolling forces shall be determined by testing..

12.6.3.2. Moment

At the strength and extreme event limit states, both the substructure and superstructure shall be designed for the largest factored moment, M_u , transferred by the bearing.

For curved sliding bearings without a companion flat sliding surface, M_u shall be taken as:

$$M_u = \mu P_u R \quad (12.5)$$

For curved sliding bearings with a companion flat sliding surface, M_u shall be taken as:

$$M_u = 2\mu P_u R \quad (12.6)$$

where:

M_u = moment transmitted to the superstructure and substructure by bearings from applicable strength and extreme event load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (N-mm)

R = radius of curved sliding surface (mm)

For unconfined elastomeric bearings and pads, M_u shall be taken as:

$$M_u = 1.60 (0.5 E_c I) \frac{\theta_s}{h_{rt}} \quad (12.7)$$

where:

I = moment of inertia of plan shape of bearing (mm⁴)

E_c = effective modulus of elastomeric bearing in compression (MPa)

θ_s = maximum service limit state design rotation angle specified in Article [12.4.2.1](#) (rad.)

h_{rt} = total elastomer thickness (mm)

- C Maximum extreme event limit state forces should be considered when the bearing is not intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is not permitted.
- C The tangential force in curved sliding bearings is caused by friction resistance at the curved surface, and it acts about the center of the curved surface. M_u is the moment due to this force that is transmitted by the bearing. The moment imposed on individual components of the bridge structure may be different from M_u depending on the location of the axis of rotation and can be calculated by a rational method.
- C The load-deflection curve of an elastomeric bearing is nonlinear, so E , is load dependent. One acceptable approximation for the effective modulus is:

$$E_c = 6GS^2 \quad (12.8)$$

C where:

S = shape factor of an individual elastomer layer (dim.)

G = shear modulus of the elastomer (MPa)

- C The factor 1.60 in Eq. (12.7) is an average multiplier on total load on the bearing to estimate a strength limit state, M_u , based on a service limit state rotation, θ_s .

For CDP, M_{us} shall be taken as:

$$M_u = 1.25(4.5 - 2.2S + 0.087\sigma_s) \frac{E_c I}{t_p} \theta_s \times 8.85 \times 10^{-6} \quad (12.9)$$

where:

- E_c = uniaxial compressive stiffness of the CDP bearing pad. It may be taken as 207 MPa in lieu of pad-specific test data (MPa)
- t_p = total thickness of CDP pad (mm)
- S = shape factor of the CDP pad computed based on Eq. (12.37) and based on total pad thickness.
- σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load associated with the maximum rotation from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (MPa)
- θ_s = maximum rotation of the CDP pad from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (rad.)

- C The factor 1.25 in Eq. (12.9) is a multiplier on total load on the bearing to estimate a strength limit state load, M_u , based on a service limit state rotation, θ_s , and stress, σ_s .

- C The rotational stiffness, K , of CDP is provided by:

$$K = (4.5 - 2.2S + 0.087\sigma_s) \frac{E_c I}{t_p} \times 8.85 \times 10^{-6} \quad (12.10)$$

- C The moment, M_u , may be crucial for the design of CDP, because movable CDP are normally designed with PTFE sliding surfaces to develop the translational movement capacity. M_u in the bearing pad results in edge bearing stress on the PTFE in addition to the average compressive stress. The PTFE on CDP pads is unconfined, and this moment may limit the bearing stress on the PTFE to a stress somewhat smaller than permitted on the CDP alone.

12.6.4. Fabrication, Installation, Testing, and Shipping

The provisions for fabrication, installation, testing, and shipping of bearings, specified in Section 16, "Bearing Devices," of the MA-100-C-V1/1, shall apply.

- C Some jurisdictions have provided additional guidance beyond that provided in the MA-100-C-V1/1 with respect to the fabrication, installation, testing, and shipping of multi-rotational-type bearings (SCEF, 1991).

The setting temperature of the bridge or any component thereof shall be taken as the actual air temperature averaged over the 24-hour period immediately preceding the setting event.

- C Setting temperature is used in installing expansion bearings.
- C An offset chart for girder erection and alignment of the bearings is recommended to account for uncertainty in the setting temperature at the time of design. Offset charts should be defined in appropriate increments and included in the design drawings so that the position of the bearing can be adjusted to account for differences between setting temperature and an assumed design installation temperature.

12.6.5. Seismic and Other Extreme Event Provisions for Bearings

12.6.5.1. General

This Article shall apply to the analysis, design and detailing of bearings to accommodate the effects of earthquakes and, as appropriate, other extreme events for which the horizontal loading component is very large.

These provisions shall be applied in addition to all other applicable code requirements. The bearing-type selection shall consider the seismic criteria described in Article [12.6.5.3](#) in the early stages of design.

- C Extreme events other than earthquakes for which the horizontal loading component is very large include vehicle collisions, ship collisions, and high-velocity winds.

12.6.5.2. Applicability

These provisions shall apply to pin, roller, rocker, and bronze or copper-alloy sliding bearings, elastomeric bearings, spherical bearings, and pot and disc bearings in common slab-on-girder bridges but not to seismic isolation-type bearings or structural fuse bearings designed primarily for the effects of extreme event dynamic horizontal loadings.

Although the strategy taken herein assumes that inelastic action is confined to properly detailed hinge areas in substructure, alternative concepts that utilize movement at the bearings to dissipate extreme event horizontal and/or vertical forces may also be considered. Where alternate strategies may be used, all ramifications of the increased movements and the predictability of the associated forces and transfer of forces shall be considered in the design and details.

- C Provisions for the design, specification, testing, and acceptance of isolation bearings are given in [AASHTO \(1999\)](#).

12.6.5.3. Design Criteria

The selection and the seismic or other extreme event horizontal loading design of bearings shall be related to the strength and stiffness characteristics of both the superstructure and the substructure.

Bearing design shall be consistent with the intended seismic or other extreme event response of the whole bridge system.

Where rigid-type bearings are used, the seismic or other extreme event forces from the superstructure shall be assumed to be transmitted through diaphragms or cross-frames and their connections to the bearings and then to the substructure without reduction due to local inelastic action along that load path. However, forces may be reduced in situations where the end-diaphragms in the superstructure have been specifically designed and detailed for inelastic action, in accordance with generally accepted provisions for ductile end-diaphragms.

As a minimum, bearings, restraints, and anchorages shall be designed to resist the forces specified in Article [3.9.9](#).

- C The commentary provided below specifically addresses seismic design considerations. However, it is also applicable to other extreme event horizontal loadings such as vehicle and ship collisions which are dynamic in nature but can have a very short duration. Accounting for the effects of other extreme events such as wind or waves may require special considerations that are not fully addressed in these specifications for bearing design.
- C Bearings have a significant effect on the overall seismic response of a bridge. They provide the seismic load transfer link between a stiff and massive superstructure and a stiff and massive substructure. As a result, very high (and difficult-to-predict) load concentrations can occur in the

bearing components. The primary functions of the bearings are to resist the vertical loads due to dead load and live load and to allow for superstructure movements due to live load and temperature changes. Allowance for translation is made by means of rollers, rocker, or shear deformation of an elastomer, or through the provision of a sliding surface of bronze or copper alloy or PTFE. Allowance for rotation is made by hinges, confined or unconfined elastomers, or spherical sliding surfaces. Resistance to translation is provided by bearing components or additional restraining elements.

- C Historically, bearings have been very susceptible to seismic loads. Unequal loading during seismic events and much higher loads than anticipated have caused various types and levels of bearing damage. To allow movements, bearings often contain elements vulnerable to high loads and impacts.
- C The performance of bearings during past earthquakes needs to be evaluated in context with the overall performance of the bridge and the performance of the superstructure and substructure elements connected to the bearings. Rigid bearings have been associated with damage to the end cross-frames and the supporting pier or abutment concrete. In some cases, bearing damage and slippage has prevented more extensive damage.
- C The criteria for seismic design of bearings should consider the strength and stiffness characteristics of the superstructure and substructure. To minimize damage, the seismic load resisting system made of the end cross-frame or diaphragms, bearings, and substructure should allow a certain degree of energy dissipation, movement, or plastic deformation even if those effects are not quantified as they would be for seismic isolation bearings or structural fuses.
- C Based on their horizontal stiffness, bearings may be divided into four categories:
 - Rigid bearings that transmit seismic loads without any movement or deformations;
 - Deformable bearings that transmit seismic loads limited by plastic deformations or restricted slippage of bearing components;
 - Seismic isolation type bearings that transmit reduced seismic loads, limited by energy dissipation; and,
 - Structural fuses that are designed to fail at a prescribed load.
- C For the deformable-type bearing, limited and reparable bearing damage and displacement may be allowed for the design earthquake.
- C When both the superstructure and the substructure components adjacent to the bearing are very stiff, a deformable-type bearing should be considered.
- C Seismic isolation-type bearings are not within the scope of these provisions, but they should also be considered.

Elastomeric bearings having less than full rigidity, but not designed explicitly as seismic isolators or fuses, may be used under any circumstance. If used, they shall either be designed to accommodate imposed seismic or other horizontal extreme event loads, or, if survival of the elastomeric bearing itself is not required, other means such as restrainers, STU's, widened support lengths, or dampers shall be provided to prevent unseating of the superstructure.

- C Elastomeric bearings have been demonstrated to result in reduced force transmission to substructure.
- C A bearing may also be designed to act as a "structural fuse" that will fail at a predetermined load changing the articulation of the structure, possibly changing its period and hence seismic response, and probably resulting in increased movements. This strategy is permitted as an alternative to these provisions under Article [12.6.5.2](#). Such an alternative would require full consideration of forces and movements and of bearing repair/replacement details. It also requires the designer to address the inherent difficulty of detailing a structural element to fail reliably at predetermined load.

12.6.6. Special Design Provisions for Bearings

12.6.6.1. Metal Rocker and Roller Bearings

1. General

The rotation axis of the bearing shall be aligned with the axis about which the largest rotations of the supported member occur. Provision shall be made to ensure that

the bearing alignment does not change during the life of the bridge. Multiple roller bearings shall be connected by gearing to ensure that individual rollers remain parallel to each other and at their original spacing.

Metal rocker and roller bearings shall be detailed so that they can be easily inspected and maintained.

- C Cylindrical bearings contain no deformable parts and are susceptible to damage if the superstructure rotates about an axis perpendicular to the axis of the bearing. Thus, they are unsuitable for bridges in which the axis of rotation may vary significantly under different situations, such as bridges with a large skew. They are also unsuitable for use in seismic regions because the transverse shear caused by earthquake loading can cause substantial overturning moment.
- C Good maintenance is essential if mechanical bearings are to perform properly. Dirt attracts and holds moisture, which, combined with high local contact stresses, can promote stress corrosion. Metal bearings, in particular, must be designed for easy maintenance.

Rockers should be avoided wherever practical and, when used, their movements and tendency to tip under seismic actions shall be considered in the design and details.

- C Rockers can be suitable for applications in which the horizontal movement of the superstructure, relative to the substructure, is well within the available movement range after consideration of other applicable movements. This might be the case, for example, in Seismic Design Category A, where bridges are founded on rock or stiff competent soils.

2. Materials

Rocker and roller bearings shall be made of stainless steel conforming to **ASTM A 240**, as specified in Article [6.4.7](#), or of structural steel conforming to **AASHTO M 169 (ASTM A 108)**, **M 102M/M 102 (ASTM A 668/A 668M)**, or **M 270M/M 270 (ASTM A 709M)**, **Grades 250, 345 or 345W**. Material properties of these steels shall be taken as specified in [Table 6.1](#) and [Table 6.2](#).

- C Carbon steel has been the traditional steel used in mechanical bearings because of its good mechanical properties. Surface hardening may be considered. Corrosion resistance is also important. The use of stainless steel for the contact surfaces may prove economical when life-cycle costs are considered. Weathering steels should be used with caution as their resistance to corrosion is often significantly reduced by mechanical wear at the surface.

3. Geometric Requirements

The dimensions of the bearing shall be chosen taking into account both the contact stresses and the movement of the contact point due to rolling.

Each individual curved contact surface shall have a constant radius. Bearings with more than one curved surface shall be symmetric about a line joining the centers of their two curved surfaces.

If pintles or gear mechanisms are used to guide the bearing, their geometry should be such as to permit free movement of the bearing.

Bearings shall be designed to be stable. If the bearing has two separate cylindrical faces, each of which rolls on a flat plate, stability may be achieved by making the distance between the two contact lines no greater than the sum of the radii of the two cylindrical surfaces.

- C The choice of radius for a curved surface is a compromise: a large radius results in low contact stresses but large rotations of the point of contact and vice versa. The latter could be important if, for example, a rotational bearing is surmounted by a PTFE slider because the PTFE is sensitive to eccentric loading.
- C A cylindrical roller is in neutral equilibrium. The provisions for bearings with two curved surfaces achieve at least neutral, if not stable, equilibrium.

4. Contact Stresses

At the service limit state, the contact load, P_s , shall satisfy:

- For cylindrical surfaces:

$$P_s \leq 8 \left[\frac{WD_1}{1 - \frac{D_1}{D_2}} \right] \frac{F_y^2}{E_s} \quad (12.11)$$

- For spherical surfaces:

$$P_s \leq 40 \left[\frac{D_1}{1 - \frac{D_1}{D_2}} \right]^2 \frac{F_y^3}{E_s^2} \quad (12.12)$$

where:

D_1 = the diameter of the rocker or roller surface (mm)

D_2 = the diameter of the mating surface (mm) taken as:

- Positive if the curvatures have the same sign, and
- Infinite if the mating surface is flat.

F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the weakest steel at the contact surface (MPa)

E_s = Young's modulus for steel (MPa)

W = width of the bearing (mm)

- C The service limit state loads are limited so that the contact causes calculated shear stresses no higher than $0.55F_y$ or surface compression stresses no higher than $1.65 F_y$. The maximum compressive stress is at the surface, and the maximum shear stress occurs just below it.
- C The formulas were derived from the theoretical value for contact stress between elastic bodies (Roark and Young, 1976). They are based on the assumption that the width of the contact area is much less than the diameter of the curved surface.
- C If two surfaces have curves of the opposite sign, the value of D_2 is negative. This would be an unusual situation in bridge bearings.
- C Eqs. (12.11) and (12.12) are more restrictive than similar provisions for line bearing and contact stresses in the AASHTO Standard Specifications. The more conservative design was adopted herein due to the problematic history of some bearings which, in some cases, may be related to small zones of yielding in the bearing or base plate. The increased conservatism is not difficult to handle in new design, but may be a problem in rehabilitation. If careful inspection indicates that existing bearings which do not satisfy these provisions are performing well and there is no evidence of rutting or ridging, which may be evidence of local yielding, then reuse of the bearing may be viable. Evaluation may proceed using the following historical provision:

Bearing per linear mm on expansion rockers and rollers at the service limit state shall not exceed the values obtained by the following formulas:

- Diameters up to 650 mm

$$p = \frac{F_y - 90}{138} \times 4.14 d \quad (12.13)$$

- Diameters 650 to 3200 mm

$$p = \frac{F_y - 90}{138} \times 140 \sqrt{d} \quad (12.14)$$

where:

- p = allowable bearing at the service limit state (N/mm)
- d = diameter of rocker or roller (mm)
- F_y = specified minimum yield strength of the weakest steel at the contact surface (MPa)

- C If loads are increased significantly by the rehabilitation, complying with the current provisions may be more appropriate.
- C The two diameters have the same sign if the centers of the two curved surfaces in contact are on the same side of the contact surface, such as is the case when a circular shaft fits in a circular hole.

12.6.6.2. PTFE Sliding Surfaces

PTFE may be used in sliding surfaces of bridge bearings to accommodate translation or rotation. All PTFE surfaces other than guides shall satisfy the requirements specified herein. Curved PTFE surfaces shall also satisfy Article [12.6.6.3](#).

- C PTFE, is also known as TFE and is commonly used in bridge bearings in the United States. This Article does not cover guides. The friction requirements for guides are less stringent, and a wider variety of materials and fabrication methods can be used for them.

1. PTFE Surface

The PTFE surface shall be made from pure virgin PTFE resin satisfying the requirements of [ASTM D 4894 or D 4895](#). It shall be fabricated as unfilled sheet, filled sheet, or fabric woven from PTFE and other fibers.

Unfilled sheets shall be made from PTFE resin alone. Filled sheets shall be made from PTFE resin uniformly blended with glass fibers, carbon fibers, or other chemically inert filler. The filler content shall not exceed 15 percent for glass fibers and 25 percent for carbon fibers.

- C PTFE may be provided in sheets or in mats woven from fibers. The sheets may be filled with reinforcing fibers to reduce creep, i.e., cold flow, and wear, or they may be made from pure resin. The friction coefficient depends on many factors, such as sliding speed, contact pressure, lubrication, temperature, and properties such as the finish of the mating surface ([Campbell and Kong, 1987](#)). The material properties that influence the friction coefficient are not well understood, but the crystalline structure of the PTFE is known to be important, and it is strongly affected by the quality control exercised during the manufacturing process.
- C Unfilled dimples can act as reservoirs for contaminants (dust, etc.) which can help to keep these contaminants from the contact surface.

Sheet PTFE may contain dimples to act as reservoirs for lubricant. Unlubricated PTFE may also contain dimples. Their diameter shall not exceed 8 mm at the surface of the PTFE, and their depth shall be not less than 2 mm and not more than half the thickness of the PTFE.

The reservoirs shall be uniformly distributed over the surface area and shall cover more than 20 percent but less than 30 percent of the contact surface. Dimples should not be placed to intersect the edge of the contact area.

Lubricant shall be silicone grease, which satisfies [Military Specification MIL-S-8660](#).

Woven fiber PTFE shall be made from pure PTFE fibers. Reinforced woven fiber PTFE shall be made by interweaving high-strength fibers, such as glass, with the PTFE in such a way that the reinforcing fibers do not appear on the sliding face of the finished fabric.

2. Mating Surface

The PTFE shall be used in conjunction with a mating surface. Flat mating surfaces shall be stainless steel, and curved mating surfaces shall be stainless steel or anodized aluminum. Flat surfaces shall be **stainless steel, Type 304**, conforming to **ASTM A 167 or A 264**, and shall be provided with a surface finish of 0.20 μm RMS or better. Finishes on curved metallic surfaces shall not exceed 0.4 μm RMS. The mating surface shall be large enough to cover the PTFE at all times.

- C Stainless steel is the most commonly used mating surface for PTFE sliding surfaces. Anodized aluminum has been sometimes used in spherical and cylindrical bearings produced in other countries and may be considered if documentation of experience, acceptable to the Owner, is provided. The finish of this mating surface is extremely important because it affects the coefficient of friction. **ASTM A 240M, Type 304**, stainless steel, with a surface finish of 4.0×10^{-4} mm (0.40 μm) RMS or better, is appropriate, but the surface measurements are inherently inexact, and hence it is not a specified alternative. Friction testing is required for the PTFE and its mating surface because of the many variables involved.

3. Minimum Thickness

a. PTFE

For all applications, the thickness of the PTFE shall be at least 1.5 mm after compression. Recessed sheet PTFE shall be at least 4.5 mm thick when the maximum dimension of the PTFE is less than or equal to 600 mm, and 6.0 mm when the maximum dimension of the PTFE is greater than 600 mm. Woven fabric PTFE, which is mechanically interlocked over a metallic substrate, shall have a minimum thickness of 1.5 mm and a maximum thickness of 3.0 mm over the highest point of the substrate.

- C Specifying a minimum thickness of PTFE is intended to ensure uniform bearing and to allow for wear.
- C During the first few cycles of movement, small amounts of PTFE transfer to the mating surface and contribute to the very low friction achieved subsequently. This wear is acceptable and desirable.
- C PTFE continues to wear with time (**Campbell and Kong, 1987**) and movement; wear is exacerbated by deteriorated or rough surfaces. Wear is undesirable because it usually causes higher friction and reduces the thickness of the remaining PTFE. Unlubricated, flat PTFE wears more severely than the lubricated material. The evidence on the rate of wear is tentative. High travel speeds, such as those associated with traffic movements, appear to be more damaging than the slow ones due to thermal movements. However, they may be avoided by placing the sliding surface on an elastomeric bearing that will absorb small longitudinal movements. No further allowance for wear is made in this Specification due to the limited research available to quantify or estimate the wear as a function of time and travel. However, wear may ultimately cause the need for replacement of the PTFE, so it is wise to allow for future replacement in the original design.

b. Stainless Steel Mating Surfaces

The thickness of the stainless steel mating surface shall be at least 1.50 mm when the maximum dimension of the surface is less than or equal to 300 mm and at least 3.0 mm when the maximum dimension is larger than 300 mm.

- C The minimum thickness requirements for the mating surface are intended to prevent it from wrinkling or buckling. This surface material is usually quite thin to minimize cost of the highly finished mating surface. Some mating surfaces, particularly those with curved surfaces, are made of carbon steel on which a stainless steel weld is deposited. This welded surface is then finished and polished to achieve the desired finish. Some jurisdictions require a minimum thickness of 2.4 mm for welded overlay after grinding and polishing.

Backing plate requirements shall be taken as specified in Article [12.6.6.2.6.b](#).

4. Contact Pressure

The contact stress between the PTFE and the mating surface shall be determined at the service limit state using the nominal area.

The average contact stress shall be computed by dividing the load by the projection of the contact area on a plane perpendicular to the direction of the load. The contact stress at the edge shall be determined by taking into account the maximum moment transferred by the bearing assuming a linear distribution of stress across the PTFE.

- C The average contact stress shall be determined by dividing the load by the projection of the contact area onto a plane perpendicular to the direction of the load. The edge contact stress shall be determined based on the service limit state load and the maximum service limit state moment transferred by the bearing.
- C The contact pressure must be limited to prevent excessive creep or plastic flow of the PTFE, which causes the PTFE disc to expand laterally under compressive stress and may contribute to separation or bond failure. The lateral expansion is controlled by recessing the PTFE into a steel plate or by reinforcing the PTFE, but there are adverse consequences associated with both methods.

Stresses shall not exceed those given in [Table 12.3](#). Permissible stresses for intermediate filler contents shall be obtained by linear interpolation within [Table 12.3](#).

Table 12.3 Maximum Contact Stress for PTFE at the Service Limit State (MPa).

Material	Average Contact Stress (MPa)		Edge Contact Stress (MPa)	
	Permanent Loads	All Loads	Permanent Loads	All Loads
Unconfined PTFE:				
- Unfilled Sheets	10	17	14	21
- Filled Sheets with Maximum Filler Content	21	31	24	38
Confined Sheet PTFE	21	31	24	38
Woven PTFE Fiber over a Metallic Substrate	21	31	24	38
Reinforced Woven PTFE over a Metallic Substrate	28	38	31	48

- C Edge loading may be particularly detrimental because it causes large stress and potential flow in a local area near the edge of the material in hard contact between steel surfaces. The average and edge contact pressure in [Table 12.3](#) are in appropriate proportions to one another relative to the currently available research. Better data may become available in the future. These are in the lower range of those used in Europe.

5. Coefficient of Friction

The service limit design coefficient of friction of the PTFE sliding surface shall be taken as specified in [Table 12.4](#). Intermediate values may be determined by interpolation. The coefficient of friction shall be determined by using the stress level associated with the applicable load combination specified in [Table 3.1](#). Lesser values may be used if verified by tests.

Where friction is required to resist non-seismic loads, the design coefficient of friction under dynamic loading may be taken as not more than 10 percent of the values listed in [Table 12.4](#) for the bearing stress and PTFE type indicated.

The coefficients of friction in [Table 12.4](#) are based on a 0.2 μm finish mating surface. Coefficients of friction for rougher surface finishes must be established by test results in accordance with Chapter 16, "Bearing Devices" in the MA-100-C-V1/1.

- C The friction factor decreases with lubrication and increasing contact stress but increases with sliding velocity ([Campbell and Kong, 1987](#)). The coefficient of friction also tends to increase at low temperatures. Static friction is larger than dynamic friction, and the dynamic coefficient of friction is larger for the first cycle of movement than it is for later cycles. Friction increases with increasing roughness of the mating surface and decreasing temperature. The friction factors used in the earlier editions of the AASHTO Standard Specifications are suitable for use with dimpled, lubricated PTFE. They are too small for the flat, dry PTFE commonly used in the United States. These Specifications have been changed to recognize this fact. Nearly all research to date has been performed on dimpled, lubricated PTFE. The coefficients of friction given in [Table 12.4](#) are not applicable to high velocity movements such as those occurring in seismic events. Seismic velocity coefficients of friction must be determined in accordance with the [AASHTO Guide Specifications/or Seismic Isolation Design](#). Coefficients of friction, somewhat smaller than those given in [Table 12.4](#), are possible with care and quality control.

The contract documents shall require certification testing from the production lot of PTFE to ensure that the friction actually achieved in the bearing is appropriate for the bearing design.

Table 12.4 Design Coefficients of Friction—Service Limit State.

Type of PTFE	Pressure (MPa)	3.5	7	14	>20
	Temperature (°C)				
Dimpled Lubricated	+20	0.04	0.030	0.025	0.020
	–25	0.06	0.045	0.040	0.030
	–45	0.10	0.075	0.060	0.050
Unfilled or Dimpled Unlubricated	+20	0.08	0.070	0.050	0.030
	–25	0.20	0.180	0.130	0.100
	–45	0.20	0.180	0.130	0.100
Filled	+20	0.24	0.170	0.090	0.060
	–25	0.44	0.320	0.250	0.200
	–45	0.65	0.550	0.450	0.350
Woven	+20	0.08	0.070	0.060	0.045
	–25	0.20	0.180	0.130	0.100
	–45	0.20	0.180	0.130	0.100

- C Certification testing from the production lot is essential for PTFE sliding surfaces primarily to ensure that the friction actually achieved in the bearing is appropriate for the bearing design. Testing is the only reliable method for certifying the coefficient of friction and bearing behavior.
- C Contamination of the sliding surface with dirt and dust increases the coefficient of friction and increases the wear of the PTFE. To prevent contamination, the bearing should be sealed by the manufacturer and not separated at the construction site. To prevent contamination and gouging of the PTFE, the stainless steel should normally be on top and should be larger than the PTFE, plus its maximum travel.
- C Woven PTFE is sometimes formed by weaving pure PTFE strands with a reinforcing material. These reinforcing strands may increase the resistance to creep and cold flow and can be woven so that reinforcing strands do not appear on the sliding surface. This separation is necessary if the coefficients of friction provided in [Table 12.4](#) are to be used.
- C If there is no lubricant in the dimples, the dimples tend to flatten out filling the dimples, resulting in a surface much like unfilled PTFE.

6. Attachment

a. PTFE

Sheet PTFE confined in a recess in a rigid metal backing plate for one-half its thickness may be bonded or unbonded.

- C Recessing is the most effective way of preventing creep in unfilled PTFE. The PTFE discs may also be bonded into the recess, but this is optional and the benefits are debatable. Bonding helps to retain the PTFE in the recess during the service life of the bridge, but it makes replacement of the disc more difficult. If the adhesive is not applied uniformly, it can cause an uneven PTFE sliding surface that could lead to premature wear. Some manufacturers cut the PTFE slightly oversize and pre-cool it before installation because this results in a tighter fit at room temperature.
- C Sometimes PTFE is bonded to the top cover layer of an elastomeric bearing. This layer should be relatively thick and hard to avoid rippling of the PTFE (Roeder et al., 1987). PTFE must be etched prior to epoxy bonding in order to obtain good adhesion. However, ultra-violet light attacks the etching and can lead to delamination, so PTFE exposed to ultra-violet light should not be attached by bonding alone.

Sheet PTFE that is not confined shall be bonded to a metal surface or an elastomeric layer with a Shore A durometer hardness of at least 90 by an approved method.

Woven PTFE on a metallic substrate shall be attached to the metallic substrate by mechanical interlocking that can resist a shear force no less than 0.10 times the applied compressive force.

b. Mating Surface

The mating surface for flat sliding surfaces shall be attached to a backing plate by welding in such a way that it remains flat and in full contact with its backing plate throughout its service life. The weld shall be detailed to form an effective moisture seal around the entire perimeter of the mating surface to prevent interface corrosion. The attachment shall be capable of resisting the maximum friction force that can be developed by the bearing under service limit state load combinations. The welds used for the attachment shall be clear of the contact and sliding area of the PTFE surface.

- C The restrictions on the attachment of the mating surface are primarily intended to ensure that the surface is flat and retains uniform contact with the PTFE at all times, without adversely affecting the friction of the surface or gouging or cutting the PTFE.
- C The mating surface of curved sliding surfaces should be machined to the required surface finish from a single piece.

12.6.6.3. Bearings with Curved Sliding Surfaces

1. General

These provisions are directed primarily toward spherical or cylindrical bearings with bronze or PTFE sliding surfaces.

Bearings with curved sliding surfaces shall consist of two metal parts with matching curved surfaces and a low friction sliding interface. The curved surfaces may be either cylindrical or spherical. The material properties, characteristics, and frictional properties of the sliding interface shall satisfy the requirements specified in Articles 12.6.6.2 and 12.6.6.7.

The two surfaces of a sliding interface shall have equal nominal radii.

- C Some jurisdictions require that the minimum center thickness of concave spherical surfaces be at least 19 mm and that a minimum vertical clearance between the rotating and non-rotating parts be as given by Eq. (12.15) or (12.16) but not less than 3.2 mm.
 - For rectangular spherical or curved bearings:

$$c = 0.7D \theta_u + 3.2 \quad (12.15)$$

- For round spherical or round bearings:

$$c = 0.5D \theta_u + 3.2 \quad (12.16)$$

where:

θ_u = design rotation from applicable strength load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) or Article [12.4.2.2.1](#) (rad.)

- C Similarly, the minimum edge thickness on the convex surface has sometimes been limited to 19 mm for bearing on concrete and 12.5 mm for bearing on steel.

2. Bearing Resistance

The radius of the curved surface shall be large enough to ensure that the total compressive load at the service limit state on the horizontal projected area of the bearing, P_s , is less than or equal to the average allowable loads as computed from the service stress specified in Articles [12.6.6.2.4](#) or [12.6.6.7.3](#).

- C The geometry of a spherical bearing controls its ability to resist lateral loads, its moment-rotation behavior, and its frictional characteristics. The geometry is relatively easy to define, but it has some consequences that are not widely appreciated. The stress may vary over the contact surface of spherical or cylindrical bearings. Cylindrical and spherical surfaces cannot be machined as accurately as a flat smooth surface. It is important that the radius of the convex and concave surfaces be within appropriate limits. If these limits are exceeded the bronze may crack due to hard bearing contact, or there may be excessive wear and damage due to creep or cold flow of the PTFE. The stress limits used in this Section are based on average contact stress levels

The factored resistance shall be taken as:

- For cylindrical bearings:

$$P_s = \phi DW \sigma_{ss} \quad (12.17)$$

- For spherical bearings:

$$P_s = \phi \frac{\pi D^2 \sigma_{ss}}{4} \quad (12.18)$$

where:

P_s = total compressive load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (N)

D = diameter of the projection of the loaded surface of the bearing in the horizontal plane (mm)

σ_{ss} = maximum average contact stress at the strength limit state permitted on PTFE by [Table 12.3](#) or on bronze by [Table 12.8](#) (MPa)

W = length of cylinder (mm)

ϕ = resistance factor taken as 1.0

3. Resistance to Lateral Load

Where bearings are required to resist horizontal loads at the service limit state, an external restraint system shall be provided or:

- For a cylindrical sliding surface, the horizontal load shall satisfy:

$$H_s \leq 2RW\sigma_{ss} \sin(\psi - \beta - \theta_u) \sin \beta \quad (12.19)$$

- For a spherical surface, the horizontal load shall satisfy:

$$H_s \leq \pi R^2 \sigma_{ss} \sin(\psi - \beta - \theta_u) \sin \beta \quad (12.20)$$

in which:

$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{H_s}{P_D} \right) \quad (12.21)$$

and

$$\psi = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{L}{2R} \right) \quad (12.22)$$

where:

- H_s = horizontal load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (N)
- L = projected length of the sliding surface perpendicular to the rotation axis (mm)
- P_D = compressive load at service limit state (load factor = 1.0) due to permanent loads (N)
- R = radius of the curved sliding surface (mm)
- W = length of the cylindrical surface (mm)
- β = angle between the vertical and resultant applied load (rad.)
- θ_u = maximum strength limit state design rotation angle specified in Article [12.4.2.2.1](#) (rad.)
- σ_{ss} = maximum average contact stress at the service limit state permitted on PTFE by [Table 12.3](#) or on bronze by [Table 12.8](#) (MPa)
- Ψ = subtended semi-angle of the curved surface (rad.)

- C The geometry of a curved bearing combined with gravity loads can provide considerable resistance to lateral load. An external restraint is often a more reliable method of resisting large lateral loads at the service and strength limit states, and at the extreme event limit state when the bearing is not intended to act as a hinge or irreparable damage is not permitted.
- C The applied loads for determination of the angle β and the applied load check are at the service limit state because the stress limits, σ_{ss} , are service-based. The rotation at the strength limit state is utilized because bearings with curved sliding surfaces are susceptible to more serious consequences if overloaded or over rotated.
- C The geometry of a cylindrical sliding bearing is shown in the deformed position in [Figure 12.2](#).

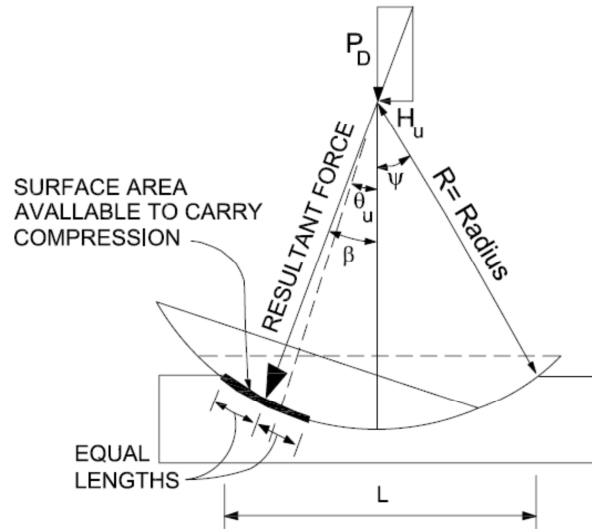


Figure 12.2: Bearing Geometry

12.6.6.4. Pot Bearings

1. General

Where pot bearings are provided with a PTFE slider to provide for both rotation and horizontal movement, such sliding surfaces and any guide systems shall be designed in accordance with the provisions of Articles [12.6.6.2](#) and [12.6.6.9](#).

The rotational elements of the pot bearing shall consist of at least a pot, a piston, an elastomeric disc, and sealing rings.

For the purpose of establishing the forces and deformations imposed on a pot bearing, the axis of rotation shall be taken as lying in the horizontal plane at mid-height of the elastomeric disc.

The minimum vertical load on a pot bearing should not be less than 20 percent of the vertical design load.

2. Materials

The elastomeric disc shall be made from a compound based on virgin natural rubber or virgin neoprene conforming to the requirements of Section 16.3.3 of the MA-100-C-V1/1. The nominal hardness shall lie between 50 and 60 on the Shore A scale.

C Softer elastomers permit rotation more readily and are preferred.

The pot and piston shall be made from structural steel conforming to **AASHTO M 270M/M 270 (ASTM A 709/A 709)**; Grades 250, 345, or 345W; or from stainless steel conforming to ASTM A 240M. The finish of surfaces in contact with the elastomeric pad shall be smoother than 1.5 μm . The yield strength and hardness of the piston shall not exceed that of the pot.

C Corrosion resistant steels, such as **AASHTO M 270M/M 270 (ASTM A 709/A 709)**, Grade 345W, are not recommended for applications where they may come into contact with saltwater or be permanently damp, unless their whole surface is completely corrosion protected. Most pot bearings are machined from a solid plate, so use of high strength steel to decrease the wall thickness results in only a very small reduction in volume of material used.

- C Other properties, such as corrosion resistance, ease of machining, electrochemical compatibility with steel girders, availability, and price should also be considered.
- C The provision on relative hardness is mentioned to avoid wear or damage on the inside surface of the pot and the consequent risk of seal failure.

Brass sealing rings satisfying Articles [12.6.6.4.5.b](#) and [12.6.6.4.5.c](#) shall conform to **ASTM B 36M (half hard)** for rings of rectangular cross-section, and **Federal Specification QQB626, Composition 2**, for rings of circular cross-section.

- C The choice of brass for sealing rings reflects present practice.

3. Geometric Requirements

The depth of the elastomeric disc, h_r , shall satisfy:

$$h_r \geq 3.33D_p\theta_u \quad (12.23)$$

where:

D_p = internal diameter of pot (mm)

θ_u = maximum strength limit state design rotation angle specified in Article [12.4.2.2.1](#) (rad.)

- C The requirements of this Article are intended to prevent the seal from escaping and the bearing from locking up even under the most adverse conditions. Use of the design rotation, θ_u , means that the designer should account for both the anticipated movements due to loads and those due to fabrication and installation tolerances, including the rotation imposed on the bearing due to out-of-level of other bridge components, such as undersides of prefabricated girders, and permissible misalignments during construction. Vertical deflection caused by compressive load should also be taken into account because it will reduce the available clearance. Anchor bolts projecting above the base plate should be taken into consideration when clearance is determined.

The dimensions of the elements of a pot bearing shall satisfy the following requirements under the least favorable combination of strength limit state displacements and rotations:

- The pot shall be deep enough to permit the seal and piston rim to remain in full contact with the vertical face of the pot wall, and
 - Contact or binding between metal components shall not prevent further displacement or rotation.
- C Rotation capacity can be increased by using a deeper pot, a thicker elastomeric pad, and a larger vertical clearance between the pot wall and the piston or slider. The minimum thickness of the pad specified herein results in edge deflections due to rotation no greater than 15 percent of the nominal pad thickness. [Figure 12.3](#) and Eqs. [\(12.24\)](#) and [\(12.25\)](#) may be used to verify clearance.

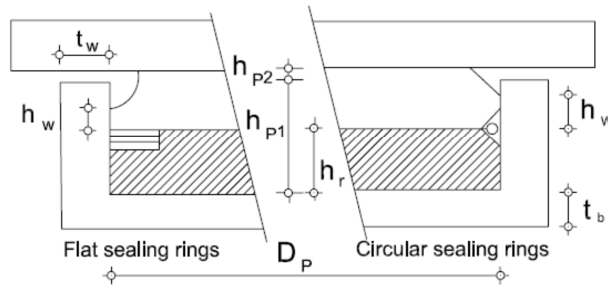


Figure 12.3: Pot Bearing-Critical Dimensions for Clearances.

- C The pot cavity depth, h_{p1} , may be determined as:

$$h_{p1} \geq (0.5D_p \theta_u) + h_r + h_w \quad (12.24)$$

- C where:

h_r = depth of elastomeric disc (mm)

h_w = height from top of rim to underside of piston (mm)

- C The vertical clearance between top of piston and top of pot wall, h_{p2} may be determined as:

$$h_{p2} \geq R_o \theta_u + 2\delta_u + 3 \quad (12.25)$$

- C where:

δ_u = vertical deflection from applicable strength load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (mm)

R_o = radial distance from center of pot to object in question (e.g., pot wall, anchor bolt, etc.) (mm)

- C Note that Eq. [\(12.24\)](#) does not contain any allowance for vertical deflection δ_u . This omission is conservative. The design rotation, θ_u already represents an extreme rotation for use with the strength limit state and requires no further factoring.
- C δ_u and θ_u may also be considered at the extreme event limit state.
- C Thicker pads with deeper pots cause smaller strains in the elastomer, and they appear to experience less wear and abrasion. Recessing of the rings into the pad is necessary for satisfactory pad performance, but it also decreases the effective thickness of the pad at that location. Further, the recess has sometimes been cut into the pad, and this cut appears to make the pad susceptible to additional damage. Therefore, it is generally better to use a deeper pot and thicker pad even though this leads to greater material and machining costs.

4. Elastomeric Disc

The average stress on the elastomer at the service limit state should not exceed 25 MPa.

- C The average stress on the elastomeric disc is largely limited by the seal's ability to prevent escape of the elastomer.
- C The 25-MPa level has been used as a practical upper limit for some years, and most bearings have performed satisfactorily but a few seal failures have occurred. The experimental research of [NCHRP 10-20A](#) showed that greater wear and abrasion due to cyclic rotation occurred when higher stress levels are employed, but this correlation is not strong. As a result, the 25-MPa stress limit is retained as a practical design limit.

To facilitate rotation, the top and bottom surfaces of the elastomer shall be treated with a lubricant that is not detrimental to the elastomer. Alternatively, thin PTFE discs may be used on the top and bottom of the elastomer.

- C Lubrication helps prevent abrasion of the elastomer during cyclic rotation, however, research has shown that the beneficial effect of the lubrication tends to be lost with time. Silicon grease has been used with success. It performed well in experiments and is recommended. Thin sheets of PTFE have also been used. These sheets performed quite well in experimental studies, but they are less highly recommended because there is a concern that they may wrinkle and become ineffective. Powdered graphite has been used but has not performed well in rotation experiments. As a result, silicon grease is the preferred lubricant, and powdered graphite is not recommended. PTFE discs are permitted as a method of lubrication, but the user should be aware that some problems have been reported.

5. Sealing Rings

a. General

A seal shall be used between the pot and the piston. At the service limit state seals shall be adequate to prevent escape of elastomer under compressive load and simultaneously applied cyclic rotations. At the strength limit state, seals shall also be adequate to prevent escape of elastomer under compressive load and simultaneously applied static rotation.

C Failure of seals has been one of the most common problems in pot bearings.

Brass rings satisfying the requirements of either Articles [12.6.6.4.5.b](#) or [12.6.6.4.5.c](#) may be used without testing to satisfy the above requirements. The Engineer may approve other sealing systems on the basis of experimental evidence.

- C Multiple flat brass rings, circular brass rod formed and brazed into a ring, and proprietary plastic rings have been found to be successful. Experimental research suggests that solid circular brass rings provide a tight fit and prevent leakage of the elastomer, but they experience severe wear during cyclic rotation. Experiments suggest that flat brass rings are somewhat more susceptible to elastomer leakage and fracture, but they are less prone to wear. PTFE rings should not be used. The rings should preferably be recessed into the elastomer or vulcanized to it in order to minimize distortion of the elastomer.
- C Cyclic rotation of the bearing due to temperature variations or traffic loading can cause chafing of the elastomer against the pot wall, which can give rise to some loss of elastomer past the seal. The detail design of the sealing system is important in preventing this. The details of the tests for alternative sealing systems are left to the discretion of the Engineer. However, tests should include cyclic rotation.

b. Rings with Rectangular Cross-Sections

Three rectangular rings shall be used. Each ring shall be circular in plan but shall be cut at one point around its circumference. The faces of the cut shall be on a plane at 45° to the vertical and to the tangent of the circumference.

The rings shall be oriented so that the cuts on each of the three rings are equally spaced around the circumference of the pot.

The width of each ring shall not be less than either $0.02 D_p$ or 6.0 mm and shall not exceed 19 mm. The depth of each shall not be less than 0.2 times its width.

c. Rings with Circular Cross-Sections

One circular closed ring shall be used with an outside diameter of D_p . It shall have a cross-sectional diameter not less than either $0.0175 D_p$ or 4 mm.

6. Pot

The pot shall consist at least of a wall and base. All elements of the pot shall be designed to act as a single structural unit.

- C Pots are constructed most reliably by machining from a single plate. For very large bearings, this may become prohibitively expensive, so fabrication by welding a ring to a base plate is implicitly accepted. However, the ring must be attached to the plate by a full penetration weld because the wall is subject to significant bending moments where it joins the base plate. The quality of welding should be assured by quality control. The finished inside profile of the pot must satisfy the required shape and tolerances. Straightening and machining may be needed to rectify welding distortions.

The minimum thickness of a base bearing directly against concrete or grout shall satisfy:

$$t_b \geq 0.06 D_p \quad (12.26)$$

and $t_b \geq 20 \text{ mm}$ (12.27)

The thickness of a base bearing directly on steel girders or load distribution plates shall satisfy:

$$t_b \geq 0.04 D_p \quad (12.28)$$

and $t_b \geq 12.5 \text{ mm}$ (12.29)

The minimum pot wall thickness, t_w , for an unguided sliding pot bearing shall satisfy:

$$t_w \geq \frac{D_p \sigma_s}{1.25 F_y} \quad (12.30)$$

and $t_w \geq 20 \text{ mm}$ (12.31)

where:

t_w = pot wall thickness (mm)

F_y = yield strength of the steel (MPa)

D_p = internal pot diameter in pot bearing (mm)

σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)

- C The lower bounds on the thickness of the base plate are intended to provide some rigidity to counteract the effects of uneven bearing. If the base plate was to deform significantly, the volume of elastomer would be inadequate to fill the space in the pot, and hard contact could occur between some elements.
- C Eqs. [\(12.30\)](#) and [\(12.31\)](#) define minimum wall thickness requirements for unguided pot bearings. Eq. [\(12.30\)](#) is based upon hoop strength of the pot walls with the elastomeric disc under hydrostatic compressive stress. This equation is conservative for this application, because it neglects the beneficial effect of the bending strength and stiffness at the pot wall-base interface. However, this equation provides no lateral (horizontal) resistance to the bearing, and it is limited to unguided bearings ([Stanton, 1999](#)).
- C The limitation of Eq. [\(12.31\)](#) is based upon past manufacturing practice ([SCEF, 1991](#)).

The wall thickness (t_w) and base thickness (t_b) of guided or fixed pots shall also satisfy the requirements of Eq. [\(12.32\)](#) for applicable strength and extreme event load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#) which are transferred by the piston to the pot wall.

- C The surface finish on the inside of the pot may have considerable impact on bearing performance. A smooth finish reduces rotational resistance, wear, and abrasion of the elastomer. It may also improve the performance of the sealing rings, but at present, there are no definitive limits as to what the surface finish should ideally be for good bearing performance. Metalization on the inside of the pot tends to cause a rougher surface finish, which leads to significant increases in damage under cyclic rotation; as a result, metalization may not be a good method of protection.
- C Maximum extreme event limit state forces should be considered when the bearing is not intended to act as a hse or irreparable damage is not permitted.

7. Piston

The piston shall have the same plan shape as the inside of the pot. Its thickness shall be adequate to resist the loads imposed on it, but shall not be less than 6 percent of the inside diameter of the pot, D_p , except at the rim.

- C The required piston thickness is controlled by rigidity and strength. A central internal guide bar fitted in a slot in the piston causes bending moments that are largest where the piston is weakest. In this case, the piston must also be thick enough to supply an adequate grip length for any bolts used to secure the guide bar.

The perimeter of the piston shall have a contact rim through which horizontal loads may be transmitted. In circular pots, its surface may be either cylindrical or spherical. The body of the piston above the rim shall be set back or tapered to prevent binding. The height, w , of the piston rim shall be large enough to transmit the strength and extreme event limit states horizontal forces between the pot and the piston.

Where a mechanical device is used to connect the superstructure to the substructure, it shall be designed to resist the greater of H_u at the support for the strength and extreme event limit states, or 15 percent of the maximum vertical service load at that location.

Pot bearings subjected to lateral loads shall be proportioned so that the thickness of the pot wall (t_w) and the pot base (t_b) shall satisfy:

$$t_w, t_b \geq \sqrt{\frac{25H_u \theta_u}{F_y}} \quad (12.32)$$

Pot bearings that transfer load through the piston shall satisfy:

$$h_w \geq \frac{1.5H_u}{D_p F_y} \quad (12.33)$$

$$h_w \geq 3 \text{ mm} \quad (12.34)$$

$$h_w \geq 0.03 D_p \quad (12.35)$$

where:

H_u = lateral load from applicable strength and extreme load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (N)

θ_u = maximum strength limit state design rotation angle specified in Article [12.4.2.2.1](#) (rad.)

F_y = yield strength of steel (MPa)

D_p = internal diameter of pot (mm)

h_w = height from top of rim to underside of piston (mm)

t_w = pot wall thickness (mm)

t_b = pot base thickness (mm)

- C If the piston rotates while a horizontal load is acting, the piston rim will be subject to bearing stresses due to horizontal load and to shear forces. If the rim surface is cylindrical, contact between it and the pot wall will theoretically be along a line when the piston rotates. In practice, some localized yielding is inevitable. If the rim surface forms part of a sphere, the contact area will be [nite, providing less potential for local damage. Damage to the pot wall should be avoided because it will jeopardize the effectiveness of the seal. The dimensions of the rim depend on the contact area, and because this is uncertain, the rim should be designed conservatively. Eq. [\(12.35\)](#) is based on consideration of bearing stresses alone, using a strength limit state horizontal force of 0.15 times the vertical service limit state, $F_y = 345 \text{ MPa}$ and $\phi = 0.9$.
- C The 15 percent factor applied to the service limit state vertical load, embedded in Eq. [\(12.35\)](#) and used in the design of mechanical devices that connect the superstructure to the substructure, approximates a strength limit state horizontal design force.

- C Maximum extreme event limit state forces should be considered when the bearing is not intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is not permitted. θ_u may also be considered at the extreme event limit state.

The diameter of the piston rim shall be the inside diameter of the pot less a clearance, c . The clearance, c , shall be as small as possible in order to prevent escape of the elastomer but not less than 0.5 mm. If the surface of the piston rim is cylindrical, the clearance shall satisfy:

$$c \geq \theta_u \left(h_w - \frac{D_p \theta_u}{2} \right) \quad (12.36)$$

where:

D_p = internal diameter of pot (mm)

h_w = height from top of rim to underside of piston (mm)

θ_u = maximum strength limit state design rotation angle specified in Article 12.4.2.2.1 (rad.)

- C The clearance between piston and pot is critical to the proper functioning of the bearing. In most bearings the finished clearance, after anticorrosion coatings have been applied, should be about 0.5 to 1 mm, a range that is easily achievable. The equation for minimum clearance is based on geometry. Eq. (12.36) may occasionally produce a negative number; however, in these instances the minimum value of 0.5 mm controls.

12.6.6.5. Steel-Reinforced Elastomeric Bearings—Method B

1. General

Steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings may be designed using either of two methods commonly referred to as Method A and Method B. Where the provisions of this Article are used, the component shall be taken to meet the requirements of Method B. Where the provisions of Article 12.6.6.6 are used, the component shall be taken to meet the requirements of Method A.

- C Steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings are treated separately from other elastomeric bearings because of their greater strength and superior performance in practice (Roeder et al., 1987; Roeder and Slanlon, 1991). The design method described in this Section allows higher compressive stresses and more slender bearings than are permitted for other types of elastomeric bearings, both of which can lead to smaller horizontal forces on the substructure. To qualify for the more liberal design, the bearing should be subjected to more rigorous testing.
- C The stress limits associated with Method A usually result in a bearing with a lower capacity than a bearing designed using Method B. This increased capacity resulting from the use of Method B requires additional testing and quality control.

Steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings shall consist of alternate layers of steel reinforcement and elastomer bonded together. In addition to any internal reinforcement, bearings may have external steel load plates bonded to either or both the upper or lower elastomer layers.

Tapered elastomer layers shall not be used. All internal layers of elastomer shall be of the same thickness. The top and bottom cover layers shall be no thicker than 70 percent of the internal layers.

- C Tapered layers cause larger shear strains and bearings made with them fail prematurely due to delamination or rupture of the reinforcement. All internal layers should be the same thickness because the strength and stiffness of the bearing in resisting compressive load are controlled by the thickest layer.

The shape factor of a layer of an elastomeric bearing, S_i , shall be taken as the plan area of the layer divided by the area of perimeter free to bulge. For rectangular bearings without holes, the shape factor of a layer may be taken as:

$$S_i = \frac{LW}{2h_{ri}(L + W)} \quad (12.37)$$

where:

- L = length of a rectangular elastomeric bearing (parallel to longitudinal bridge axis) (mm)
- W = width of the bearing in the transverse direction (mm)
- h_{ri} = thickness of i^{th} elastomeric layer in elastomeric bearing (mm)

For circular bearings without holes, the shape factor of a layer may be taken as:

$$S_i = \frac{D}{4h_{ri}} \quad (12.38)$$

where:

- D = diameter of the projection of the loaded surface of the bearing in the horizontal plane (mm)
- h_{ri} = thickness of i^{th} elastomeric layer in elastomeric bearing (mm)

- C The shape factor, S_i , is defined in terms of the gross plan dimensions of layer i . Refinements to account for the difference between gross dimensions and the dimensions of the reinforcement are not warranted because quality control on elastomer thickness has a more dominant influence on bearing behavior. Holes are strongly discouraged in steel-reinforced bearings. However, if holes are used, their effect should be accounted for when calculating the shape factor because they reduce the loaded area and increase the area free to bulge. Suitable shape factor formulae are:

For rectangular bearings:

$$S_i = \frac{LW - \sum \frac{\pi}{4} d^2}{h_{ri} [2L + 2W + \sum \pi d]} \quad (12.39)$$

For circular bearings:

$$S_i = \frac{D^2 - \sum d^2}{4h_{ri} [D + \sum d]} \quad (12.40)$$

where:

- d = the diameter of the hole or holes in the bearing (mm)

2. Material Properties

The shear modulus of the elastomer at 23°C shall be used as the basis for design.

The elastomer shall have a specified shear modulus between 0.6 and 1.3 MPa. It shall conform to the requirements of Section 16.3.2 of the MA-100-C-V1/1 and the **AASHTO M 251**.

- C Shear modulus, G , is the most important material property for design, and it is, therefore, the primary means of specifying the elastomer. Hardness has been widely used in the past, and is still permitted

for Method A design, because the test for it is quick and simple. However, the results obtained from it are variable and correlate only loosely with shear modulus.

- C Materials with a specified shear modulus greater than 1.3 MPa are prohibited because they generally have a smaller elongation at break and greater stiffness and greater creep than their softer counterparts. This inferior performance is generally attributed to the larger amounts of filler present. Their fatigue behavior does not differ in a clearly discernible way from that of softer materials.

The acceptance criteria in **AASHTO M 251** shall be followed which:

- permits a variation of ± 15 percent from the value specified for shear modulus according to the first paragraph of this Article;
- does not permit a shear modulus below 0.55 MPa.

For design purposes, the shear modulus shall be taken as the least favorable of the values in the ranges described above.

Other properties, such as creep deflection, should be obtained from [Table 12.7](#) or from tests conducted using **AASHTO M 251**

- C The least favorable value for the shear modulus used in design calculations is dependent upon whether the parameter being calculated is conservatively estimated by over- or under-estimating the shear modulus. The forgiving nature of elastomers tends to compensate for service and installation conditions which are less than ideal. (See Article 14.7.5.3.4.) Despite this, the designer should be cautious about specifying a shear modulus which is at or near the specified upper or lower bounds of 1.3 MPa and 0.6 MPa, respectively.
- C Shear modulus increases as the elastomer cools, but the extent of stiffening depends on the elastomer compound, time, and temperature. It is, therefore, important to specify a material with low-temperature properties that are appropriate for the bridge site.

Bearings shall be made from AASHTO low-temperature grades of elastomer as defined in Section 16 of the MA-100-C-V1/1 and the **AASHTO M 251**. The minimum grade of elastomer required shall be taken as specified in [Table 12.5](#).

Any of the three design options listed below may be used:

- Specify the elastomer with the minimum lowtemperature grade indicated in [Table 12.5](#) and determine the shear force transmitted by the bearing as specified in Article [12.6.3.1](#);
- Specify the elastomer with the minimum lowtemperature grade for use when special force provisions are incorporated in the design and provide a low friction sliding surface, in which case the bridge shall be designed to withstand twice the design shear force specified in Article [12.6.3.1](#); or
- Specify the elastomer with the minimum lowtemperature grade for use when special force provisions are incorporated in the design but do not provide a low friction sliding surface, in which case the components of the bridge shall be designed to resist four times the design shear force as specified in Article [12.6.3.1](#).

Table 12.5: Minimum Grade of Elastomer.

Minimum low-temperature elastomer grade	0
Minimum low-temperature elastomer grade when special force provisions are incorporated	0

3. Design Requirements

a. Scope

Bearings designed by the provisions herein shall be tested in accordance with the requirements for steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings as specified in Article 16.5.4.1 of the MA-100-C-V1/1 and the AASHTO M 251.

- C Steel-reinforced bearings are designed to resist relatively high stresses. Their integrity depends on good quality control during manufacture, which can only be ensured by rigorous testing.

b. Compressive Stress

In any elastomeric bearing layer, the average compressive stress at the service limit state shall satisfy:

- For bearings subject to shear deformation:

$$\sigma_s \leq 1.66GS \leq 11.0 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.41)$$

$$\sigma_L \leq 0.66GS \quad (12.42)$$

- For bearings fixed against shear deformation:

$$\sigma_s \leq 2.00GS \leq 12.0 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.43)$$

$$\sigma_L \leq 1.00GS \quad (12.44)$$

where:

σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)

σ_L = average compressive stress at service limit state (load factor = 1.0) due to live load (MPa)

G = shear modulus of the elastomer (MPa)

S = shape factor of the thickest layer of an elastomeric bearing

- C These provisions limit the shear stress and strain in the elastomer. The relationship between the shear stress and the applied compressive load depends directly on shape factor, with higher shape factors leading to higher capacities. If movements are accommodated by shear deformations of the elastomer, they cause shear stresses in the elastomer. These add to the shear stresses caused by compressive load, so a lower load limit is specified.
- C The compressive limits, in terms of GS , were derived from static and fatigue tests correlated with theory (Roeder and Stanton, 1986; Roeder et al., 1990). There was large scatter in the stress at which delamination started in different fatigue and static tests. The absolute limits of 11 and 12 MPa came from the static tests. Delamination is a service limit state, but it may lead to more serious structural problems. The specified stress limits provide a safety factor of approximately 1.5 against initial delamination. However, long-term loading was not investigated in the test program, although it is known to be more detrimental to the bond, so the real safety factor against initiation of debonding may be somewhat less than 1.5.
- C The compressive stress limits, in terms of GS , were derived from fatigue tests and are based on the observation that fatigue cracking in the experiments remained acceptably low if the maximum shear strain due to total dead and live load was kept below 3.0, and the maximum shear strain range for cyclic loading was kept below 1.5. The level of damage considered acceptable had to be selected arbitrarily; therefore, the limits are not absolute. Increases in the load to simulate the effects of impact are not required. This is because the impact stresses are likely to be only a small proportion of the total load and because the stress limits are based on fatigue damage, the limits of which are not clearly defined. Two limits are given, one for total load and one for live load, and the most restrictive one will control.

c. Compressive Deflection

Deflections of elastomeric bearings due to dead load and to instantaneous live load alone shall be considered separately.

Loadings considered in this Article shall be at the service limit state with all load factors equal to 1.0.

- C Limiting instantaneous live load deflections is important to ensure that deck joints and seals are not damaged. Furthermore, bearings that are too flexible in compression could cause a small step in the road surface at a deck joint when traffic passes from one girder to the other, giving rise to impact loading. A maximum relative live load deflection across a joint of 3 mm is suggested. Joints and seals that are sensitive to relative deflections may require limits that are tighter than this.

Instantaneous live load deflection shall be taken as:

$$\delta_L = \sum \epsilon_{Li} h_{ri} \quad (12.45)$$

where:

ϵ_{Li} = instantaneous live load compressive strain in i th elastomer layer of a laminated bearing

h_{ri} = thickness of i th elastomeric layer in a laminated bearing (mm)

Initial dead load deflection shall be taken as:

$$\delta_d = \sum \epsilon_{di} h_{ri} \quad (12.46)$$

where:

ϵ_{di} = initial dead load compressive strain in i th elastomer layer of a laminated bearing

h_{ri} = thickness of i th elastomeric layer in a laminated bearing (mm)

- C Long-term dead load deflections should be considered where joints and seals between sections of the bridge rest on bearings of different design and when estimating redistribution of forces in continuous bridges caused by settlement.

Long-term dead load deflection, including the effects of creep, shall be taken as:

$$\delta_{lt} = \delta_d + a_{cr} \delta_d \quad (12.47)$$

where:

a_{cr} = creep deflection divided by initial dead load deflection (dim.)

Values for ϵ_{Li} and ϵ_{di} shall be determined from test results or by analysis. Creep effects should be determined from information relevant to the elastomeric compound used. If the engineer does not elect to obtain a value for the ratio, a_{cr} , from test results using [Annex A2 of the AASHTO Materials Specification M 251](#), the values given in [Table 12.7](#) may be used.

- C Laminated elastomeric bearings have a nonlinear load deflection curve in compression. In the absence of information specific to the particular elastomer to be used, Eq. (12.48) or [Figure 12.5](#) may be used as a guide for calculating dead and live load compressive strains for Eqs. (12.45) and (12.46).

$$\epsilon = \frac{\sigma}{6GS^2} \quad (12.48)$$

- C where:

- σ = instantaneous live load compressive stress or dead load compressive stress in an individual elastomer layer of a laminated bearing (MPa)
- S = shape factor of an individual elastomer layer
- G = shear modulus of the elastomer (MPa)

- C Eq. (12.48) or Figure 12.5 may also be used as a guide for specifying an allowable value of compressive strain at the design dead plus live service compressive load when employing Section 8.8.1 of the AASHTO M 251.
- C Guidance for specifying an allowable value for creep when Annex A2 of the AASHTO M 251 is employed may be obtained from NCHRP Report 449 or from Table 12.7.
- C Reliable test data on total deflections are rare because of the difficulties in defining the true 0.0 for deflection. However, the change in deflection due to live load can be reliably predicted either by design aids based on test results or by using theoretically based equations (Stanton and Roeder, 1982). In the latter case, it is important to include the effects of bulk compressibility of the elastomer, especially for high-shape factor bearings.

d. Shear Deformation

The maximum horizontal displacement of the bridge superstructure, Δ_O , shall be taken as 65 percent of the design thermal movement range, Δ_T , combined with movements caused by creep, shrinkage, and post-tensioning.

The maximum shear deformation of the bearing, at the service limit state, Δ_S , shall be taken as Δ_O , modified to account for the substructure stiffness and construction procedures. If a low friction sliding surface is installed, Δ_S need not be taken to be larger than the deformation corresponding to first slip.

The bearing shall satisfy:

$$h_{rt} \geq 2\Delta_S \quad (12.49)$$

where:

h_{rt} = total elastomer thickness (mm)

Δ_S = maximum total shear deformation of the elastomer from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (mm)

- C The shear deformation is limited to $\pm 0.5 h_{rt}$ in order to avoid rollover at the edges and delamination due to fatigue.
- C Generally, the installation temperature is within ± 15 percent of the average of the maximum and minimum design temperatures. Consequently, 65 percent of the thermal movement range is used for design purposes (Roeder, 2002). The forgiving nature of elastomeric bearings more than accounts for actual installation temperatures greater than or less than the likely approximated installation temperature. Additionally, if the bearing is originally set or reset at the average of the design temperature range, 50 percent of the design thermal movement range computed in accordance with Article 3.11.2 may be substituted for 65 percent as specified.
- C Fatigue tests that formed the basis for this provision were conducted to 20,000 cycles, which represents one expansion/contraction cycle per day for approximately 55 years (Roeder et al., 1990). The provisions will, therefore, be unconservative if the shear deformation is caused by high-cycle loading due to braking forces or vibration. The maximum shear deformation due to these high-cycle loadings should be restricted to no more than $\pm 0.10 h_{rt}$, unless better information is available. At this strain amplitude, the experiments showed that the bearing has an essentially infinite fatigue life.
- C If the bridge girders are lifted to allow the bearings to realign after some of the girder shortening has occurred, that may be accounted for in design.
- C Pier deflections sometimes accommodate a significant portion of the bridge movement, and this may reduce the movement that must be accommodated by the bearing. Construction methods may

increase the bearing movement because of poor installation tolerances or poor timing of the bearing installation.

e. Combined Compression and Rotation

The provisions of this Section shall apply at the service limit state. Rotations shall be taken as the maximum sum of the effects of initial lack of parallelism and subsequent girder end rotation due to imposed loads and movements.

- C The equations in this Article have been changed from the format in which they appeared in earlier editions of the AASHTO Standard Specifications, but the underlying physical principles remain the same. The changes were made in order to simplify the design process by obviating the need for iterative calculations and by removing the need for deflection charts to permit computer implementation and to include provisions for circular bearings.

Bearings shall be designed so that uplift does not occur under any combination of loads and corresponding rotations.

Rectangular bearings may be taken to satisfy uplift requirements if they satisfy:

$$\sigma_s > 1.0GS \left(\frac{\theta_s}{n} \right) \left(\frac{B}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \quad (12.50)$$

Rectangular bearings subjected to shear deformation shall also satisfy:

$$\sigma_s < 1.875GS \left[1 - 0.20 \left(\frac{\theta_s}{n} \right) \left(\frac{B}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \right] \quad (12.51)$$

Rectangular bearings fixed against shear deformation shall also satisfy:

$$\sigma_s < 2.25GS \left[1 - 0.167 \left(\frac{\theta_s}{n} \right) \left(\frac{B}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \right] \quad (12.52)$$

where:

n = Number of interior layers of elastomer, where interior layers are defined as those layers which are bonded on each face. Exterior layers are defined as those layers which are bonded only on one face. When the thickness of the exterior layer of elastomer is more than one-half the thickness of an interior layer, the parameter, n , may be increased by one-half for each such exterior layer.

h_{ri} = thickness of the i th elastomer layer (mm)

σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)

B = length of pad if rotation is about its transverse axis or width of pad if rotation is about its longitudinal axis (mm)

θ_s = maximum service limit state design rotation angle specified in Article [12.4.2.1](#) (rad.)

Circular bearings may be taken to satisfy uplift requirements if they satisfy:

$$\sigma_s < 0.75GS \left(\frac{\theta_s}{n} \right) \left(\frac{D}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \quad (12.53)$$

Circular bearings subjected to shear deformation shall also satisfy:

$$\sigma_s < 2.5GS \left[1 - 0.15 \left(\frac{\theta_s}{n} \right) \left(\frac{D}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \right] \quad (12.54)$$

Circular bearings fixed against shear deformation shall also satisfy:

$$\sigma_s < 3.0GS \left[1 - 0.125 \left(\frac{\theta_s}{n} \right) \left(\frac{D}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \right] \quad (12.55)$$

where:

θ_s = maximum service limit state design rotation angle specified in Article 12.4.2.1 (rad.)

D = diameter of pad (mm)

- C These provisions address two conditions. Eq. (12.50) ensures that no point in the bearing undergoes net uplift, and Eqs. (12.51) and (12.52) prevent excessive compressive stress on an edge. When the thickness of an outer layer of elastomer is more than one-half the thickness of an interior layer, the parameter, n , may be increased by one-half for each such exterior layer. Uplift must be prevented because strain reversal in the elastomer significantly decreases its fatigue life.
- C A rectangular bearing should normally be oriented so its long side is parallel to the axis about which the largest rotation occurs. The critical location in the bearing for both compression and rotation is then at the midpoint of the long side. If rotation occurs about both axes, uplift and excessive compression should be investigated in both directions.
- C Eqs. (12.53) through (12.55) provide limits for circular bearings similar in principle to those for rectangular bearings. If the rotations are small, a circular bearing may be able to carry a higher average stress than a rectangular bearing, but a rectangular bearing rotated about its weak axis is more efficient if the rotations are significant. In all cases, the upper limits on compressive stress given in Article 12.6.6.5.3.b should also be met.
- C The interaction between compressive and rotation capacity in a bearing is illustrated in Figure 12.4. It is analogous to the interaction diagram for a reinforced concrete column.
- C Because a high shape factor is best for resisting compression, but a low one accommodates rotation most readily, the best choice represents a compromise between the two. The "balanced design" point in Figure 12.4, where uplift and compressive stress are simultaneously critical, will in many cases provide the most economical solution for a given plan geometry. Table 12.6 gives coordinates of the balance point for different bearing shapes.

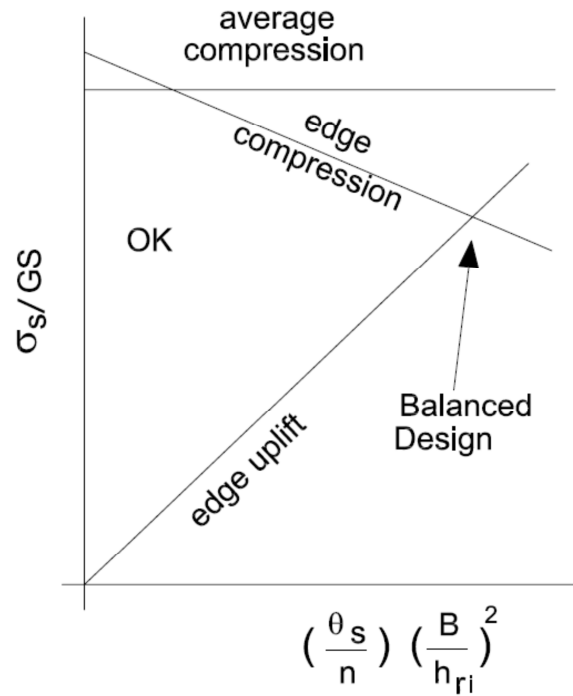


Figure 12.4: Elastomeric Bearing-Interaction between Compressive Stress and Rotation Angle.

Table 12.6: Steel-Reinforced Elastomeric Bearings-Balanced Design.

Bearing Type	$\frac{\sigma_s}{GS}$	$\left(\frac{\theta_s}{n}\right)\left(\frac{B}{h_{ri}}\right)^2$
Fixed Rectangular	1.636	1.636
Movable Rectangular	1.364	1.364
Fixed Circular	2.000	2.667
Movable Circular	1.667	2.222

f. Stability of Elastomeric Bearings

Bearings shall be investigated for instability at the service limit state load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#).

- C The average compressive stress is limited to half the predicted buckling stress. The latter is calculated using the buckling theory developed by Gent, modified to account for changes in geometry during compression, and calibrated against experimental results ([Gent, 1964](#); [Stanton et al., 1990](#)). This provision will permit taller bearings and reduced shear forces compared to those permitted under previous editions of the AASHTO Standard Specifications.

Bearings satisfying Eq. [\(12.56\)](#) shall be considered stable, and no further investigation of stability is required.

$$2A \leq B \quad (12.56)$$

in which:

$$A = \frac{1.92 \frac{h_r}{L}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{2.0L}{W}}} \quad (12.57)$$

$$B = \frac{2.67}{(S + 2.0) \left(1 + \frac{L}{4.0W} \right)} \quad (12.58)$$

where:

- G = shear modulus of the elastomer (MPa)
- L = length of a rectangular elastomeric bearing (parallel to longitudinal bridge axis) (mm)
- W = width of the bearing in the transverse direction (mm)

For a rectangular bearing where L is greater than W , stability shall be investigated by interchanging L and W in Eqs. (12.57) and (12.58).

For circular bearings, stability may be investigated by using the equations for a square bearing with $W = L = 0.8 D$.

For rectangular bearings not satisfying Eq. (12.56), the stress due to the total load shall satisfy Eq. (12.61) or (12.62).

- If the bridge deck is free to translate horizontally:

$$\sigma_s \leq \frac{GS}{2A - B} \quad (12.59)$$

- If the bridge deck is fixed against horizontal translation:

$$\sigma_s \leq \frac{GS}{A - B} \quad (12.60)$$

- C Eq. (12.59) corresponds to buckling in a sidesway mode and is relevant for bridges in which the deck is not rigidly fixed against horizontal translation at any point. This may be the case in many bridges for transverse translation perpendicular to the longitudinal axis. If one point on the bridge is fixed against horizontal movement, the sidesway buckling mode is not possible, and Eq. (12.60) should be used. This freedom to move horizontally should be distinguished from the question of whether the bearing is subject to shear deformations relevant to Articles 12.6.6.5.3.d and 12.6.6.5.3.e.
- C In a bridge that is fixed at one end, the bearings at the other end will be subject to imposed shear deformation but will not be free to translate in the sense relevant to buckling due to the restraint at the opposite end of the bridge.
- C A negative or infinite limit from Eq. (12.60) indicates that the bearing is stable and is not dependent on σ_s .
- C If the value $A - B \leq 0$, the bearing is stable and is not dependent on σ_s .

g. Reinforcement

The thickness of the steel reinforcement, h_s , shall satisfy:

- At the service limit state:

$$h_s \geq \frac{3h_{\max} \sigma_s}{F_y} \quad (12.61)$$

- At the fatigue limit state:

$$h_s \geq \frac{2h_{\max}\sigma_L}{\Delta F_{TH}} \quad (12.62)$$

where:

- ΔF_{TH} = constant amplitude fatigue threshold for Category A as specified in Article 6.6 (MPa)
- $h_{\max}$ = thickness of thickest elastomeric layer in elastomeric bearing (mm)
- σ_L = average compressive stress at service limit state (load factor = 1.0) due to live load (MPa)
- σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in Table 3.1 (MPa)
- F_y = yield strength of steel reinforcement (MPa)

- C The reinforcement should sustain the tensile stresses induced by compression of the bearing. With the present load limitations, the minimum steel plate thickness practical for fabrication will usually provide adequate strength.
- C If the thickness of the steel reinforcement, h_s is not specified by the engineer, the minimum thickness shall be 1.5 mm according to Article 4.5 of the AASHTO Materials Specification M 251.
- C Holes in the reinforcement cause stress concentrations. Their use should be discouraged. The required increase in steel thickness accounts for both the material removed and the stress concentrations around the hole.

If holes exist in the reinforcement, the minimum thickness shall be increased by a factor equal to twice the gross width divided by the net width.

h. Seismic and Other Extreme Event Provisions

Elastomeric expansion bearings shall be provided with adequate seismic and other extreme event resistant anchorage to resist the horizontal forces in excess of those accommodated by shear in the pad unless the bearing is intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is permitted. The sole plate and the base plate shall be made wider to accommodate the anchor bolts. Inserts through the elastomer should not be allowed, unless approved by the Engineer. The anchor bolts shall be designed for the combined effect of bending and shear for seismic and other extreme event loads as specified in Article 12.6.5.3. Elastomeric fixed bearings shall be provided with horizontal restraint adequate for the full horizontal load.

- C The seismic and other extreme event demands on elastomeric bearings exceed their design limits. Therefore, positive connection between the girder and the substructure concrete is needed.
- C If the bearing is intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is permitted, the positive connection need not be designed for the maximum extreme event limit state forces.
- C Holes in elastomer cause stress concentrations that can lead to tearing of the elastomer during earthquakes.

12.6.6.6. Elastomeric Pads and Steel-Reinforced Elastomeric Bearings—Method A

1. General

The provisions of this Article shall be taken to apply to the design of:

- Plain elastomeric pads, PEP;
- Pads reinforced with discrete layers of fiberglass, FGP;

- Steel-reinforced bearings; and
 - Cotton-duck pads (CDP) with closely spaced layers of cotton duck and manufactured and tested under compression in accordance with **Military Specification MIL-C-882E** except where superseded by these Specifications.
- C Elastomeric pads have characteristics different from those of steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings. Plain elastomeric pads are weaker and more flexible because they are restrained from bulging by friction alone (Roeder and Stanton, 1986, 1983). Slip inevitably occurs, especially under dynamic loads, causing larger compressive deflections and higher internal strains in the elastomer.
- C In pads reinforced with layers of fiberglass, the reinforcement inhibits the deformations found in plain pads. However, elastomers bond less well to fiberglass, and the fiberglass is weaker than steel, so the fiberglass pad is unable to carry the same loads as a steel-reinforced bearing (Crozier et al., 1979). Fiberglass pads (FGP) have the advantage that they can be cut to size from a large sheet of vulcanized material.

Layer thicknesses in FGP may be different from one another. For steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings designed in accordance with the provisions of this Section, internal layers shall be of the same thickness, and cover layers shall be no more than 70 percent of the thickness of internal layers.

The shape factor for PEP, FGP pads and steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings covered by this Article shall be determined as specified in Article [12.6.6.5.1](#). The shape factor for CDP shall be based upon the total pad thickness.

- C CDP are preformed pads that are produced in large sheets and cut to size for specific bridge applications. CDP are reinforced with closely spaced layers of cotton-duck and typically display high compressive stiffness and strength, obtained by the use of very thin elastomeric layers. However, the thin layers also give rise to very high shear and rotational stiffness, which could easily lead to edge loading and a higher shear stiffness than that to be found in layered bearings. These increased shear and rotational stiffness lead to larger moments and forces in the bridge and reduced movement and rotational capacity of the bearing pad. As a consequence, CDP is often used with a PTFE slider on top of the elastomer pad (Nordlin et al., 1970).
- C It is essential that CDP bearing pads be tested and verified to meet the test requirements of Military Specification MIL-C-882E. Note that there is no AASHTO equivalent to this Military Specification. A summary of testing and acceptance criteria for CDP is given below.
- C These criteria require that:
- a lot of preformed CDP be defined as a single sheet that is continuously formed to a given thickness except that a single lot not exceed 1135 kg of material;
 - a minimum of two samples from each lot shall be tested;
 - the samples be 51 mm × 51 mm with the full sheet thickness;
 - the test specimens be cured for four hours at room temperature (21°C ± 6°C)
 - each specimen is then to be loaded in compression, perpendicular to the direction of lamination;
 - the origin of deflection and compressive strain measurements be taken at a compressive stress of 35 Pa;
 - the load be increased at a steady rate of 230 kg/ min. and the deflection be recorded;
 - the specimen be loaded to a compressive stress of 69 MPa without fracture or other failure; and
 - the entire lot of CDP be rejected if any of the CDP specimens fail to satisfy either of these test criteria: The average compressive strain of the specimens for that lot is not to be less than 0.075 mm/mm nor shall it be greater than 0.175 mm/mm at an average compressive stress of 14 MPa. CDP bearing pads which fail to achieve the 69 MPa stress limit here fall outside the specified strain range and will not develop the deformation limits permitted in later parts of Article [12.6.6](#).

2. Material Properties

The elastomeric-type materials for PEP, FGP and steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings shall satisfy the requirements of Article [12.6.6.5.2](#). In addition, hardness on the Shore A scale may be used as a basis for specification of bearing material. The specified shear modulus shall be between 0.6 and 1.75 MPa, and the nominal hardness shall be between 50 and 70 on the Shore A scale and shall conform to the requirements of Section 16.3.2 of the MA-100-C-V1/1 and the [AASHTO M 251](#). If the material is specified by its hardness, the shear modulus for design purposes shall be taken as the least favorable value from the range for that hardness given in [Table 12.7](#). Intermediate values may be obtained by interpolation. If the material is specified by shear modulus, it shall be taken for design purposes as the least favorable from the value specified according to the ranges given in Article [12.6.6.5.2](#). Other properties, such as creep deflection, are also given in [Table 12.7](#). There is an exception for steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings designed in accordance with the provisions of this Section. The elastomer shall have a specified shear modulus between 0.6 and 1.3 MPa and a nominal hardness between 50 and 60 on the Shore A scale.

- C The elastomer requirements for PEP and FGP are the same as those required for steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings.
- C The ranges given in [Table 12.7](#) represent the variations found in practice. If the material is specified by hardness, a safe and presumably different estimate of G should be taken for each of the design calculations, depending on whether the parameter being calculated is conservatively estimated by over- or under-estimating the shear modulus. Specifying the material by hardness thus imposes a slight penalty in design. Creep varies from one compound to another and is generally more prevalent in harder elastomers or those with a higher shear modulus but is seldom a problem if high-quality materials are used. This is particularly true because the deflection limits are based on serviceability and are likely to be controlled by live load, rather than total load. The creep values given in [Table 12.7](#) are representative of neoprene and are conservative for natural rubber.

The shear force on the structure induced by deformation of the elastomer in PEP, FGP and steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings shall be based on a G value not less than that of the elastomer at 23°C. Effects of relaxation shall be ignored.

CDP shall be manufactured to [Military Standards MIL-C-882E](#) except where the provisions of these Specifications supersede those provisions. The elastomeric-type materials for CDP shall have a nominal hardness between 50 and 70 on the Shore A scale and meet the requirements of Article [12.6.6.5.2](#) as appropriate. The finished Cotton-Duck-Reinforced Pad (CDP) shall have a nominal hardness between 85 and 95 on the Shore A scale. The shear modulus for CDP may be estimated using Eq. [\(12.72\)](#). The cotton-duck reinforcement shall be either a two-ply cotton yarn or a single-ply 50-50 blend cotton-polyester. The fabric shall have a minimum tensile strength of 26 N/mm widths when tested by the grab method. The fill shall be 40 ± 2 threads per 25 mm, and the warp shall be 50 ± 1 threads per 25 mm. The CDP provisions included herein shall be taken as only applicable to bearing pads up to 51 mm total thickness.

- C CDP is made of elastomers with hardness and properties similar to that used for PEP and FGP. However, the closely spaced layers of duck fabric reduce the indentation and increase the hardness of the finished pad to the 85 to 95 durometer range. [Appendix X1 of AASHTO M 251](#) contains provisions for hardness of elastomers, but not finished CDP. The acceptable range from the specified value for hardness of elastomers is ± 5 points on the Shore A scale. The acceptable range criteria for elastomers in [AASHTO M 251](#) may also be considered for finished CDP. The cotton-duck requirements are restated from the military specification because the reinforcement is essential to the good performance of these pads.

Table 12.7 Correlated Material Properties.

	Hardness (Shore A)		
	50	60	70 ¹
Shear Modulus at 23°C (MPa)	0.66–0.90	0.90–1.38	1.38–2.07
Creep deflection at 25 years divided by initial deflection	0.25	0.35	0.45

⁽¹⁾ For PEP and FGP only.

3. Design Requirements

a. Scope

Steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings may be designed in accordance with this Article, in which case they qualify for the test requirements appropriate for elastomeric pads. For this purpose, they shall be treated as FGP.

The provisions for FGP apply only to pads where the fiberglass is placed in double layers 3.0 mm apart.

The physical properties of neoprene and natural rubber used in these bearings shall conform to the **AASHTO Materials Specification M 251**.

- C The design methods for elastomeric pads are simpler and more conservative than those for steel-reinforced bearings, so the test methods are less stringent than those of Article [12.6.6.5](#). Steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings may be made eligible for these less stringent testing procedures by limiting the compressive stress as specified in Article [12.6.6.3.b](#).
- C The three types of pad, PEP, FGP, and CDP behave differently, so information relevant to the particular type of pad should be used for design. For example, in PEP, slip at the interface between the elastomer and the material on which it is seated or loaded is dependent on the friction coefficient, and this will be different for pads seated on concrete, steel, grout, epoxy, etc.

b. Compressive Stress

At the service limit state, the average compressive stresses, σ_s and σ_L , in any layer shall satisfy:

- For PEP:

$$\sigma_s \leq 5.5 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.63)$$

- For FGP:

$$\sigma_s \leq 1.0 G S \leq 5.5 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.64)$$

- For CDP:

$$\sigma_s \leq 21 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.65)$$

$$\sigma_L \leq 14 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.66)$$

σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)

σ_L = average compressive stress at service limit state (load factor = 1.0) due to live load (MPa)

- C In FGP, the compressive stress is limited to G times the effective shape factor. Both PEP and FGP are limited to 5.5 MPa for all circumstances, but this upper bound stress limit can be achieved with a thicker rubber layer with FGP.

- C The CDP stress limits were developed to provide long term serviceability and durability. CDP stiffness and behavior is less sensitive to shape factor. The total maximum compressive stress is limited to 21 MPa because experiments showed that CDP does not fail under monotonically compressive stress values significantly larger than this stress limit, CDP, which is subject to compressive stress levels larger than 21 MPa, may delaminate under dynamic loadings typical of those experienced by bridge bearings. CDP may experience dramatic failure when maximum compressive strains exceed approximately 0.25. However, bearing pads which meet the strain and stiffness limits which are required by the military specification will not achieve this failure strain under pure compressive load.
- C The live load stresses are limited to 14 MPa, because research shows that delamination is caused by the compressive stress range as well as the maximum compressive level. Live loads control the maximum compressive stress range under repeated loading, and this limit controls the adverse effects of this delamination. Larger compressive strains would result in increased damage to the bridge and the bearing pad and reduced serviceability of the CDP (Lehman et al., 2003).

In FGP, the value of S used shall be that for the greatest distance between the midpoint of double reinforcement layers at the top and bottom of the elastomer layer.

For steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings designed in accordance with the provisions of this Article:

$$\sigma_s \leq 1.0 GS \text{ and} \quad (12.67)$$

$$\sigma_s \leq 7 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.68)$$

where the value of S used shall be that for the thickest layer of the bearing.

These stress limits may be increased by 10 percent where shear deformation is prevented.

- C The reduced stress limit for steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings designed in accordance with these provisions is invoked in order to allow these bearings to be eligible for the less stringent test requirements for elastomeric pads.

c. Compressive Deflection

In addition to the provisions of Article 12.6.6.5.3.c, the following shall also apply:

- In lieu of using specific product data, the compressive deflection of a FGP should be taken as 1.5 times the deflection estimated for steel-reinforced bearings of the same shape factor in Article 12.6.6.5.3.c.
 - The initial compressive deflection of PEP or in any layer of a steel-reinforced elastomeric bearing at the service limit state without impact shall not exceed $0.07h_{ri}$.
- C The compressive deflection with PEP, FGP, and CDP will be larger and more variable than those of steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings. Appropriate data for these pad types may be used to estimate their deflections. In the absence of such data, the compressive deflection of a PEP and FGP may be estimated at 3 and 1.5 times, respectively, the deflection estimated for steel-reinforced bearings of the same shape factor in Article 12.6.6.5.3.c.
- C Figure 12.5 provides design aids for determining the strain in an elastomer layer for steel reinforced bearings based upon durometer hardness and shape factor.

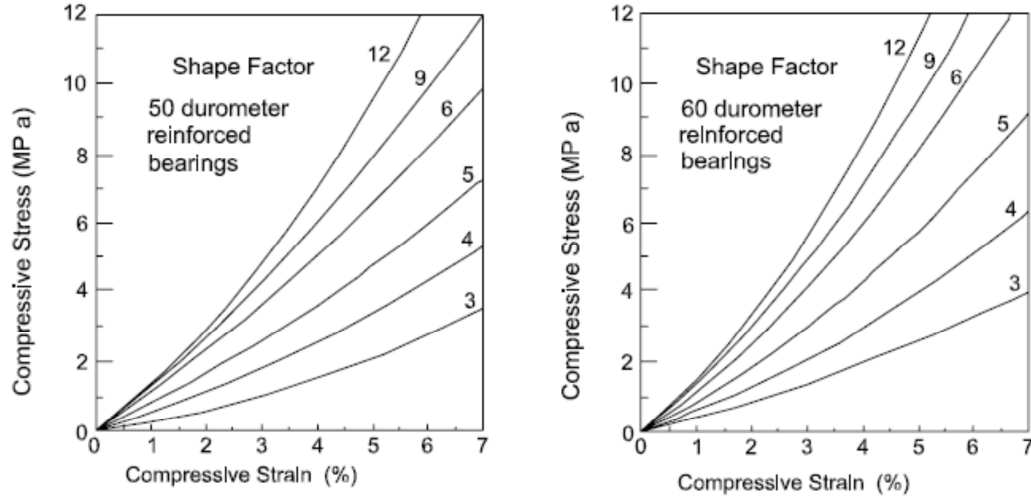


Figure 12.5: Stress-Strain Curves.

For CDP, the computed compressive strain, ϵ_s , may be taken as:

$$\epsilon_s = \frac{\sigma_s}{E_c} \quad (12.69)$$

where:

E_c = uniaxial compressive stiffness of the CDP bearing pad. It may be taken as 207 MPa in lieu of pad-specific test data (MPa)

σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)

C CDP is typically very stiff in compression. The shape factor may be computed, but it has a different meaning and less significance to the compressive deflection than it does for FGP and PEP ([Roeder et al., 2000](#)). As a result, the maximum compressive deflection for CDP can be based upon an average compressive strain, ϵ_s , for the total bearing pad thickness as computed in Eq. [\(12.69\)](#).

d. Shear

The maximum horizontal superstructure displacement shall be computed in accordance with Article [12.4](#). The maximum shear deformation of the pad at service limit state, Δ_s , shall be taken as the maximum horizontal superstructure displacement, reduced to account for the pier flexibility and modified for construction procedures. If a low friction sliding surface is used, Δ_s need not be taken to be larger than the deformation corresponding to first slip.

The provisions of Article [12.6.6.5.3.d](#) shall apply, except that the pad shall be designed as follows:

- For PEP, FGP and steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings:

$$h_{rt} \geq 2 \Delta_s \quad (12.70)$$

- For CDP:

$$h_{rt} \geq 10 \Delta_s \quad (12.71)$$

where:

h_{rt} = smaller of total elastomer or bearing thickness (mm)

Δ_s = maximum total shear deformation of the bearing from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (mm)

The shear modulus, G , for CDP for determination of the bearing force in Article [12.6.3.1](#) may be conservatively estimated as:

$$G = 2 \sigma_s \geq 14 \text{ MPa} \quad (12.72)$$

where:

σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)

- C The deformation in PEP and FGP are limited to $\pm 0.5 h_r$ because these movements are the maximum tolerable for repeated and long-term strains in the elastomer. These limits are intended to ensure serviceable bearings with no deterioration of performance and they limit the forces that the pad transmits to the structure.
- C In CDP, the shear deflection is limited to only 1/10 of the total elastomer thickness. There are several reasons for this limitation:
 - First, experiments show that CDP may split and crack at larger shear strains.
 - Second, the information that is available shows that CDP has much larger shear stiffness than that noted with steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings, PEP and FGP, and so the strain limit assures that CDP pads do not cause dramatically larger bearing forces to the structure than do other bearing systems.
 - Third, the greater shear stiffness means that relative slip between the CDP and the bridge girders is likely if the deformation required of the bearing is too large. Slip may lead to abrasion and deterioration of the pads, as well as other serviceability concerns. Slip may also lead to increased costs because of anchorage and other requirements.
 - Finally, CDP pads are harder than PEP and FGP, and so they are very suitable for the addition of PTFE sliding surfaces to accommodate the required bridge movements. As a result, CDP with large translational movements is invariably designed with PTFE sliding surfaces.

e. Rotation

e1. General

The provisions of these Articles shall apply at the service limit state. Rotations shall be taken as the maximum sum of the effects of initial lack of parallelism and subsequent girder end rotation due to imposed loads and movements. Stress shall be the maximum stress associated with the load conditions inducing the maximum rotation.

- C Rotation of steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings and elastomeric pads is controlled by preventing uplift between the bearing and the structure and by limiting the shear strains in the elastomer.
- C Initial lack of parallelism is due to profile grade, dead load deflection, etc. The designer may account for the initial lack of parallelism by providing tapered plates or other means.

e2. Rotation of PEP

- Rectangular pads shall satisfy:

$$\sigma_s \geq 0.5GS \left(\frac{L}{h_r} \right)^2 \theta_{s,x} \quad \text{and} \quad (12.73)$$

$$\sigma_s \geq 0.5GS \left(\frac{W}{h_{rt}} \right)^2 \theta_{s,z} \quad (12.74)$$

- Circular pads shall satisfy:

$$\sigma_s \geq 0.375GS \left(\frac{D}{h_{rt}} \right)^2 \theta_s \quad (12.75)$$

where:

σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)

G = shear modulus of the elastomer (MPa)

S = shape factor of thickest layer of an elastomeric bearing

L = length of a rectangular elastomeric bearing (parallel to longitudinal bridge axis) (mm)

h_{rt} = total elastomer thickness in an elastomeric bearing (mm)

W = width of the bearing in the transverse direction (mm)

D = diameter of pad (mm)

θ_s = maximum service limit state design rotation angle specified in Article [12.4.2.1](#) (rad.)

$\theta_{s,x}$ = maximum service limit state design rotation angle about transverse axis specified in Article [12.4.2.1](#) (rad.)

$\theta_{s,z}$ = maximum service limit state design rotation angle about longitudinal axis specified in Article [12.4.2.1](#) (rad.)

C PEP, FGP, and steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings are quite flexible in compressive loading, and as a consequence very large strains are tolerated, but stresses are kept quite low in Article [12.6.6.6.3.b](#). Consequently, PEP, FGP, and steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings are checked for uplift only, and the equations provided in this Article provide a lower bound stress limit to assure that uplift conditions are met.

C Total load shall be construed to be all contributing loads beyond parallelism.

e3. Rotation of CDP

The maximum compressive strain due to combined compression and rotation of CDP at the service limit state, ε_t , shall not exceed:

$$\varepsilon_t = \varepsilon_c + \frac{\theta_s L}{2t_p} < 0.20 \quad (12.76)$$

where:

$$\varepsilon_c = \frac{\sigma_s}{E_c} \quad (12.77)$$

Maximum rotation shall be limited to:

$$\theta_s \leq 0.80 \frac{2t_p \varepsilon_c}{L} \quad (12.78)$$

and

$$\theta_L \leq 0.20 \frac{2t_p \varepsilon_c}{L} \quad (12.79)$$

where:

- E_c = uniaxial compressive stiffness of the CDP bearing pad. It may be taken as 207 MPa in lieu of pad-specific test data (MPa)
- L = length of a CDP bearing pad in the plane of rotation (mm)
- t_p = total thickness in CDP pad (mm)
- ε_c = maximum uniaxial strain due to compression under total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#).
- ε_t = maximum uniaxial strain due to combined compression and rotation from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#).
- σ_s = average compressive stress due to total load from applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#) (MPa)
- θ_L = maximum rotation of the CDP pad at the service limit state (load factor = 1.0) due to live load (rad.)
- θ_s = maximum rotation of the CDP pad from the applicable service load combinations in [Table 3.1](#).

- C Rotation, and combined compression and rotation of CDP are controlled by shear strain limits and delamination requirements. Experiments show that CDP that meets the testing requirements of **MIL-C-882E** will not fracture or fail until a combined compressive strain exceeds 0.25. Creep strains do not contribute to this fracture potential. Design Eq. [\(12.76\)](#) limits this compressive strain to 0.20, because the design is made with service loads, and research shows that the 0.20 strain limit is sufficiently far from the average failure strain to assure a β factor of 3.5 for LRFD design. Delamination due to rotation is associated with uplift or separation between the bearing pad and the load surface. Delamination does not result in a fracture or immediate failure of the bearing pad, but it results in a significant reduction in the bearing service life. Cyclic rotation associated with live loads represents the more severe delamination problem, and Eq. [\(12.79\)](#) provides this design limit. However, research also shows that delamination is also influenced by maximum rotation level. CDP do not recover all of their compressive deformation after unloading, and Eq. [\(12.78\)](#) recognizes approximately 20 percent residual compressive strain and limits uplift due to the maximum rotation in recognition of the delamination potential. Shear strains of the elastomer are a less meaningful measure for CDP than for steel reinforced elastomeric bearings, because shape factor has a different meaning for CDP than for other elastomeric bearing types. CDP is known to have relatively large compressive load capacity, and it is generally accepted that it can tolerate relatively large compressive strains associated with these loads. It should be noted that these compressive strains in CDP are larger than those tolerated in steel reinforced bearings, but they have been justified by experimental results for CDP that meets the requirements of these Specifications. This does not suggest that CDP is generally superior to steel reinforced elastomeric bearings. A well designed steel-reinforced bearing is likely to provide superior long-term performance, but CDP can be designed and manufactured quickly and may provide good performance under a range of conditions.

e4. Rotation of FGP and Steel Reinforced Elastomeric Bearings

- Rectangular pads or bearings shall satisfy:

$$\sigma_s \geq 0.5GS \left(\frac{L}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \frac{\theta_{s,x}}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad (12.80)$$

$$\sigma_s \geq 0.5GS \left(\frac{W}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \frac{\theta_{s,z}}{n} \quad (12.81)$$

- Circular pads or bearings shall satisfy:

$$\sigma_s \geq 0.375GS \left(\frac{D}{h_{ri}} \right)^2 \frac{\theta_s}{n} \quad (12.82)$$

where:

n = number of interior layers of elastomer, where interior layers are defined as those layers which are bonded on each face. Exterior layers are defined as those layers which are bonded only on one face. When the thickness of the exterior layer of elastomer is more than one-half the thickness of an interior layer, the parameter, n , may be increased by one-half for each such exterior layer.

h_{ri} = thickness of the i(th) elastomer layer (mm)

- C Refer to commentary in Article [12.6.6.3.e2](#)

f. Stability

To ensure stability, the total thickness of the pad shall not exceed the least of $L/3$, $W/3$, or $D/4$.

- C The stability provisions in this Article are unlikely to have a significant impact upon the design of PEP, since a plain pad, which has this geometry, would have such a low allowable stress limit that the design would be uneconomical.
- C The buckling behavior of FGP and CDP is complicated because the mechanics of their behavior is not well understood. The reinforcement layers lack the stiffness of the reinforcement layers in steel-reinforced bearings and so stability theories developed for steel-reinforced bearings do not apply to CDP or FGP. The geometric limits included here are simple and conservative.

g. Reinforcement

The reinforcement in FGP shall be fiberglass with strength in each plan direction of at least $15.2 h_{ri}$ in N/mm. For the purpose of this Article, if the layers of elastomer are of different thicknesses, h_{ri} shall be taken as the mean thickness of the two layers of the elastomer bonded to the same reinforcement. If the fiberglass reinforcement contains holes, its strength shall be increased over the minimum value specified herein by twice the gross width divided by net width.

Reinforcement for steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings designed in accordance with the provisions of this Article shall conform to the requirements of Article [12.6.6.5.3.g](#).

- C The reinforcement should be strong enough to sustain the stresses induced in it when the bearing is loaded in compression. For a given compression, thicker elastomer layers lead to higher tension stresses in the reinforcement. It should be possible to relate the minimum reinforcement strength to the compressive stress that is allowed in the bearing in Article [12.6.6.3.b](#), the relationship has been quantified for FGP. For PEP and CDP, successful past experience is the only guide currently available.
- C For steel-reinforced elastomeric bearings designed in accordance with the provisions of Article [12.6.6.6](#), the equations from Article [12.6.6.5.3.g](#) are used. Although these equations are intended for steel-reinforced bearings with a higher allowable stress, the thickness of reinforcing sheets required is not significantly greater than those required by the old Method A.

h. Seismic and Other Extreme Event Provisions

Expansion bearings designed according to Article 12.6.6.6 shall be provided with adequate seismic and other extreme event resistant anchorage to resist the horizontal forces in excess of those accommodated by shear in the pad unless the bearing is intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is permitted. The provisions of Article 12.6.6.5.3.h shall also apply as applicable.

12.6.6.7. Bronze or Copper Alloy Sliding Surfaces

1. Materials

Bronze or copper alloy may be used for:

- Flat sliding surfaces to accommodate translational movements,
- Curved sliding surfaces to accommodate translation and limited rotation, and
- Pins or cylinders for shaft bushings of rocker bearings or other bearings with large rotations.

Bronze sliding surfaces or castings shall conform to AASHTO M 107 (ASTM B 22) and shall be made of Alloy C90500, C91100, or C86300, unless otherwise specified. The mating surface shall be structural steel, which has a Brinell hardness value at least 100 points greater than that of the bronze.

- C Bronze or copper alloy sliding surfaces have a long history of application with relatively satisfactory performance of the different materials. However, there is virtually no research to substantiate the properties and characteristics of these bearings. Successful past experience is the best guide currently available.
- C Historically these bearings have been built from sintered bronze, lubricated bronze, or copper alloy with no distinction between the performance of the different materials. However, the evidence suggests otherwise.
- C Sintered bronze bridge bearings have historically been included in the Standard Specifications. Sintered bronze is manufactured with a metal powder technology, which results in a porous surface structure that is usually filled with a self-lubricating material. There do not appear to be many manufacturers of sintered bronze bridge bearings at this time, and there is some evidence that past bridge bearings of this type have not always performed well. As a result, there is no reference to sintered bronze herein.
- C Lubricated bronze bearings are produced by a number of manufactories, and they have a relatively good history of performance. The lubrication is forced into a pattern of recesses, and the lubrication reduces the friction and prolongs the life of the bearing. Plain bronze or copper lacks this self-lubricating quality and would appear to have poorer bearing performance. Some jurisdictions use the following guidelines for lubricant recesses (FHWA, 1991):
 - The bearing surfaces should have lubricant recesses consisting of either concentric rings, with or without central circular recesses with a depth at least equal to the width of the rings or recesses.
 - The recesses or rings should be arranged in a geometric pattern so that adjacent rows overlap in the direction of motion.
 - The entire area of all bearing surfaces that have provision for relative motion should be lubricated by means of the lubricant-filled recesses.
 - The lubricant-filled areas should comprise not less than 25 percent of the total bearing surface.
 - The lubricating compound should be integrally molded at high pressure and compressed into the rings or recesses and project not less than 0.25 mm above the surrounding bronze plate.

Bronze or copper alloy sliding expansion bearings shall be evaluated for shear capacity and stability under lateral loads.

- C Bronze or copper-alloy sliding expansion bearings should be evaluated for stability. The sliding plates inset into the metal of the pedestals or sale plates may lift during high horizontal loading. Guidelines for bearing stability evaluations may be found in [Gilstad \(1990\)](#). The shear capacity and stability may be increased by adding anchor bolts inserted through a wider sale plate and set in concrete.

The mating surface shall be made of steel and be machined to match the geometry of the bronze surface so as to provide uniform bearing and contact.

- C The mating surface is commonly manufactured by a steel fabricator rather than by the bearing manufacturer who produces the bronze surface. This contractual arrangement is discouraged because it can lead to a poor fit between the two components. The bronze is weaker and softer than the steel, and fracture and excessive wear of the bronze may occur if there is inadequate quality control.

2. Coefficient of Friction

The coefficient of friction may be determined by testing. In lieu of such test data, the design coefficient of friction may be taken as 0.1 for self-lubricating bronze components and 0.4 for other types.

- C The best available experimental evidence suggests that lubricated bronze can achieve a coefficient of friction on the order of 0.07 during its early life, while the lubricant projects above the bronze surface. The coefficient of friction is likely to increase to approximately 0.10 after the surface lubrication wears away and the bronze starts to wear down into the recessed lubricant. Copper alloy or plain bronze would cause considerably higher friction. In the absence of better information, conservative coefficients of friction of 0.1 and 0.4, respectively, are recommended for design.

3. Limit on Load

The nominal bearing stress due to combined dead and live load at the service limit state shall not exceed the values given in [Table 12.8](#).

Table 12.8 Bearing Stress at the Strength Limit State.

AASHTO M 107 (ASTM B 22) Bronze Alloy	Bearing Stress (MPa)
C90500—Type 1	21
C91100—Type 2	21
C86300—Type 3	83

4. Clearances and Mating Surfaces

The mating surface shall be steel that is accurately machined to match the geometry of the bronze surface and to provide uniform bearing and contact.

12.6.6.8. Disc Bearings

1. General

The dimensions of the elements of a disc bearing shall be such that hard contact between metal components, which prevents further displacement or rotation, will not occur under the least favorable combination of design displacements and rotations at the strength limit state.

The disc bearing shall be designed for the maximum strength limit state design rotation, θ_u , specified in Article [12.4.2.2.2](#).

For the purpose of establishing the forces and deformations imposed on a disc bearing, the axis of rotation may be taken as lying in the horizontal plane at midheight of the disc. The urethane disc shall be held in place by a positive location device to prevent its slipping out of place.

- C A disc bearing functions by deformation of a polyether urethane disc, which should be stiff enough to resist vertical loads without excessive deformation and yet be flexible enough to accommodate the imposed rotations without liftoff or excessive stress on other components, such as PTFE.
- C The primary concerns are that clearances should be maintained and that binding should be avoided even at extreme rotations. The vertical deflection, including creep, of the bearing should be taken into account.
- C θ_u may also be considered at the extreme event limit state.

Limiting rings may be used to partially confine the elastomer against lateral expansion. They may consist of steel rings welded to the upper and lower plates or a circular recess in each of those plates.

If a limiting ring is used, the depth of the ring should be at least $0.03D_d$, where D_d is the diameter of the disc element.

- C The depth of the limiting ring should be at least $0.03D_d$ to prevent possible overriding by the urethane disc under extreme rotation conditions.

2. Materials

The elastomeric disc shall be made from a compound based on polyether urethane, using only virgin materials.

The hardness shall be between 45 and 65 on the Shore D scale.

The metal components of the bearing shall be made from structural steel conforming to **AASHTO M 270M/M 270 (ASTM A 709/A 709M)**, Grade 250, 345, or 345W or from stainless steel conforming to **ASTM A 240M**.

- C MA-100-C-V1/1, Article 16.3.3, recognizes two polyether urethane compounds that have performed satisfactorily.
- C Polyether urethane can be compounded to provide a wide range of hardness. The appropriate material properties must be selected as an integral part of the design process because the softest urethanes may require a limiting ring to prevent excessive compressive deflection, whereas the hardest ones may be too stiff and cause too high a resisting moment. Also, harder elastomers generally have higher ratios of creep to elastic deformation.
- C **AASHTO M 270M/M 270 (ASTM A 709/A 709M)**, Grades 690 and 690W steel should be used only where their reduced ductility will not be detrimental

3. Elastomeric Disc

The elastomeric disc shall be held in location by a positive locator device.

- C The primary concerns are that clearances should be maintained and that binding should be avoided even at extreme rotations. The vertical deflection, including creep, of the bearing should be taken into account.
- C Design of the urethane disc may be based on the assumption that it behaves as a linear elastic material, unrestrained laterally at its top and bottom surfaces. The estimates of resisting moments, so calculated, will be conservative, because they ignore creep, which reduces the moments. However, the compressive deflection due to creep should also be accounted for. Limiting rings stiffen the bearing in compression because they make the bearing behave more like a confirmed elastomeric bearing, i.e., a pot bearing. Their influence is conservatively ignored in the linear elastic design approach. Subject to the approval of the Engineer, design methods based on test data are permitted.

At the service limit state, the disc shall be designed so that:

- Its instantaneous deflection under total load does not exceed 10 percent of the thickness of the unstressed disc, and the additional deflection due to creep does not exceed 8 percent of the thickness of the unstressed disc;
 - The components of the bearing do not lift off each other at any location; and
 - The average compressive stress on the disc does not exceed 35 MPa. If the outer surface of the disc is not vertical, the stress shall be computed using the smallest plan area of the disc.
- C No liftoff of components can be tolerated; therefore, any uplift restraint device should have sufficiently small vertical slack to ensure the correct location of all components when the compressive load is reapplied.
- C Rotational experiments have shown that uplift occurs at relatively small moments and rotations in disc bearings. There are concerns that this could lead to edge loading on PTFE sliding surfaces and increase the potential for damage to the PTFE. Bearings passing the test requirements of Article 16.5.4.2.3.a of the MA-100-C-V1/1 should assure against any damage to the PTFE.

If a PTFE slider is used, the stresses on the PTFE slider shall not exceed the values for average and edge stresses given in Article [12.6.6.2.4](#) for the service limit state. The effect of moments induced by the urethane disc shall be included in the stress analysis.

4. Shear Resisting Mechanism

In fixed and guided bearings, a shear-resisting mechanism shall be provided to transmit horizontal forces between the upper and lower steel plates. It shall be capable of resisting a horizontal force in any direction equal to the larger of the design shear force at the strength and extreme event limit states or 15 percent of the design vertical load.

- C The shear resisting device may be placed either inside or outside the urethane disc. If shear is carried by a separate transfer device external to the bearing, such as opposing concrete blocks, the bearing itself may be unguided.
- C In unguided bearings, the shear force that should be transmitted through the body of the bearing is μP , where μ is the coefficient of friction of the PTFE slider and P is the vertical load on the bearing. This may be carried by the urethane disc without a separate shear-resisting device, provided that the disc is held in place by positive locating devices, such as recesses in the top and bottom plates.
- C The 15 percent factor applied to the service limit state vertical load approximates a strength limit state horizontal design force.
- C Maximum extreme event limit state forces should be considered when the bearing is not intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is not permitted.

The horizontal design clearance between the upper and lower components of the shear-restricting mechanism shall not exceed the value for guide bars given in Article [12.6.6.9](#).

5. Steel Plates

The provisions of [Section 3](#), [Section 4](#) and [Section 6](#) of these Specifications shall apply as appropriate.

The thickness of each of the upper and lower steel plates shall not be less than $0.045 D_d$, where D_d is the diameter of the disc element, if it is in direct contact with a steel girder or distribution plate, or $0.06 D_d$ if it bears directly on grout or concrete.

- C The plates should be thick enough to uniformly distribute the concentrated load in the bearing. Distribution plates should be designed in accordance with Article [12.6.7](#).

12.6.6.9. Guides and Restraints

1. General

Guides may be used to prevent movement in one direction. Restraints may be used to permit only limited movement in one or more directions. Guides and restraints shall have a low-friction material at their sliding contact surfaces.

- C Guides are frequently required to control the direction of movement of a bearing.
- C If the horizontal force becomes too large to be carried reliably and economically on a guided bearing, a separate guide system may be used.

2. Design Loads

Guides or restraints shall be designed using the strength limit state load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#) for the larger of either:

- The horizontal force from applicable strength load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#), or
 - 15 percent of the total vertical force from applicable service load combinations specified in [Table 3.1](#) acting on all the bearings at the bent divided by the number of guided bearings at the bent.
- C The minimum horizontal design load, taken as 10 percent of the factored vertical load, is intended to account for responses that cannot be calculated reliably, such as horizontal bending or twisting of a bridge deck caused by non-uniform or time-dependent thermal effects.
 - C Large ratios of horizontal to vertical load can lead to bearing instability, in which case a separate guide system should be considered.
 - C The 15 percent factor applied to the service limit state vertical load approximates a strength limit state horizontal design force.
 - C Maximum extreme event limit state forces should be considered when the bearing is not intended to act as a fuse or irreparable damage is not permitted.

Guides and restraints shall be designed for applicable seismic or other extreme event forces using the extreme event limit state load combinations of [Table 3.1](#) and, in the case of seismic, the provisions in Article [3.9.9](#).

3. Materials

For steel bearings, the guide or restraint shall be made from steel conforming to [AASHTO M 270M/M 270 \(ASTM A 709/A 709M\)](#), Grades 250, 345, or 345W or stainless steel conforming to [ASTM A 240M](#). For aluminum bearings, the guide may also be aluminum.

The low-friction interface material shall be approved by the Engineer.

- C Many different low-friction materials have been used in the past. Because the total transverse force at a bent is usually smaller than the total vertical force, the guides may contribute less toward the total longitudinal friction force than the primary sliding surfaces. Thus, material may be used that is more robust but causes higher friction than the primary material. Filled PTFE is common, and other proprietary materials, such as PTFE-impregnated metals, have proven effective.

4. Geometric Requirements

Guides shall be parallel, long enough to accommodate the full design displacement of the bearing in the sliding direction, and shall permit a minimum of 0.8-mm and a maximum of 1.6-mm free slip in the restrained direction. Guides shall be designed to avoid binding under all design loads and displacements, including rotation.

- C Guides must be parallel to avoid binding and inducing longitudinal resistance. The clearances in the transverse direction are fairly tight and are intended to ensure that excessive slack does not exist in

the system. Free transverse slip has the advantage that transverse restraint forces are not induced, but if this is the objective a non-guided bearing is preferable. On the other hand, if applied transverse loads are intended to be shared among several bearings, free slip causes the load to be distributed unevenly, possibly leading to overloading of one guide.

5. Design Basis

a. Load Location

The horizontal force acting on the guide or restraint shall be assumed to act at the centroid of the low-friction interface material. Design of the connection between the guide or restraint and the body of the bearing system shall consider both shear and the overturning moments so caused.

- C Guides are often bolted to the slider plate to avoid welding distortions. Horizontal forces applied to the guide cause some overturning moment, which must be resisted by the bolts in addition to shear. The tension in the bolt can be reduced by using a wider guide bar. If high-strength bolts are used, the threaded hole in the plate should be deep enough to develop the full tensile strength of the bolt.
- C Some press-fit guide bar details in common use have proven unsatisfactory in resisting horizontal loads. When analyzing such designs, consideration should be given to the possibility of rolling the bar in the recess (SCEF, 1991).
- C Where guide bars are recessed into a machined slot, tolerances should be specified to provide a press fit. The guide bar should also be welded or bolted to resist overturning.

The design and detailing of bearing components resisting lateral loads, including seismic and other extreme event loads determined as specified in Article 12.6.3.1, shall provide adequate strength and ductility. Guide bars and keeper rings or nuts at the ends of pins and similar devices shall either be designed to resist all imposed loads or an alternative load path shall be provided that engages before the relative movement of the substructure and superstructure is excessive.

- C Past earthquakes have shown that guide and keeper bars and keeper rings or nuts at the ends of pins and other guiding devices have failed, even under moderate seismic loads. In an experimental investigation of the strength and deformation characteristics of rocker bearings (Mander et al., 1993), it was found that adequately sized pintles are sometimes capable of providing the necessary resistance to seismic loads.

b. Contact Stress

The contact stress on the low-friction material shall not exceed that recommended by the manufacturer. For PTFE, the stresses at the service limit state shall not exceed those specified in Table 12.3 under sustained loading or 1.25 times those stresses for short-term loading.

- C Appropriate compressive stresses for proprietary materials should be developed by the Manufacturer and approved by the Engineer on the basis of test evidence. Strength, cold flow, wear, and friction coefficient should be taken into consideration.
- C On conventional materials, higher stresses are allowed for short-term loading because the limitations in Table 12.3 are based partly on creep considerations. Short-term loading includes wind, earthquake, etc., but not thermal or gravity effects.

6. Attachment of Low-Friction Material

The low-friction material shall be attached by at least any two of the following three methods:

- Mechanical fastening,
- Bonding, and
- Mechanical interlocking with a metal substrate.

- C Ultra-violet light attacks the PTFE surface that is etched prior to bonding, and this has caused bond failures. Thus, at least two separate methods of attachment are required. Mechanical fasteners should be countersunk to avoid gouging the mating surface.

12.6.6.10. Other Bearing Systems

Bearing systems made from components not specified in Articles 12.6.6.1 through 12.6.6.9 may also be used, subject to the approval of the Engineer. Such bearings shall be adequate to resist the forces and deformations imposed on them at the service, strength, and extreme event limit states without material distress and without inducing deformations detrimental to their proper functioning. At the extreme event limit state, bearings which are designed to act as fuses or sustain irreparable damage may be permitted by the Owner provided loss of span is prevented.

The dimensions of the bearing shall be chosen to provide for adequate movements at all times. Materials shall have sufficient strength, stiffness, and resistance to creep and decay to ensure the proper functioning of the bearing throughout the design life of the bridge.

The Engineer shall determine the tests that the bearing shall satisfy. The tests shall be designed to demonstrate any potential weakness in the system under individual compressive, shear, or rotational loading or combinations thereof. Testing under sustained and cyclic loading shall be required.

- C Tests cannot be prescribed unless the nature of the bearing is known. In appraising an alternative bearing system, the Engineer should plan the test program carefully because the tests constitute a larger part of the quality assurance program than is the case with more widely used bearings.
- C In bearings that rely on elastomeric components, aspects of behavior, such as time-dependent effects, response to cyclic loading, temperature sensitivity, etc., should be investigated.
- C Some bearing tests are very costly to perform. Other bearing tests cannot be performed because there is no available test equipment in the United States. The following test requirements should be carefully considered before specifying them (SCEF, 1991):
- Vertical loads exceeding 22×10^3 kN,
 - Horizontal loads exceeding 2.2×10^3 kN,
 - The simultaneous application of horizontal and vertical load where the horizontal load exceeds 75 percent of the vertical load,
 - Triaxial test loading,
 - The requirement for dynamic rotation of the test bearing while under vertical load, and
 - Coefficient of friction test movements with normal loads greater than 1.1×10^3 kN.

12.6.7. Load Plates and Anchorage for Bearings

12.6.7.1. Plates for Load Distribution

The bearing, together with any additional plates, shall be designed so that:

- The combined system is stiff enough to prevent distortions of the bearing that would impair its proper functioning when subjected to service and strength limit state loadings, and maximum extreme event loadings when required;
- The stresses imposed on the supporting structure satisfy the limits specified by the Engineer and Section 5 and Section 6; and
- The bearing can be replaced within the jacking height limits specified by the Engineer without damage to the bearing, distribution plates, or supporting structure. If no limit is given, a height of 10 mm shall be used.

- C Large forces may be concentrated in a bearing that must be distributed so as not to damage the supporting structure. In general, metal rocker and roller bearings cause the most concentrated loads, followed by pots, discs, and sphericals, whereas elastomeric bearings cause the least concentrated loads. Masonry plates may be required to prevent damage to concrete or grout surfaces.
- C Many simplified methods have been used to design masonry plates, some based on strength and some on stiffness. Several studies have indicated that masonry plates are less effective in distributing the load than these simplified methods would suggest, but the cost of heavy load distribution plates would be considerable (McEwen and Spencer, 1981; Saxena and McEwen, 1986). The present design rules represent an attempt to provide a uniform basis for design that lies within the range of traditional methods. Design based on more precise information, such as finite element analysis, is preferable but may not be practical in many cases.

Resistance of steel components shall be determined in accordance with [Section 6](#).

In lieu of a more refined analysis, the load from a bearing fully supported by a grout bed may be assumed to distribute at a slope of 1.5:1, horizontal to vertical, from the edge of the smallest element of the bearing that resists the compressive load.

The use and design of bearing stiffeners on steel girders shall comply with [Section 6](#).

Sole plate and base plate connections shall be adequate to resist lateral loads at the strength limit state. These connections shall also be adequate to resist the maximum seismic and other extreme event lateral loads unless the bearings are designed to act as fuses or sustain irreparable damage. Sole plates shall be extended to allow for anchor bolt inserts, when required.

- C Some types of bearings were only developed in the last 20 or 30 years, so their longevity has yet to be proven in the field. Hence the requirement for bearing replaceability.
- C One common way to provide for replacement is to use a masonry plate, attached to the concrete pier head by embedded anchors or anchor bolts. The bearing can then be attached to the masonry plate by seating it in a machined recess and bolting it down. The bridge needs then to be lifted only through a height equal to the depth of the recess in order to replace the bearing. The deformation tolerance of joints and seals, as well as the stresses in the structure, should be considered in determining the allowable jacking height.

12.6.7.2. Tapered Plates

If, under full unfactored permanent load at the mean annual temperature for the bridge site (at the service limit state with all load factors equal to 1.0), the inclination of the underside of the girder to the horizontal exceeds 0.01 rad., a tapered plate shall be used in order to provide a level surface.

- C Tapered plates may be used to counteract the effects of end slope in a girder. In all but short-span bridges, the dead load will dominate the forces on the bearing, so the tapered plate should be designed to provide zero rotation of the girder under this condition. The limit of 0.01 rad. out of level corresponds to the 0.01 rad. component, which is required in the design rotation in Article [12.4](#).

12.6.7.3. Anchorage and Anchor Bolts

1. General

All load distribution plates and bearings with external steel plates shall be positively secured to their supports by bolting or welding.

All girders shall be positively secured to supporting bearings by a connection that can resist the horizontal forces that may be imposed on it unless fusing or irreparable damage is permitted at the extreme event limit state. Separation of bearing components shall not be permitted at the strength limit state. Connections shall resist the least favorable combination of loads at the strength limit state and shall be installed wherever deemed necessary to prevent separation.

- C Bearings should be anchored securely to the support to prevent their moving out of place during construction or over the life of the bridge. Elastomeric bearings may be left without anchorage if adequate friction is available. A design coefficient of friction of 0.2 may be assumed between elastomer and clean concrete or steel.
- C Girders may be located on bearings by bolts or pintles. The latter provide no uplift capacity. Welding may be used, provided that it does not cause damage to the bearing or difficulties with replacement.
- C Uplift should be prevented both among the major elements, such as the girder, bearing, support, and between the individual components of a bearing. If it was allowed to occur, some parts of the structure could be misaligned when contact was regained, causing damage.

Trusses, girders, and rolled beams shall be securely anchored to the substructure. Where possible, anchor bolts should be cast in substructure concrete, otherwise anchor bolts may be grouted in place. Anchor bolts may be swaged or threaded to secure a satisfactory grip upon the material used to embed them in the holes.

The resistance of the anchor bolts shall be adequate for loads at the strength limit state and for the maximum loads at the extreme event limit state unless the bearings are designed to act as fuses or sustain irreparable damage.

The tensile resistance of anchor bolts shall be determined as specified in Article [6.13.2.10.2](#).

- C Anchor bolts are very susceptible to brittle failure during earthquakes or other extreme events. To increase ductility, it has been recommended in (Astaneh-Asl et al., 1994) to use upset anchor bolts placed inside hollow sleeve pipes and oversized holes in the masonry plate. Thus, deformable bearing types may use the anchor bolts as the ductile element (Cook and Klingner, 1992).
- C Bearings designed for rigid load transfer, especially at the extreme event limit state, should not be seated on grout pads or other bedding materials that can create a sliding surface and reduce the horizontal resistance.
- C Seismic loading of the anchor bolts has often resulted in concrete damage, especially when they were too close to the edge of the bearing seat. Guidelines for evaluating edge distance effects and concrete strength requirements may be found in (Ueda et al., 1990), among others.

The shear resistance of anchor bolts and dowels shall be determined as specified in Article [6.13.2.7](#).

The resistance of anchor bolts in combined tension and shear shall be determined as specified in Article [6.13.2.11](#).

The bearing resistance of the concrete shall be taken as specified in Article [5.7.5](#). The modification factor, m , shall be based on a non-uniformly distributed bearing stress.

- C For global design of anchorages to concrete, refer to Building Code Requirements for Structural Concrete (ACI 318-05), Appendix D.
- C As an approximation, the bearing stress may be assumed to vary linearly from zero at the end of the embedded length to its maximum value at the top surface of concrete.

2. Seismic Design and Detailing Requirements

Anchor bolts used to resist seismic loads shall be upset, according to Section 8, “Ground Anchors,” in the MA-100-C-V1/1, and shall be designed for ductile behavior.

Sufficient reinforcement shall be provided around the anchor bolts to develop the horizontal forces and anchor them into the mass of the substructure unit. Potential concrete crack surfaces next to the bearing anchorage shall be identified and their shear friction capacity evaluated.

12.6.8. Corrosion Protection

All exposed steel parts of bearings not made from stainless steel shall be protected against corrosion by zinc metalization, hot-dip galvanizing, or a paint system approved

by the Engineer. A combination of zinc metalization or hot-dip galvanizing and a paint system may be used.

- C The use of stainless steel is the most reliable protection against corrosion because coatings of any sort are subject to damage by wear or mechanical impact. This is particularly important in bearings where metal-to-metal contact is inevitable, such as rocker and roller bearings. Weathering steel is excluded because it forms an oxide coating that may inhibit the proper functioning of the bearing.
- C When using hot-dip galvanizing for corrosion protection, several factors must be considered. Embrittlement of very high-strength fasteners, such as **AASHTO M 253M (ASTM A 490M)** bolts, may occur due to acid cleaning (pickling) before galvanizing, and quenched and tempered material, such as Grade 485W and 690W, may undergo changes in mechanical properties, so galvanizing these should be avoided (see **ASTM A 143M** on avoiding embrittlement). With good practice, commonly used steels, such as Grades 250, 345, and 345W, should not be adversely affected if their chemistry and the assembly's details are compatible (see **ASTM A 385** on ensuring high-quality coating). Certain types of bearings, such as intricate pot or spherical bearings are not suitable for hot-dip galvanizing.

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SECTION 13. TUNNELS

13.1. SCOPE

This Section provides requirements of design and construction of tunnels.

This provision includes very important topics such as ventilation, fire protection, lightening, security and drainage, in addition to the requirements of design of tunnels.

13.2. PURPOSE

The intent of this section is to increase the knowledge of the engineers about the minimum requirements of tunnels design, design of construction, fire protection, ventilation, lightening and drainage systems.

13.3. DEFINITIONS AND ABBREVIATIONS

<i>AADT</i>	: Annual average daily traffic flow.
<i>ACI</i>	: American Concrete Institute.
<i>ADS</i>	: Anti-Drag System.
<i>BEM</i>	: Boundary Element Method.
<i>BS5400</i>	: British Standard for design and construction of steel, concrete and composite bridges use in highway and railway.
<i>CIE</i>	: International Commission on Illumination.
<i>DMRB</i>	: Design Manual for Roads and Bridges.
<i>FDM</i>	: Finite Difference Method.
<i>FEM</i>	: Finite Element Method.
<i>FOSD</i>	: Full Overtaking Sight Distance.
<i>HGVs</i>	: Heavy Goods Vehicles.
<i>IES</i>	: Illumination Engineering Society.
<i>NATM</i>	: New Australian Tunneling Method.
<i>NFPA</i>	: National Fire Protection Association.
<i>RDS</i>	: Radio Data System.
<i>SBC</i>	: Saudi Building Code.
<i>SEM</i>	: Sequential Excavation Method.
<i>SSD</i>	: Stopping Sight Distances.
<i>TBM</i>	: Tunnel boring machine.
<i>TDSCG</i>	: Tunnel Design and Safety Consultation Group.

13.4. PLANNING

13.4.1. Assessment between Options

A tunnel option for new roads should be considered to traverse a physical barrier such as a mountain range or river, or areas subject to avalanche, landslides, floods or earthquakes. Tunnels should also be considered for environmental reasons (noise limitation, pollution, or visual intrusion); for protection of areas of special cultural value (conservation of districts or buildings); or ecological reasons (avoidance of a community, or to enhance surface land values).

Planning and design of road tunnel options should initially be to the same highway standards as for open road options, except for differences including: capital, operating and whole life costs; ventilation; lighting and maintenance requirements. The nature and mix of vehicles in the traffic flow will also affect the physical design of tunnels.

The respective merits for the different options are:

1. Internal Finance: Set prime cost, financing costs, maintenance and operational costs, and renewal costs, against revenue (if any);
2. External Costed Benefits: the value of the facility in terms of savings to direct and social costs external to the project;
3. External uncostable Benefits: conservation, ecology, uncostable social benefits;
4. Enabling aspects: The project evaluated as a requisite facilitator of other desirable developments.

13.4.2. Basis of Tunnel Operation

Consider two categories of tunnel operation:

1. Tunnels with their own dedicated operating management structure and resources; retain responsibility for traffic surveillance and safe operation of the tunnel, including response to incidents and emergencies;
2. Tunnels designed to operate as fully automatic facilities, with no permanent operating and monitoring staff. Such tunnels allow free passage of dangerous goods vehicles operating within the law. Diversion of such vehicles off the freeway system may transfer risk to locations without facilities to deal with any emergency incident involving fire or spillage.

13.4.3. Financial Planning

Tunnel projects should be constructed for long life (100 to 150 years). Financial planning should consider:

1. Preparation Period, when costs increase to a small percentage of project value, while risk reduces from its initial “speculative” level;
2. Construction Period, when major expenditure occurs with outstanding construction risk gradually reduced towards zero on completion, or soon thereafter for the consequences of construction;
3. Operation Period, when costs are recovered in revenue or notionally. For Build, Operate and Transfer projects, the period for deriving revenue from operation on transfer to state ownership.

13.4.4. Procurement Issues Related to Planning

If another party will assume responsibility for design (e.g., Design-Build-Operate), make provision for continuity in conceptual planning, to prevent a break in conceptual

thinking. This will ensure that benefits are derived from an innovative approach that needs continuity of development into project design.

Costs estimates should take into account contractual arrangements, as follows:

1. For a Partnering Concept - devise optimal means for dealing with risk, with optimal consequences for cost control;
2. Where Contractor assumes construction and geological risk - calculate costs against the most unfavorable risk scenario, with a margin for possible litigation. Without equitable risk sharing, potential financial benefits of a competent design process cannot be realized, hence the need for additional allowance for increased cost.
3. Cost estimates should be prepared in year-of expenditure SR, inflated to the midpoint of construction, with some allowance for schedule slippage taken into account.
4. Reasonable contingencies should be built into the total project cost estimate. It is suggested that the following contingencies be included:
 - A construction contingency for cost growth during construction;
 - A design contingency based on different levels of design completion;
 - An overall Management contingency for third-party and other unanticipated changes; and
 - Other contingencies for areas that may show a high potential for risk and change; for example: environmental mitigation, utilities, highly specialized designs, etc.
5. Cost estimates should consider the economic impact of the major project on the local geographical area; for example, material manufacturers that would normally compete with one another may be "forced" to team together in order to meet the demand of the major project. Extremely large construction packages also have the potential to reduce the amount of contractors that have the capability of bidding on the project, and may need to be broken up into smaller contracts to attract additional competition. Bid options (simultaneous procurements of similar scopes with options to award) should also be considered for potential cost savings resulting from economies of scale and reduced mobilization. A Value Analysis should be performed on the project to determine the most economical and advantageous way of packaging the contracts for advertisement.

13.4.5. Reliability of Forecasting

For subsurface projects, the site-specific nature of the ground further compounds the uncertainties of financial forecasting. The main areas of uncertainty, listed below, should be qualified in estimates:

- Politics;
- Competence and agenda of source of estimates;
- Timing of completion;
- Development of competitor projects / technology;
- Ranges and qualifications
- Attention to climate of risk;
- Potential changes in requirements;
- Contractual relationships;
- Bidding process

13.5. SAFETY

The planning and designing engineers for the road tunnel must have a proper understanding of how the tunnel will be operated and ensure that there is adequate and safe provision for maintenance, economic running and operational safeguards. Each must be satisfied that all options concerning tunnel operating policy, such as the passage of hazardous goods, and tunnel planning, such as the locations of the traffic control centre and equipment for on-site, remote surveillance and control, are considered well in advance since there is little or no scope for subsequent physical alteration (eg changing ventilation shafts, emergency access, etc).

Operational and safety aspects have a significant effect on development of the detailed design.

13.5.1. Incidents and Emergencies

Two broad situations influence the planning for emergencies. The more common event is a vehicle incident or breakdown which causes a degree of lane blockage, and consequential restriction or even temporary loss of use of the tunnel. The resulting delays may rapidly extend to the surrounding road network. Prompt remedial action is then called for to restore free flow and minimize the congested conditions that in themselves can aggravate the risk of further breakdown and/or incidents. The second situation involves collision and possible fire or explosion and is potentially more dangerous for the tunnel user and requires a rapid response from the emergency services.

13.5.2. Risk Analysis and Management

For a particular tunnel, potential hazards must be identified and related to the tunnel layout and to standards of equipping, communications, and traffic information and control systems. Such standards of provision shall meet the needs of the operators for the day to day running of the tunnel, and the emergency services in their response to tunnel incidents, including fire. Special attention shall be given to aspects that affect driver behavior eg signing, signaling, and traffic movements in the tunnel and on the tunnel approaches.

The selected tunnel cross section shall be carefully related to the approach road standards, geometry and visibility and procedures for dealing with incidents. Limited data available suggests that the tunnel approach, entrance and exit zones have a higher level of risk than the open road. Conversely, the tunnel interior has a lower level of traffic incident risk. For increased safety, verge widths over and above the minimum carriageway requirements for traffic flow, shall be related to traffic demand and speed. Full consideration shall be given to cross connections between tunnel bores or alternative means of escape for vehicle occupants and to vehicular cross overs, outside the tunnel portals, for the purposes of contra flow and emergency access.

Fires or the spillage of hazardous materials are of greater consequence in tunnels than on the open road and proper safeguards must be based on an assessment of the risk implications of traffic carrying dangerous loads (explosives, flammables, radioactives and toxins). The decisions made shall be fully taken account of for the structure design, basic equipping and operating criteria (to include adequate fire protection) and ventilation capacity for fire and smoke control, and amply proportioning drainage sumps to cope with spillages of hazardous material and any sluicing water, foams, etc applied. Such safeguards as fire protection, ventilation and drainage shall also be

considered in relation to pipelines carrying gas or chemicals belonging to third party users.

Consideration shall be given to the means of managing traffic under total power failure conditions. It should be expected to close the tunnel to traffic if both the normal power supply and standby, to power lighting and variable message signs, fail. If standby power is brought into use at a level lower than for normal power, then speed control must also function to reduce traffic speed, so that the risk of an accident occurring is minimized.

Availability and security of power supply shall be assessed, and unless complete reliability, in all but very exceptional circumstances, can be guaranteed by the supply authority, an alternative source shall be provided for essential safety related services.

The likely risk scenarios which may occur in and on the approaches to the tunnel shall be identified. These shall be considered in detail with the appropriate parties, and engineering solutions developed by the Design Organization when appointed, for all relevant areas of the tunnel and its approaches. A possible methodology to systematically deal with risk is shown in Table 13.1 to Table 13.4. Risk scenarios include, but are not limited to:

- Vehicle related incidents:
 - Fire in tunnel
 - Accidents
 - Breakdowns
 - Debris on road
 - Overheight vehicles.
- Non vehicle related incidents:
 - Lighting failure
 - Ventilation failure
 - Pumping failure
 - Telephones out of order
 - Pedestrians in the tunnel
 - Animals in the tunnel
 - Vandalism
 - Terrorist attack.
- Traffic queues:
 - Traffic queues due to other causes eg
 - Volume of traffic.
- Vehicle loadings:
 - Hazardous loads
 - Slow moving loads
 - Wide loads
 - Abnormal Indivisible Loads.
- Weather hazards:
 - Fog
 - Rapid, air vapour condensation on windscreen, mirrors etc
 - High winds
 - Ice
 - Snow

- Flood
- Dazzle from the sun (particularly east to west tunnel alignments)

(It might be considered that snow, fog and high winds do not relate to tunnels. However, drivers may encounter these when they exit a tunnel and may need to be warned, or the Highway Police may need to consider other appropriate action).

- Planned maintenance:
 - Lane closures
 - Carriageway closures
 - Tunnel bore closures
 - Total closure
 - Contraflow operation
 - Temporary signing.

Table 13.1: Event Probability

Description	Scenario	Probability	Score
Highly likely	Very frequent occurrence	Over 85%	16
Likely	More than evens chance	51 - 85%	12
Fairly likely	Occurs quite often	21 -50%	8
Unlikely	Could happen but not very often	1-20%	4
Very unlikely	Occurrence is not expected to happen	Less than 1 - 0.01%	2
Extremely unlikely	Just possible but very surprising	Less than 0.0 1 %	1

Note: Intermediate values may be interpolated.

Table 13.2: Event Impact

Description	Scenario Examples	Score
Disastrous	Tunnel operation could not be sustained	1000
Severe	Serious threat to tunnel operation	100
Substantial	Increases operational costs/difficulties substantially	20
Marginal	Small effect on operational cost/difficulty	3
Negligible	Trivial effect	1

Note: Intermediate values may be interpolated.

Table 13.3: Risk Priority Numbers (Event probability $\times$ Event Impact)

Risk Priority Number (RPN)	Category	Action Required
Over 1000	Intolerable	Eliminate risk
101 -1000	Undesirable	Avoid or transfer risk
21 - 100	Acceptable	Retain and manage risk by prevention or mitigation
Below 20	Negligible	Could be ignored

Note: Identified risk scenarios should be ranked in RPN reverse order.

Table 13.4: Risk Response Strategies

Risk Action Required	Possible Response
Elimination	Change provision such that risk cannot occur
Avoidance	Modify provision so that risk is greatly reduced
Transfer	Not likely to be able to do this for safety aspects
Prevention	Action taken to prevent risk from occurring

Note: Risk response strategies should be listed and recorded.

Having identified and defined the scenarios, strategies for dealing with them shall be decided taking consideration of the management, coordination, operation, mobilization, access, procedures and communications requirements of the various parties involved and the needs of the road user. Consideration needs to be given to the level of human resources required during an incident, both at the control centre and on the ground. Response strategies shall deal with the initial occurrence of a situation and also any resulting developments, for example, a breakdown in a tunnel may lead to initial local queuing which may develop into wider scale area congestion and gridlock.

13.5.3. Classification and Decisions on Safety Facilities

Criteria for and the related expenditure on equipping road tunnels shall be related as closely as possible to the particular needs at individual sites. The basis of equipping and operating tunnels therefore uses a classification system for tunnel type on motorways and sub divisions of all purpose roads.

From the strategy decisions and incident scenario considerations it will become clear as to what type of equipment and systems are necessary and also what the interaction between systems should be. It should also be possible to identify the necessary levels of information flow between the parties involved, which will determine the technical links and communication facilities needed.

Once the equipment and systems involved have been determined, technical specification can be carried out. The necessary communication infrastructure can also be determined and specified once the equipment and system needs are understood.

13.5.4. Traffic Management

Current road policies and design standards contribute to a reduction in accidents and, by way of through routeing, particularly for heavy goods traffic, improve local traffic management and control in new highway schemes. These objectives shall be maintained when selecting the criteria on which to base the design and operation of a road tunnel.

Traffic management shall cater for normal traffic flow and for special movements, planned and emergency maintenance and emergency incidents.

13.5.5. Restriction on Tunnel Use

For safety reasons, restrictions are necessary for the type of traffic permitted to use a road tunnel.

Pedestrians, pedal cycles, motor cycles with engines less than 50cc, animals and animal drawn vehicles, pedestrian controlled vehicles and invalid carriages should not be permitted. Such classes of road users are currently prohibited from motorways and unless there are very exceptional circumstances they should also be prohibited from trunk road tunnels. Consideration shall be given to the provision of alternative routes, where necessary.

13.5.6. Speed Limits

The imposition and, in particular, enforcement of speed limits within road tunnels on the open highway requires careful consideration. The costs of construction and operation of a tunnel designed to meet the geometric standards of the adjacent open road may lead to pressures to adopt a marginally lower design speed within the tunnel. There is little evidence to support propositions that traffic will naturally tend to slow at the entry to a tunnel and only to speed up inside, if conditions permit. Any such assumptions would need to be confirmed by monitoring once the tunnel is open to traffic - it may then be too late to make the necessary modifications if such assumptions proved to be false.

13.5.7. Establishment of Tunnel Profile

It is important, for informed design progress on other aspects of the road tunnel design, to establish the location, cross sectional shape and gradient profiles for the tunnel as early as possible in the planning process.

See Figure 13.1, Figure 13.2, Figure 13.3 and Figure 13.4 for typical cross sectional profiles. The most desirable profile for accommodating road traffic containing HGVs is rectangular.

In certain situations planning constraints may well determine tunnel location and consequent choice of construction method. Ground conditions and appropriate choice of tunnel construction method are important factors determining the structural form of a road tunnel. Tunnel cross sectional shape profile for a given traffic space, and the consequent space available for tunnel equipment, is largely determined by the most economical method of construction, which in turn depends on construction access, depth of tunnel, the nature of the ground and its stability during excavation.

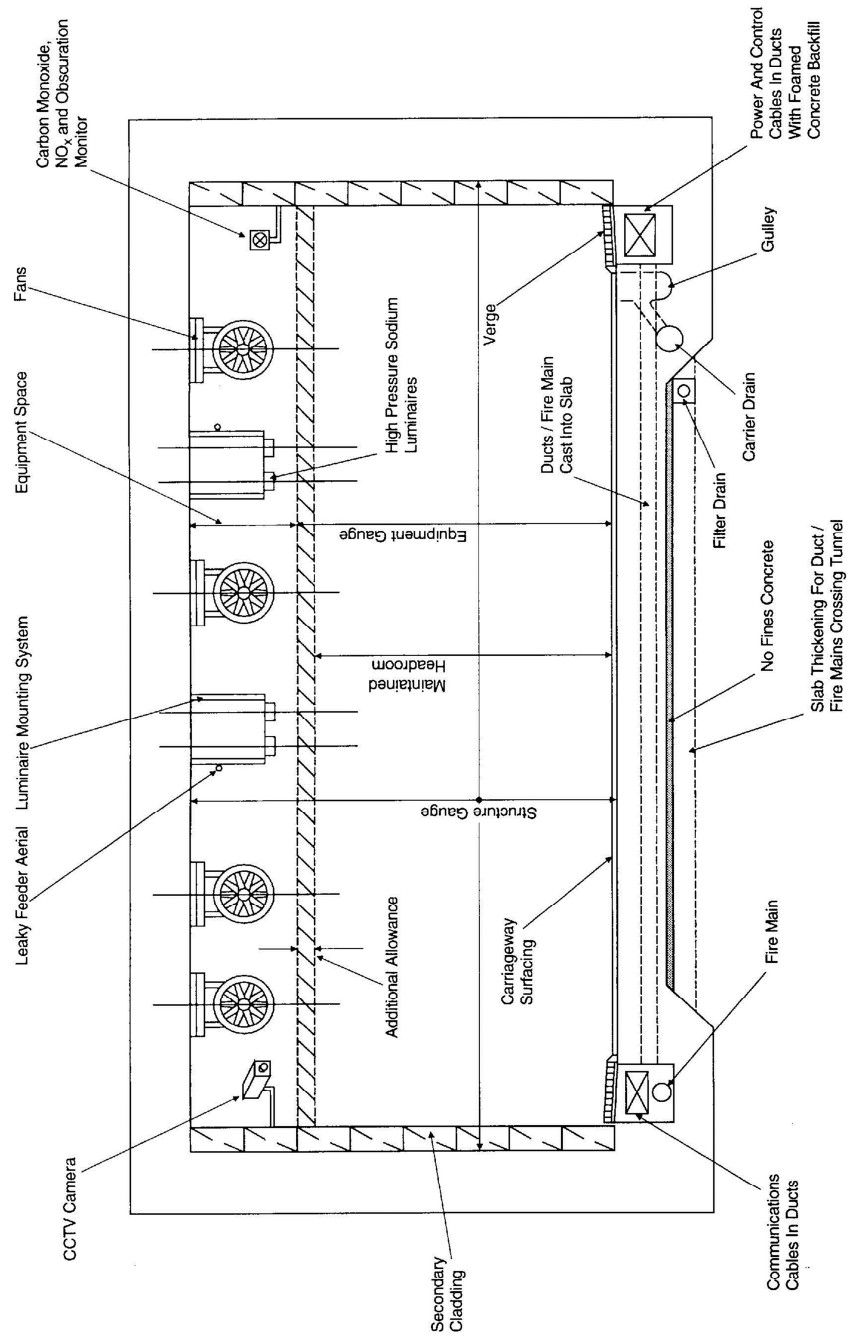
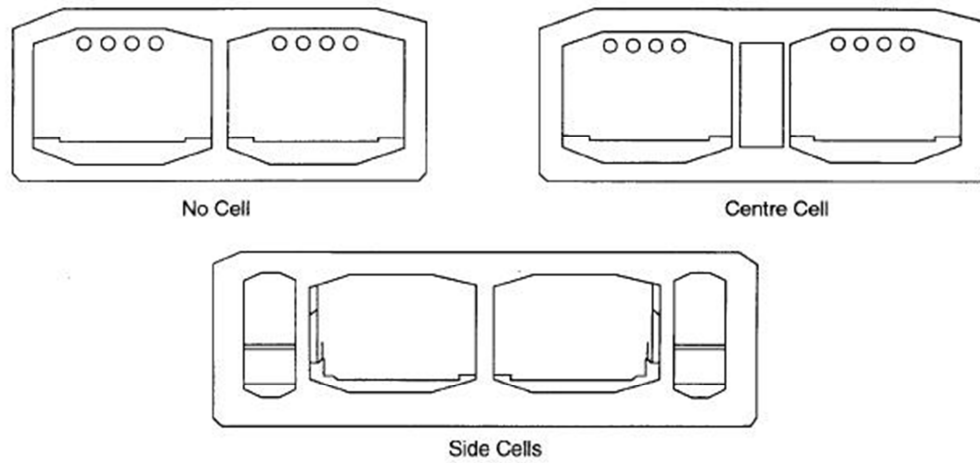
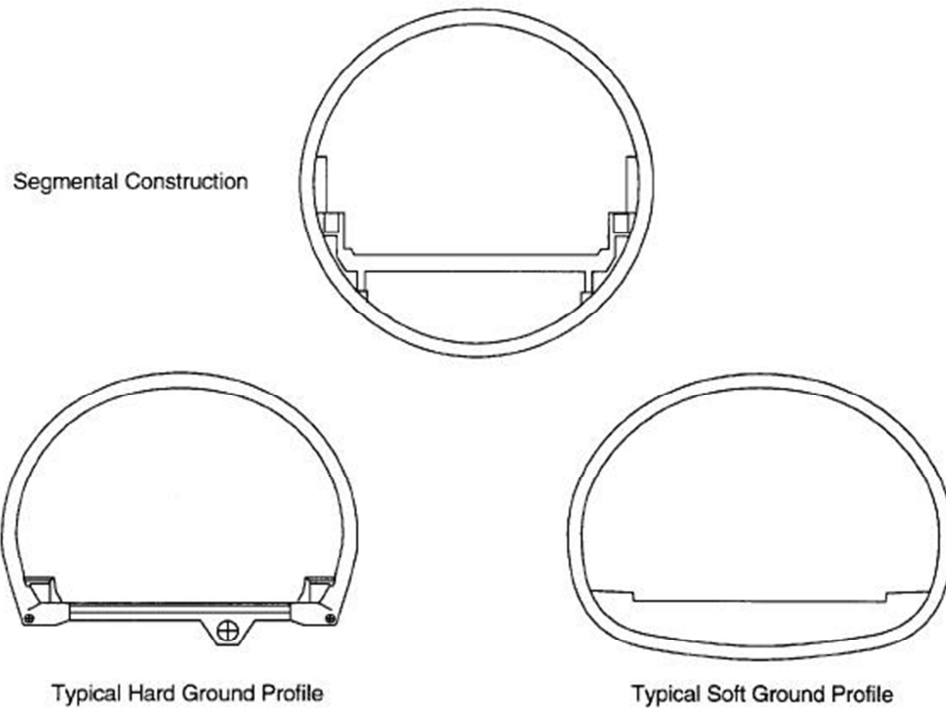


Figure 13.1: Typical Cut and Cover Tunnel Section

(Looking in Direction Traffic Flow)



Immersed Tube Tunnels



Sprayed Concrete Tunnels

Figure 13.2: Typical Cross Sections of Bored Tunnels

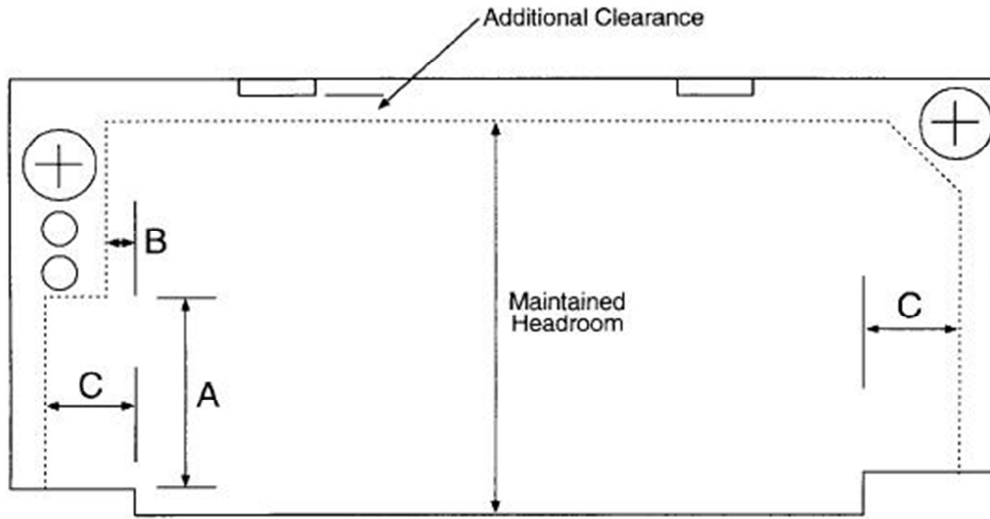


Figure 13.3: Example Box Profile

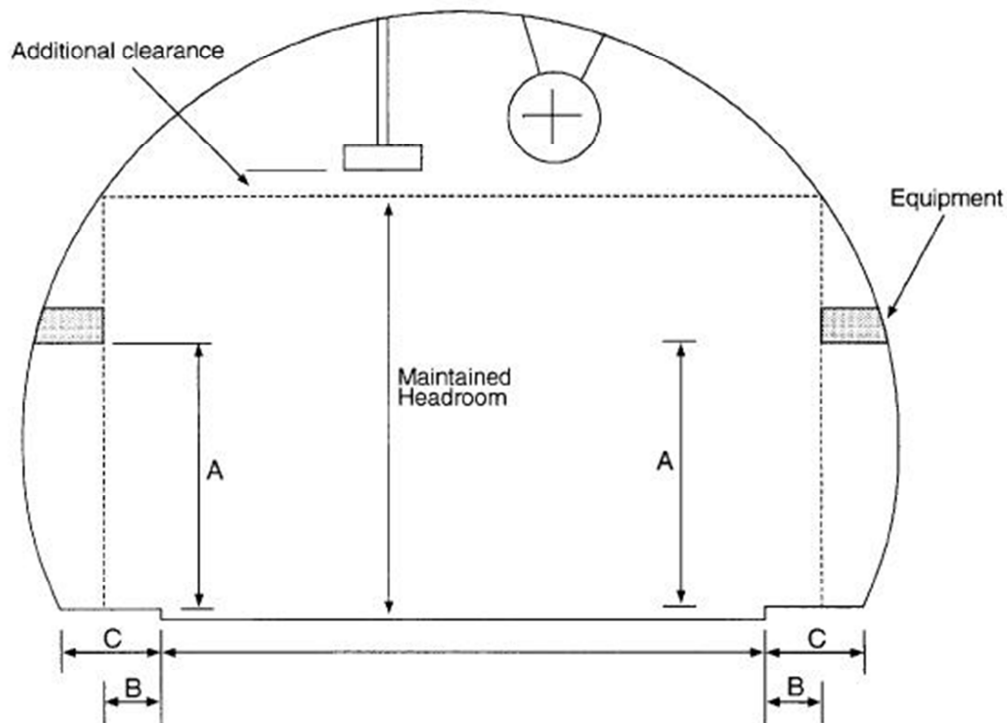


Figure 13.4: Example Arch Profile

13.5.8. Consideration of Future Widening and Maintenance Lanes

It is not normally possible to widen a road tunnel structure to cater for a future increase in the number of traffic lanes required. It may be possible to increase the number of traffic lanes by one, if the existing traffic lanes are narrowed, or the hard

shoulder, if any, is replaced. Consideration shall be given to minimizing the potential increase in risk of traffic accidents, reduced emergency access and egress, and to cater for any additional ventilation and headroom requirements that such widening will require. Similarly, if tunnel closure periods for maintenance are anticipated to be of limited availability a marginally wider tunnel may be decided upon. So that the safety requirements can be accommodated. A study of the anticipated traffic peak flow, tidal flow and hourly demand variations is necessary. A possible option to consider is whether, for example, three 2 lane tunnel bores would be better than two 3 lane bores. The former has the advantages, particularly for uneven traffic flows, of option to close one bore in quieter periods for more effective maintenance, traffic management flexibility and reduced congestion effect should there be an incident in one bore. Effective foresight and provision for such needs will reduce the additional costs and disruption to a minimum.

13.5.9. Service Tunnels, Space Requirements

Where land availability and funding permit and planned maintenance constraints make desirable, then a separate service tunnel, adjacent to the live traffic tunnels, should be considered on a whole life cost basis, for providing access on maintenance demand to service cabling and other operating equipment, without requiring a tunnel closure. Such tunnels may also be used for evacuation purposes during an emergency. Other advantages include their use as an exploratory (pilot) tunnel in advance of main tunnel construction.

13.5.10. Driven Tunnels Profiles

Driven tunnel profiles in rock which may be excavated using eg drill and blast or boom cutter techniques, are mainly dependent on the shape required for the stability of the excavation during its temporary stages. Other rock tunnels using full face machines normally have circular cross sections. Circular cross sections are not well suited for the ideally rectangular shape of road tunnels. Tunnels lying in, or partially in, soft ground are often driven with a shield and will be circular or part circular. Driven tunnels using full face machines normally have circular cross-sections, whilst part face tunneling machines are less restrictive in shape.

13.5.11. Cut and Cover Tunnel Profiles

Cut and cover tunnels are generally rectangular with a clear headroom close to the structure gauge.

13.5.12. Immersed Tube Tunnel Profiles

Immersed tube tunnels are usually rectangular in section and constructed in reinforced or pre-stressed concrete. These may be provided with separate cells for use as buoyancy during placement and subsequently for tunnel services. In steel/concrete composite construction such tunnels are sometimes circular or part circular in shape.

13.5.13. Space for Equipment

The space between the equipment gauge and the profile set by the structural lining or secondary cladding of the tunnel is available for the equipment required for the tunnel environment. Such space shall be used efficiently to suit the equipment required, otherwise any enlargement of the tunnel cross-section will lead to significant increase in cost. In rectangular tunnels, the upper corners might be haunched to benefit

structural efficiency but possibly cause a disbenefit in regard to the space and optimal location of equipment.

Care shall be taken to identify the optimum positions for electrical and mechanical equipment located in the tunnel, since ease of access can have a significant effect on ongoing maintenance costs and the number of traffic lanes requiring closure.

13.5.14. Ventilation Space Requirements

Ventilation can have a considerable influence on space requirements, depending on the system chosen.

It is important for tunnels to be as aerodynamically efficient as possible. Naturally and mechanically ventilated tunnels, with one way traffic, partly rely for ventilation upon the vehicle induced air flow. This effect can be maximized, for a given size of tunnel, if the tunnel interior surface is as smooth as possible and abrupt changes in cross-section; particularly at air entry/exit points are avoided.

In the event of a fire within a tunnel, the hot air and smoke will form a layer at ceiling level, moving outwards from the source and leaving a zone of clear air beneath it for a distance either side of the source. Downstands from the ceiling and other obstructions which might break up this layer and prematurely fill the tunnel with smoke, obstructing escape and rescue, shall be avoided.

Ducted ventilation systems may have shafts and adits connecting fan rooms to the main ducts within the tunnel. These shall be as smooth as possible and any bends or junctions are as aerodynamically efficient as possible.

Space requirements for longitudinal ventilation, using booster (jet) fans normally has little effect on the geometry of arch roofed tunnels providing the fan diameters are kept below 1.5m diameter. The fans should be placed over the carriageway lanes within the equipment gauge, rather than above the verges. In the case of rectangular tunnels, one solution is to increase the height of the tunnel over its full or partial length to accommodate the fans. Where constraints or increased construction costs preclude this solution, fans can be placed in aerodynamically shaped recesses (niches) in the soffit or at the tops of the side walls. However ventilation efficiency may be reduced and significantly so for the latter. The life time additional costs from such efficiency losses shall be established before deciding on the profile to be adopted.

Space requirements for transverse and semi-transverse ventilation systems normally have little influence on arched or circular tunnel geometry, as these generally contain space above or below the road deck which can be used for ventilation ducts. However, where large volumes of ventilation air are required, an increase in structure size may be required. In the case of rectangular profiles such systems have an important effect on tunnel geometry, sometimes requiring a greater height of tunnel and sometimes increased width. In all types of tunnel these systems of ventilation require ancillary shafts and/or tunnels and ventilation fan buildings. The buildings and their intake and exhaust structures and emissions may have important environmental consequences. Their location, if not ideal, can significantly affect ventilation space requirements within the tunnel.

13.5.15. Lighting Space Requirements

Generally tunnel lighting has little bearing on the tunnel geometry. In arched roof profiles, without false ceilings or ventilation duct soffits, there is normally ample space for luminaries. Only arched tunnels with false ceilings and rectangular profiled tunnels, where the luminaries are located above the traffic lanes, require vertical space of

between 350mm and 500mm to accommodate the 250mm additional clearance and the luminaries themselves.

13.5.16. Signs and Signals Space Requirements

Signaling equipment, if located on the side walls, has little influence on the cross section of arched tunnels, with two lanes, or of rectangular tunnels.

For tunnels with more than two lanes and having a false ceiling or rectangular profile and where the signaling equipment is fitted over the traffic lanes, about 350mm vertical height is needed.

Full sized direction signs are difficult to locate within a tunnel and are best positioned outside of the portals.

13.5.17. Toll Booth Space Requirements

Where tolls are to be collected as cash the provision of toll booths will be necessary. The number and siting of these will be dictated by their effect on traffic flow in the tunnel and on land availability, which will vary from site to site. Toll booths may be situated at one or both ends of the tunnel, or series of tunnels. Collection and control is by a mix of manual methods, coin receptacle from a moving vehicle or electronic tagging with prepayment. Booths will require heating, ventilation, till, seating, signing, communication and security facilities and protection against impact from vehicles and robbery. Air conditioning may be required.

13.5.18. Secondary Cladding Function and Space Requirements

Where secondary cladding is to be provided it usually constitutes an additional layer of lightweight construction, placed over the internal face of the primary (main load bearing) lining. The main functions of secondary cladding are to provide a reflective surface to assist tunnel lighting; to smooth the interior of the tunnel to facilitate mechanical cleaning of the tunnel walls; to reduce ventilation energy losses and to shed drips to drainage in the case of seepage through the primary tunnel lining. It also may provide a beneficial effect, where anti-drumming layers are added, on noise levels within the tunnel. Where the secondary cladding is used to blank off dead space within the tunnel, it has minimal effect on the cross section. The lower part of the tunnel wall shall be designed to minimize the risk of traffic collision with the secondary cladding. Internal finishes to the tunnel structure, visible to the traveling public, shall be attractive and functional without being distracting to safe driving.

13.5.19. Cabling and Ducted Services Space Requirements

The duct space required for the distribution and fire protection of cabling for tunnel M&E functions and possible future services must be determined at an early stage because of the significant structural influence that provision of such space can have on certain types of tunnel. Where secondary cladding is used, it may be possible to utilize the space between cladding and main structure for services, this will normally have to be designed into the original concept.

In long tunnels, de-rating of cables and pressure drop in piped services can lead to an increased size of these services, and the need for larger ducts to house them. In circular tunnels, duct space is usually available under the roadway by virtue of the tunnel shape. In flat bottom shaped tunnels, however, an increase in depth is usually required to locate the cabling and/or pipework beneath the walkway zone. Placement of manhole and other duct covers within the traffic lanes shall be avoided as planned

access to maintain, replace loosened covers etc may only be available during a tunnel closure.

13.5.20. Utilities

The construction of a road tunnel often offers opportunities to owners of utilities and communication companies to seek to use the tunnel to carry additional service pipelines, transmitters and cables for the benefit of such companies and their customers. It is left to the Overseeing Organization to consult with the relevant Tunnel Operating Authority to decide which, if any, such additional pipelines and cables may be accommodated. Points to consider include the effect on tunnel safety, operations and maintenance; access to effect repairs; liability for any curtailing of or damage to services; fire or explosion from eg gas leaks; corrosion and heat from high voltage cables; ventilation energy loss from the additional drag caused by the larger diameter pipelines; interference with broadcasting of the emergency and maintenance staff broadcasting frequencies; the need to discourage use of mobile telephones whilst driving within a tunnel; and competition policy. The development of in-car communications could be of significant benefits to contact and guide road users during a tunnel emergency. Rental levels shall be set sufficiently high to cover fully such costs and risks, and fully include, pro rata, for the alternative costs the utilities etc would need to bear if the road tunnel were not available, as well as an agreed share of the continued income from the provision of such services.

13.6. OPERATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF SAFETY FACILITIES FOR THE ROAD USER

13.6.1. General

This Chapter describes the classification criteria for the selection of operational safety facilities to be provided in a particular road tunnel, such as space for emergency points, pedestrian access, escape routes, vehicle cross-over's and equipment relating to emergency points, ventilation override, traffic surveillance and control, communication and information systems. Where by laws permit, road tunnels shall allow, and be appropriately equipped for, the free passage of vehicles legally carrying dangerous goods.

Any additional demands on a driver travelling through a road tunnel will vary between individuals and to a large extent, on the length of the tunnel and its structure and form. Those of a nervous disposition or suffering from certain phobias could, in some situations (eg very long tunnels or river crossings) find the experience daunting and in the extreme traumatic. Under normal free flow conditions, however, the majority of road users find little problem in driving through tunnels.

Only in the event of vehicle breakdown, traffic congestion, or the rare occurrence of a serious accident, within the tunnel, will some experience unease or sensations of panic.

To mitigate such effects, clear communication and guidance shall be provided for tunnel users in the event of disruptions to the normal traffic flow such as maintenance, tunnel closures, diversions etc. In addition to the standard operating procedures devised for such events, and arrangements made for rapid response to accidents, breakdowns or other emergencies physical means of escape must be clearly indicated.

13.6.2. Basic Requirements

Facilities for operational safety must be considered for each tunnel in terms of its length, traffic conditions, and the type of road involved (ie motorway or other trunk road). This entails a review of the structural features affecting the tunnel layout, communications, response to emergencies, including fire, emergency lighting and the role of mechanical ventilation (where provided) in the event of a fire. In twin bore tunnels the unaffected bore offers the possibility of emergency services access, a refuge and an escape route. It is also important to consider the tunnel with respect to the surrounding road network.

There are advantages in adopting a classification system to define the basic facilities to be provided for the operational safety of road tunnels (see [Table 13.5](#)).

However, care must be taken to avoid misusing such systems, because no two tunnels are alike and the nature and variety of the safety issues involved requires that each tunnel be dealt with as a separate entity.

A tabulated system provides an effective means for conveying the key issues to non-specialists, particularly those employed in the general planning of tunnel projects. It also provides a basis for establishing preliminary design requirements and cost estimates.

At the stage when tunnel design and operational safety issues are being developed in more detail, a tabulated system of facilities provides a convenient framework for the **TDSCG** to ensure that systematic consideration is given to the specific safety issues at each site.

In matters relating to telecommunications and traffic control, only general guidance can be given, because the development of detailed design requirements in this area entails close cooperation with the overseeing Organization, in order to take account of relevant systems in place or planned on the surrounding network.

The following traffic flow type and tunnel location factors shall be taken into account:

- *Unidirectional or bi-directional traffic flow within a tunnel bore*: This will affect the placement of emergency/distribution panels, traffic control measures and smoke control philosophy.
- *Urban or inter-urban location*: Access and attendance times for the emergency services can vary considerably according to the location.
- *Location above or below water*: Tunnels below the water table may be more susceptible to flooding and if passing under waterways the means of escape can only be via either end of the tunnel or into adjacent and unaffected tunnel bores.
- *Trunk road or Motorway*: Traffic speeds and drivers' preparedness for possible obstructions will vary according to the criteria applying to the road of which the tunnel is part.

13.6.3. Classification of Facilities

The provision of safety facilities is related to the annual average daily traffic flow (**AADT**) for the tunnel design year, which is typically 15 years from the date of opening, and the length of the tunnel. Tunnels are separated into categories AA, A, B, C, D and E according to length **AADT** as shown in [Figure 13.5](#).

Categories for **AADT** in excess of 100,000 vehicles per day may be calculated by extrapolation of the graph.

Table 13.5 gives the recommended basic provisions for each category. The provisions should be regarded as a starting point for establishing design requirements rather than be rigidly adhered to if there are valid reasons not to do so. The requirements and considerations of tunnel layout, structural features, communications, emergency facilities, and duplicate systems for reliability in operations and incidents, and value engineering all play a part in reaching the final decisions on provision.

13.6.4. Tunnel Layout and Structural Features

13.6.4.1. Emergency Points

Tunnel structures shall accommodate emergency points at intervals along the tunnel. Such points shall be large enough to house fire-fighting facilities and emergency roadside telephones connected to remote, permanently manned, police or tunnel control centres. The spacing of emergency points is determined by the requirements for spacing of emergency telephones, and fire hose reels and hydrants which shall be determined in consultation with the fire authority.

The nominal spacing for emergency points is 50 m, with emergency roadside telephones and fire hose reels (if fire brigade require) at every emergency point and hydrants at alternate points (i.e. at 100 m intervals).

13.6.4.2. Vehicle Refuges for Tunnel Incidents

The initial cost of providing additional traffic space in the tunnel cross section to cope with incidents and breakdowns must be balanced against the operational needs of communications, surveillance, and stand by recovery facilities, consequence of traffic delays and pressure on the surrounding road network. Such factors will depend on the length of tunnel, its location (rural, mountain, urban, sub aqueous) and on traffic demand. Advice from those experienced in the management of risks in road tunnels, rather than accident statistics, shall be sought to define the need for any additional traffic standing space.

13.6.4.3. Emergency Stopping Lanes

Due to the high costs involved there are very few examples of continuous emergency stopping lanes within tunnels.

However, additional lane width or widened verges provide a temporary expedient for traffic to be able to pass a stranded vehicle. Such temporary provisions shall not be a basis for justifying traffic throughputs during prolonged periods of tunnel restriction. The first priority and whole basis of safe tunnel operation must always be to remove, as a matter of urgency, any obstacle to unrestricted lane use.

13.6.4.4. Emergency Walkways

Unobstructed pedestrian access, at low level, to emergency points shall be provided. [The high raised and protected walkways, which originated from the circular profiles of TBM (tunnel boring machine) constructed tunnels, give rise to distinct disadvantages: the loss of temporary standing for stranded vehicles; for drivers, the unwelcome side wall effect (avoidance) influencing driver behavior; restricting the nearside opening of doors of stranded vehicles; loss of ready access to the emergency points and cross tube connections for all tunnel users, especially the disabled. Maintenance is also more problematical (eg duct walls, rapid deterioration of hand railing and general cleaning difficulties)].

13.6.4.5. Escape Routes

In twin bore tunnels, passenger escape routes through fire doors positioned in central walls or cross-connecting passages shall be provided. These shall be positioned at 100 m nominal intervals and provided with permanently lit signs, emergency roadside telephones etc. Single bore tunnel escape route and safe refuge requirements shall be examined and established by the Design Organization from first principles, to the agreement of the **TDSCG**.

13.6.4.6. Tunnel Cross Connections:

Tunnel cross-connections are generally of three types:

1. A single set of fire doors in the partition wall between two traffic bores.
2. A cross passage with fire doors at both ends providing a safe refuge and an escape route from one bore to the other.
3. Access doors to a central escape shaft or passage, leading to a safe exit.

The second and third types above require ventilation to maintain a supply of fresh air to the escape route and positive pressure or other provisions to exclude smoke from any fire within traffic bore. Where two or more bores are linked by cross connections, the effect of opening one or more of those cross connection doors shall be considered in both normal and emergency situations. The design shall incorporate features which reduce or eliminate any hazard caused by the opening of such a cross connection.

13.6.4.7. Vehicle Cross Overs

Vehicle cross-overs shall be provided on tunnel approaches to enable contra flow working in twin bore tunnels, or convoy working (see **TA63 DMRB (8.4.5)**) in single bore tunnels for maintenance etc. If there is a junction near the tunnel, care shall be taken to ensure that all traffic can use the cross overs. Care shall also be taken with sight lines through cross-overs, particularly those adjacent to widely spaced twin bores and provision made for suitable temporary or permanent signing, including any necessary speed limit signs. During normal operation, suitable means of preventing vehicles from crossing from one carriageway to the other shall be provided to avoid a safety hazard. Movable or demountable barriers, when implementing contra-flow operation, shall be evaluated in terms of possible reductions in maintenance costs.

13.6.4.8. Turning Bays

In tunnels of over 5 km length, turning bays of sufficient size to enable a lorry to turn around shall be provided, not more than 1 km from the middle of the tunnel.

13.6.4.9. Emergency Services Parking

If necessary, an area close to the tunnel portals shall be provided for the parking of police and emergency services vehicles and equipment when attending a tunnel incident.

13.6.4.10. Toll Booths

Toll booths, if required, shall be sited at sufficient distance from the tunnel portals to allow traffic to return to free flow conditions before entering the confines of the tunnel. This affects not only safety, but also the pollution levels in the tunnel. In general, toll booths should be sited at least 300m from a tunnel.

13.6.4.11. Drainage Sumps

Drainage sumps shall be sized to accept, and be equipped to contain with safety, the largest spillage that may reasonably be expected to occur within the tunnel. Unless by law restrictions are imposed and enforced, the volume to be assumed is 30m³, which approximates to the total contents of a large tanker vehicle.

13.6.5. Tunnel Communications and Emergency Facilities**13.6.5.1. Communications**

Emergency roadside telephones within the tunnel allow road users to communicate directly with the tunnel or police traffic control centre. Radio rebroadcasting equipment will enable emergency services and maintenance staff operating within the tunnel to maintain communications. To warn, guide and assist road users during tunnel emergencies use of flashing signals, RDS radio broadcasting, in-car communications, klaxons and public address systems which are effective in high ambient noise conditions should be considered, as an effective means of reducing the risks of loss of life or injury.

13.6.5.2. Traffic Controls

The safety and pollution hazards from traffic disruption within a tunnel may be readily appreciated. Appropriate levels of equipment for measurement of traffic speed and density, traffic surveillance and control, together with a comprehensive system of signs and signals shall be developed in close cooperation with the Overseeing Organization (which has the overall responsibility for authorizing such installations on its motorways and other trunk roads). Tunnel traffic control systems shall be integrated with local networks and neighbouring traffic control systems

13.6.5.3. Tunnel Systems – Emergencies

Systems relating to emergency points and the response to tunnel emergencies shall be linked with the tunnel plant monitoring and control centre.

13.6.5.4. Fire Alarm, Extinguishers, Smoke Control

Facilities for raising an alarm, either by manual or automatic means, and responding to a fire shall be provided to safeguard all areas of the tunnel including the tunnel services building. Extinguishing equipment, and where relevant, facilities for controlling smoke by means of ventilation override shall be in accordance with the relevant chapters of this document.

13.6.5.5. Emergency Lighting and Power

In the event of failure of the normal power supply an alternative source of power will maintain power to operational and safety systems and permit use of the tunnel to continue.

13.6.6. Value Engineering

It shall be recognized that safety equipment is expensive to install and maintain, and can in some instances be subject to failure and short service life. It is therefore essential that no more equipment is installed than is absolutely necessary to keep safety at an acceptable level, while maintaining the confidence of tunnel users. Suitable guidance may be found in the [Highways Agency Value for Money Manual](#).

Table 13.5: Basic Safety Provisions For Each Tunnel Category

SAFETY AND FIRE PREVENTION EQUIPMENT		TUNNEL CATEGORY				
Communication and Alarm Equipment	Emergency Telephones	AA	A	B	C	D
	Radio Rebroadcasting System	●	●	●	●	*
	Traffic Loops	●	○	○	○	
	CCTV	●	○	○	○	○
Fire Extinguishing Equipment	Hand Held Fire Extinguishers	●	●	●	○	
	Pressurised Fire Hydrants	●	●	●	●	○
	Fire Hose Reels	●	○	○	○	
Signs and Rescue Equipment	Emergency Exit Signs	●	●	●	○	○
	Lane Control and Tunnel Closure Signs/Signals	●	●	●	●	○
Other Provisions and Equipment	Emergency Stopping Lane	●	●	●		
	Emergency Walkway	●	●	●	●	○
	Escape Doors	●	○	○		
	Turning Bays	○				
	Ventilation for Smoke Control	●	●	●	○	○

- Normal provision
 - Requirements to be determined by TDSCG
 - * Provision determined by local requirements
- See Table 13.5 for tunnel category.

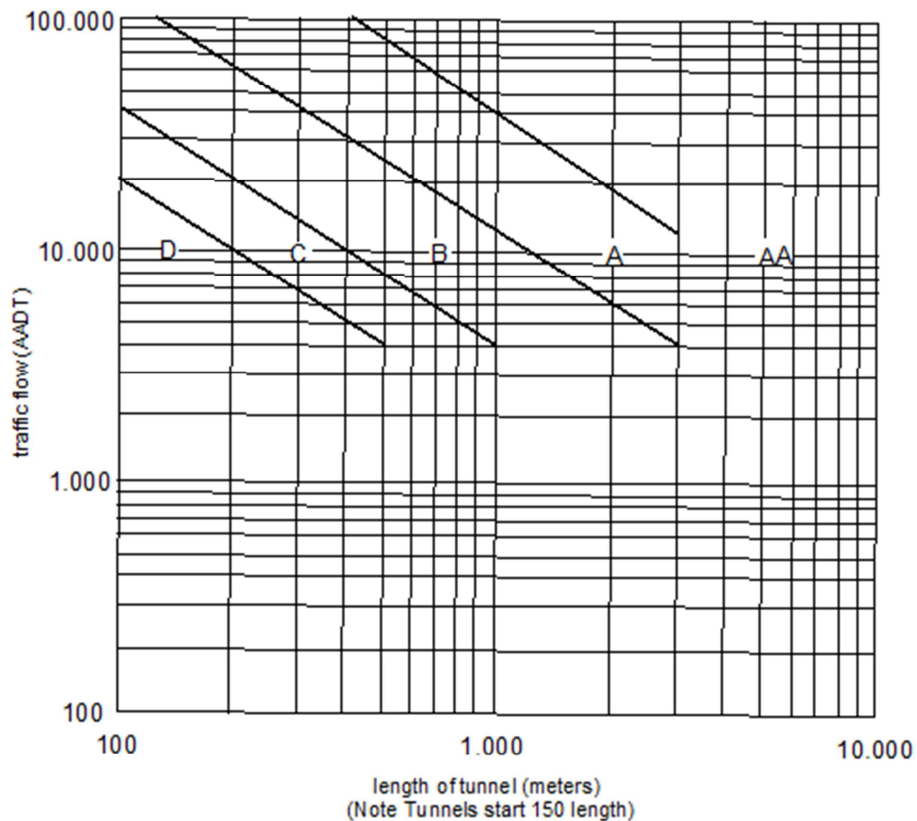


Figure 13.5: Determination of Tunnel Category

13.7. STUDIES & INVESTIGATIONS

13.7.1. General

Investigations should be conducted to obtain data for planning, design, construction and maintenance.

13.7.2. Site Condition Investigation

Site condition investigation should be conducted to select tunnel route, judge suitability of tunnel methods, size of the tunnel, and should cover local conditions along the tunnel alignment related to:

1. Land usage and related property rights, including encumbrances and restrictions on surface/underground land usage b. Future development plans along the route, including their scale and schedules;
2. Road classification and traffic conditions; to aid in determining vertical shaft locations;
3. Difficulty of land use for construction; e.g., construction yard around a vertical shaft;
4. Lake and sea conditions; including cross section, structure of its banks, etc.
5. Availability and capacity of power, water and sewage connection for construction.

13.7.3. Obstacle Investigation

Obstacle investigation should be conducted to identify the following items:

1. Existing surface and underground structures; including foundation type, basements and structures with sensitive instruments;
2. Existing underground utilities;
3. Wells in use and abandoned wells to assess risk of blowout/leakage of slurry, oxygen-deficient air.
4. Sites of removed structures and temporary works, including contaminated soils and groundwater.

13.7.4. Geological & Geotechnical Investigations

Geological and geotechnical investigation should be conducted to determine topography; geological formations; soil conditions; and groundwater. Special investigation needs related to construction method are summarized in [Table 13.6](#). The level of Geotechnical effort should be as recommended by the **US National Committee on Tunneling (USNC/TT, 1995)**; the top two recommendations are:

1. Site exploration budgets should average 3% of estimated project cost;
2. Boring footage should average 0.5 linear m of borehole per route (m) of tunnel.

Table 13.6: Special Investigation needs Related to Construction Method (after Bickel et al.)

Construction Method	Special Requirements
Rock TBM	Data to determine cutter costs, penetration rate, predict stand-up time to determine if open-type machine or full shield is needed and groundwater inflow.
Pressurized-face TBM	Reliable estimates of groundwater pressures, TBM strength and permeability of soil to be tunneled. Predict size distribution and amount of boulders, and characterize mixed face conditions.
Road header	Data on jointing to evaluate if road header will be plucking out small joint blocks, or must grind rock away. Data on hardness of rock essential to predict cutter/pick costs.
Immersed Tube	Soil data for dredged slope design, prediction of dredged trench rebound, and settlement of completed immersed tube structure. Testing should emphasize rebound modulus (elastic and consolidation) and unloading strength parameters. Soil strength determination for slope and bearing evaluations. Exploration to assure that all potential obstructions and rock ledges are identified, characterized and located. Characterize contaminated ground.
Cut and Cover	Plan exploration to determine best and most cost-effective location to change from cut and-cover to true tunnel mining construction
Construction Shafts	One boring at each proposed shaft location.
Access, Ventilation other Permanent Shafts	Data to design permanent support and Ground-water control measures. One boring per shaft.
Solution-Mining	Chemistry to estimate rate of leaching; undisturbed core for long-term creep test for cavern stability analyses.
Pipe Jacking and Micro-tunneling	Data to predict soil skin friction and to Micro-tunneling determine excavation method and support needed at the heading.
Compressed Air	Drill boring off of alignment; grout boring so compressed air is not lost up old borehole should tunnel encounter old boring.
Portal Construction	Data to determine portal location and design temporary and final portal structure.
NATM	Comprehensive geotechnical data and analysis to predict behavior and classify ground conditions and ground support systems into categories based on behavior.

13.7.5. Investigation for Environmental Protection

The following items should be investigated, as the need arises, in order to protect the environment, during and after tunnel construction:

Noise and Vibration Should be monitored both prior to and during construction to evaluate those generated just by tunnel construction

Ground Movements Condition of the ground and structures along the alignment should be surveyed and monitored, during and after construction, in order to quantify degree of ground heave I subsidence and effect on structures along tunnel route.

Groundwater Use of wells, water level and quality of the wells, and spring water in the sphere of influence should be surveyed. Timing of survey and the construction should be compared to account for seasonal fluctuation in groundwater level.

Oxygen-deficient Air and Hazardous Gases Such as methane; oxygen-deficient air resulting from oxidation of iron content and organic material in soil may be pushed into nearby wells and basements by application of the pneumatic shield tunneling method.

Therefore, locations of wells, their water levels and basement structures to be potentially affected should be investigated prior to construction and the leakage of oxygen-deficient air should be monitored during construction. Existence of hazardous gases, such as methane should be investigated prior to construction by borings. If detected, its concentration should be measured and monitored prior to, and during, construction.

Chemical grouting Water quality in wells and rivers that will be potentially affected by leakage of injected chemical grout or slurry from shield tunneling should be surveyed and monitored for any changes during construction

Construction By-products Reduction and recycling of construction byproducts should be encouraged for smooth construction operations and preservation of the environment.

13.8. DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

13.8.1. Highway Requirements

Highway requirements for road tunnels vary according to the tunnel situation and character (urban, interstate, sub aqueous or mountain), and whether long or short. Standards for lane and shoulder width, and vertical clearance for highways, should be as established by the FHWA and AASHTO according to classification ([Figure 13.6](#)).

13.8.1.1. General

In addition to width of traveled lanes, left and right shoulders should be provided flush with pavement surface. Horizontal clearances on curved tunnels should be increased to provide sight distances past the tunnel wall. In lieu of maintenance walks, closed circuit television camera surveillance is used, and lanes are closed when maintenance access is required.

13.8.1.2. Urban Underpasses

The straightest practicable line should be adopted and gradients should be restricted, if possible, to less than 3-4%, because steeper gradients give rise to congestion when large, heavily loaded vehicles are ascending;

13.8.1.3. Urban Highway Tunnels

Tunnel line and gradients should conform to standards specified for the urban: sight lines appropriate to the design speed should require particular care, especially where vertical curves are necessary. Design speed should be greater than 97 km/h, unless otherwise restricted in urban areas; the minimum radius of curvature should not be less than 457 m.

13.8.1.4. Sub aqueous Tunnels

Line should be fixed nearly at right angles to the waterway, to minimize tunnel length, unless valley topography imposes another alignment. As with urban tunnels, any gradient exceeding 3-4% slows heavy traffic disproportionately. Tunnel profile will usually comprise a descending gradient, a nearly level central gradient and a rising gradient. Vertical curves required at changes of gradient should be as long as practicable, to simplify construction if a shield is used, and to avoid restricting the line of sight in the tunnel approaching the change of gradient.

13.8.1.5. Mountain Tunnels

The geometry should be related to the topography and geology in order to design and ensure the stability of cuttings, embankments, viaducts and portals leading to tunnels.

13.8.2. Geometry of Center Line

The principal factors determining the center line include:

1. The relative positions of the portals and directions of approach
2. Geology
3. clearances from external obstacles
4. gradients
5. vertical curves
6. Horizontal curves.

13.8.2.1. Approaches

For very short and simple tunnels, align the tunnel in a straight line joining the portals; otherwise introduce curves to suit the approaches, and varying gradients to carry it under and around obstacles.

13.8.2.2. Geology

The choice of the most suitable strata for tunneling will influence the alignment, as may the avoidance of water-bearing ground or unstable rock.

13.8.2.3. Clearance from External Obstacles

As a broad generalization, it is usually satisfactory if uniform undisturbed ground outside the tunnel extends for one tunnel diameter; more careful analysis is required if discontinuities and obstructions occur within this zone.

13.8.2.4. Gradients

A steep gradient should not be used for highway tunnels because heavy vehicles resort to use of their lowest gears, reducing traffic capacity and increasing demand on the ventilation system. Gradients should be limited to 3-4%. A minimum gradient should be specified (0.25%, usually) to ensure longitudinal drainage of the roadway.

13.8.2.5. Vertical Curves

Changes of gradient are normally small in interstate highway tunnels and mountain tunnels, and connecting curves are correspondingly short, and should follow applicable roadway geometry specifications.

13.8.2.6. Horizontal Curves

In plan, curves may be necessary to align the tunnel with its approach roads and to avoid obstacles in the ground. The same considerations apply in determining the radius as in surface roads: design speed, centrifugal force, super elevation, and line of sight.

On very sharp curves, some extra lane width for long vehicles is desirable, but may be prohibitively expensive.

13.8.3. Cross Section

13.8.3.1. General

The cross section is determined by the space required for traffic, space required for other facilities, and by construction methods.

13.8.3.2. Traffic Space

This should be defined by the lane width and maximum load height of vehicle. The minimum normal tunnel will accommodate two lanes of traffic. Three-lane tunnels are not uncommon where a rectangular section is used, in cut-and-cover construction, or in immersed tubes. However, the circular form is generally not used for three or more lanes.

13.8.3.3. Other Space

Walkways are sometimes still used for inspection, maintenance, and emergency use for access to the site of an accident and for escape. Additional space may also be necessary for ventilation ducts. In a circular tunnel, the spaces beneath the roadway and above the clearance line are available without extra excavation, and in a horseshoe tunnel there is normally a substantial area in the crown; but in a rectangular structure, extra width or depth must be excavated. In a river crossing, the accommodation of water mains, gas mains, electric power cables, or other services, are often required. These are usually installed in the under-road space in a circular tunnel, but at the expense of reducing the area available for ventilation and increasing the necessary fan power to overcome the friction and turbulence generated.

13.8.3.4. Cyclists and Pedestrians

In the construction of some tunnels, there is a demand for crossing facilities for cyclists and pedestrians. This can be disproportionately costly if incorporated in a vehicular traffic system.

Other facilities, in addition to ventilation, to be incorporated within the tunnel are the services for the tunnel itself: lighting, emergency services such as telephones and fire alarms, fire mains, air quality monitoring devices and visibility, public address systems, traffic lights and signals, drainage and pumping. Reference should be made to [**National Fire Protection Association \(NFPA\) Standard 502 \(2001\)**](#).

13.8.3.5. Construction Requirements

The shape of a highway tunnel, whether rectangular, circular or horseshoe in form, is dictated by the method of construction adopted to suit the ground conditions.

For cut-and-cover, the rectangular shape is usual; for rock to be excavated by blasting, the horseshoe or other arched form is common; for excavation by full face machine, usually, the circular form pertains; and likewise for most soft ground subaqueous tunnels (other than submerged tunnels). In long mountain tunnels, a rising gradient is preferred to simplify drainage during construction; in shield-driven tunnels, sharp curves, horizontal or vertical, present difficulties in steering the shield and building the lining.

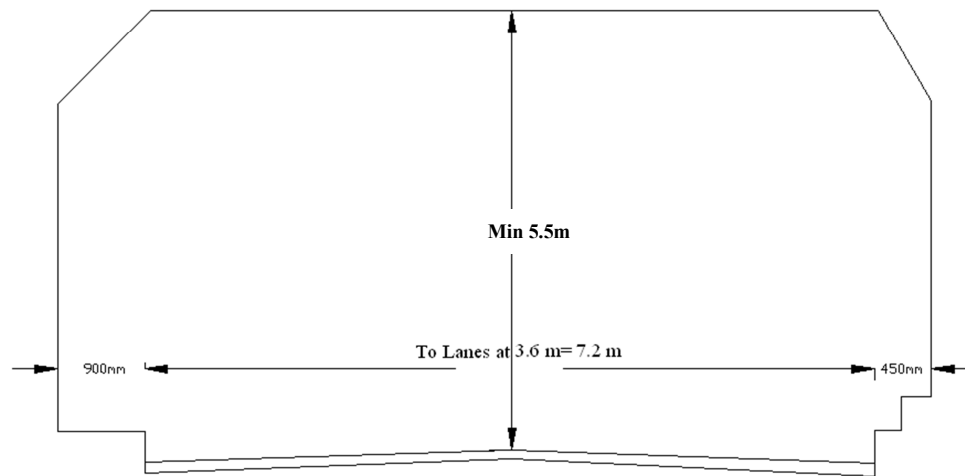


Figure 13.6: MOMRA Clearances for a Two-lane Primary Highway

13.8.4. Fundamental Approach to Ground Support Design

Underground design must achieve functionality, stability, and safety of the underground openings during and after construction and for as long as the underground structure is expected to function. There is no recognized U.S. standard, practice, or code for the design of underground structures. Many designers apply codes such as ACI's Codes and Practices for concrete design, but these were developed for structures above ground, not for underground structures, and only parts of these codes apply to underground structures.

Designers often approach tunnel design by searching for modes of failure that can be analyzed (e.g., combined bending and compression in a lining), then apply them to more-or-less realistic but postulated situations (loading of a lining). While bending and compression are applicable failure modes for linings, many other modes of failure must be analyzed. In principle, all realistic modes of behavior or failure must be defined; then means by which these can be analyzed and mitigated must be found.

Failure modes are modes of behavior that could be considered unacceptable in terms of hazard, risk to cost or schedule during construction, environmental effect, or long-term failure of function. For underground structures, failure of function means different things for different kinds of structures: a certain amount of leakage in an

urban highway tunnel might be a failure of function, while for a rural water conveyance tunnel such leakage might be perfectly acceptable.

The five basic design steps are outlined below:

- 1) The functional requirements are defined in a broad sense. They include all hydraulic and geometric requirements, ancillary and environmental requirements and limitations, logistics, and maintenance requirements.
- 2) Collect geologic and cultural data including all information required to define potential failure modes and analyze them, field and laboratory data, and cultural data to define environmental effects and constraints. These data may include ownership of right-of-way, the possibility of encountering contaminants, and sensitivity of structures to settlements.
- 3) Determine plausible and possible failure modes including construction events, unsatisfactory long-term performance, and failure to meet environmental requirements. Examples include instability problems or groundwater inflow during construction, corrosion or excessive wear of ground support elements, excessive leakage (in or out), and settlements that may cause distress to adjacent existing structures.
- 4) Design initial and final ground supports. Initial support includes all systems that are used to maintain a stable, safe opening during construction. Final supports are those systems that need to maintain a functional opening for the design life of the project. Initial supports may constitute a part of the final supports, or they may be the final support (e.g., precast segmental liner installed behind a TBM).
- 5) Prepare contract documents. This is the synthesis of all design efforts and may include provisions to modify construction procedures based on observations. The contract documents also contain all information necessary for a competitive bidding process, and means to deal with claims and disputes.

For more information see [US Army COE Manual \(EM 1110-2-2901, 1997\)](#).

13.8.5. Seismic Effects on Tunnels

In general, underground facilities have experienced a lower rate of damage than surface structures; however, some underground structures have experienced significant damage in recent earthquakes, including: the 1995 Kobe earthquake in Japan; the 1999 Chi-Chi earthquake in Taiwan; and the 1999 Kocaeli earthquake in Turkey. An [ITA/AITES report \(Hashash et al, 2001\)](#) describes approaches used by engineers in quantifying the seismic effects on an underground structure. It discusses special design issues, including the design of tunnel segment joints, and joints between tunnels and portal structures.

In general, seismic design loads for underground structures are characterized in terms of the deformations and strains imposed by the surrounding ground, due to interaction between the ground and the structure. In contrast, surface structures are designed for the inertial forces caused by ground accelerations.

There are basically three approaches to seismic design of underground structures:

- 1) The simplest approach ignores interaction of the underground structure with the surrounding ground. The free-field ground deformations due to a seismic event are estimated, and the underground structure is designed to accommodate these

deformations. This approach is satisfactory when low levels of shaking are anticipated or when the underground facility is in a stiff medium, such as rock.

- 2) The pseudo-static approach involves ground deformations imposed as a static load; the soil-structure interaction does not include dynamic or wave propagation effects.
- 3) In the dynamic analysis approach, dynamic soil-structure interaction is conducted using numerical analysis tools, such as finite element or finite difference methods.

13.9. SOFT GROUND TUNNELING

13.9.1. General

Soft ground requires support as soon as possible after excavation, in order to maintain stability of the excavation. In dense urban areas, limiting settlement is necessary in order to avoid damage to overlying structures.

Table 13.7: Tunnel Behavior: Sands and Gravels (Terzaghi, 1977)

Designation	Degree of Compactness	Tunnel Behavior	
		Above Water Table	Below Water Table
Very Fine Clean Sand	Loose, $N > 10$ Dense, $N > 30$	Cohesive Running Fast Raveling	Flowing Flowing
Fine Sand with Clay Binder	Loose, $N > 10$ Dense, $N > 30$	Rapid Raveling Firm or Slowly Raveling	Flowing Slowly Raveling
Sand or Sandy Gravel with Clay Binder	Loose, $N > 10$ Dense, $N > 30$	Rapid Raveling Firm	Rapidly Raveling or Flowing Firm/slow Raveling
Sandy Gravel and Medium to Coarse Sand		Running Ground. Uniform ($C_u < 3$) and loose ($N < 10$) materials with round grains run much more freely than well graded ($C_u > 6$) and dense ($N > 30$) ones with angular grains.	Flowing Conditions combined with extremely heavy discharge of water.

13.9.2. Soil Stabilization & Groundwater Control

Consider the following four methods to control groundwater:

- 1) Dewatering;
- 2) Compressed air;
- 3) Grouting;
- 4) Freezing.

Figure 13.7 shows the applicable methods of controlling groundwater in terms of soil permeability and grain size.

Control of groundwater is also important in soft ground tunneling. While groundwater above the water table increases stand-up time in granular soil, below the water table, it reduces effective strength, and seepage forces can cause failure in such

soil. In cohesive soils, groundwater determines strength, sensitivity and swelling properties, which control design of the final lining.

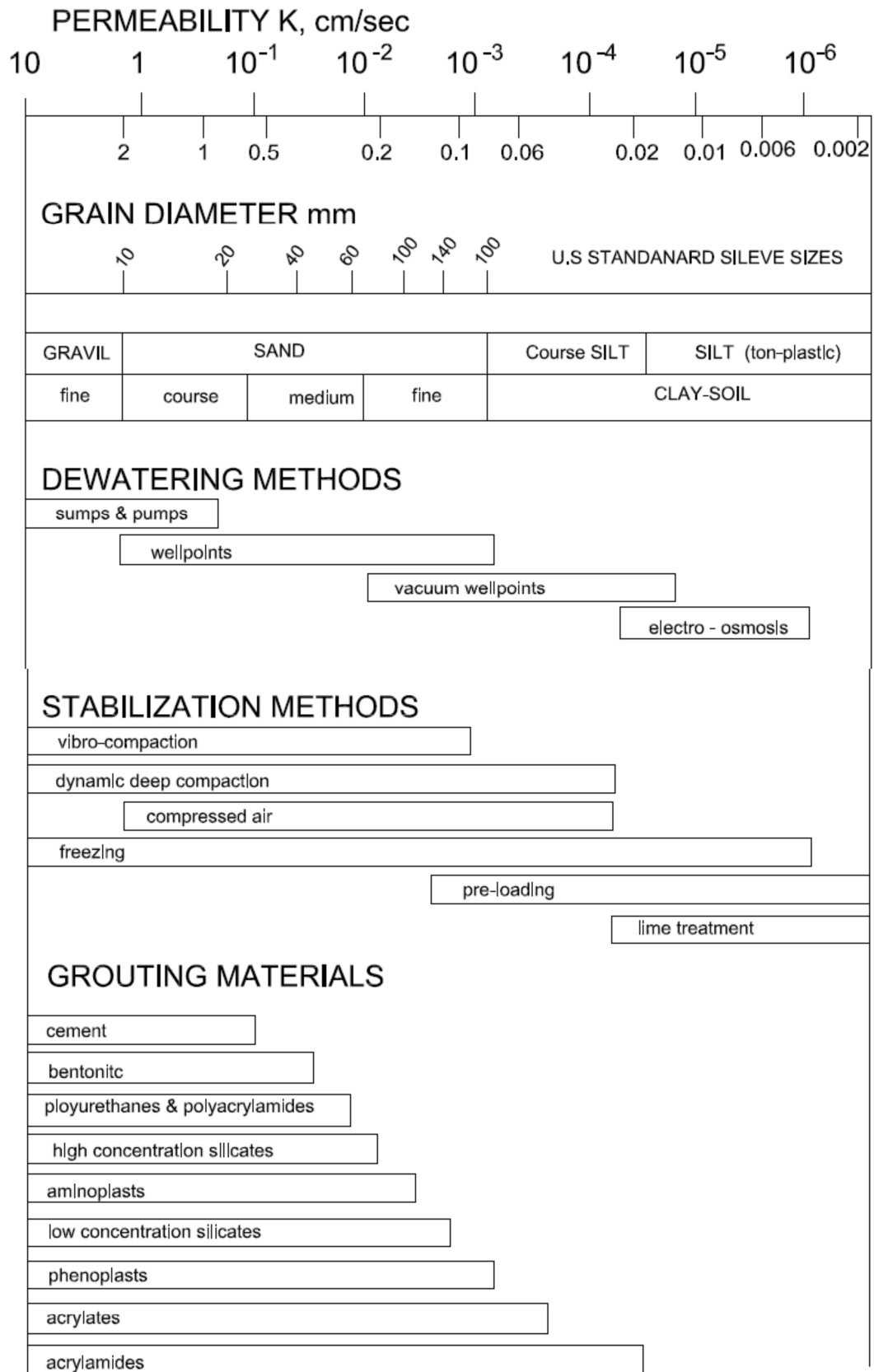


Figure 13.7: Methods of Controlling Groundwater (after Karol, 1990)

13.9.3. Soft Ground Tunneling Machines

To enable safe and economical construction of a tunnel in soft ground, TBM and method selection should be based on appropriate consideration of soil conditions, water conditions, surface conditions, tunnel size, construction length, tunnel alignment, support system, excavation conditions, excavation environment, and construction period.

The following table shows today's TBM family of machines. It should be noted that, in addition to TBM's used on road tunnel construction, the table includes those used on other types of construction projects (viz. the Pipe Jacking and SBU machines).

Table 13.8: Tunneling Boring Machines (TBM) Family of Machines (From Kessler & Moore,)

Machine Type	Typical Machine Diameters	Ground Condition TBM is Best Suited For
Pipe Jacking Machines	Up to approx. 3 - 4m	Any ground
Small Bore Unit (SBU)	Up to 2m	Any ground
Shielded TBMs	2 to 14m plus	Soft ground above the water table
Mix Face TBMs	2 to 14m plus	Mixed ground above the water table
Slurry TBMs	2 to 14m plus	Coarse-grained soft ground below the water table
EPB TBMs	2 to 14m plus	Fine-grained soft ground below the water table
Hard Rock TBMs	2 to 14m plus	Hard rock
Reamer TBMs	Various	Hard rock
Multi-head TBMs	Various	Various

Figure 13.8 summarizes the different configurations of open and closed shields. Figure 13.9 presents a Flow Chart of Shield Method Selection.

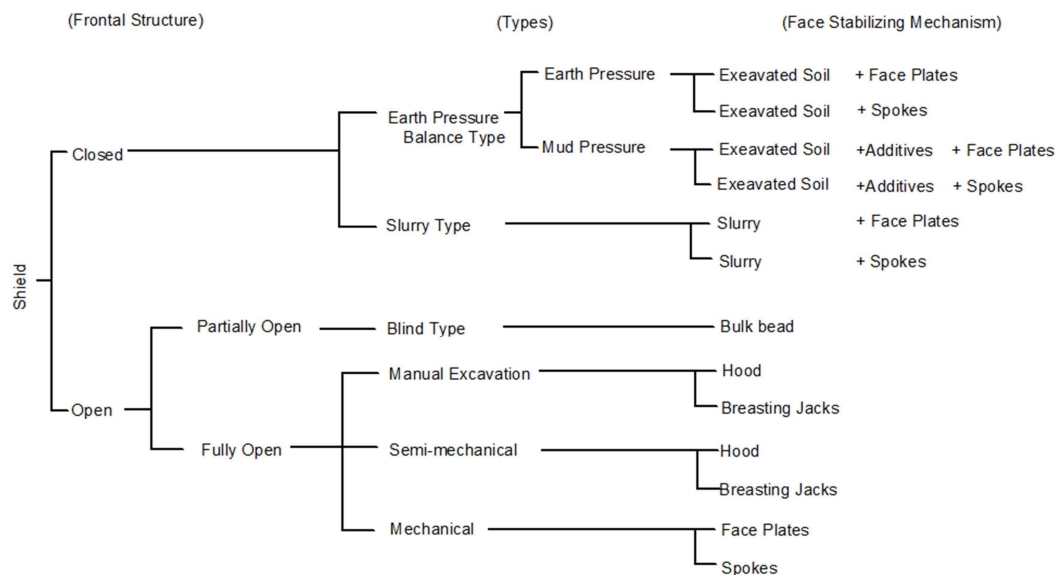


Figure 13.8: Types of Shield (After JSCE, 1996)

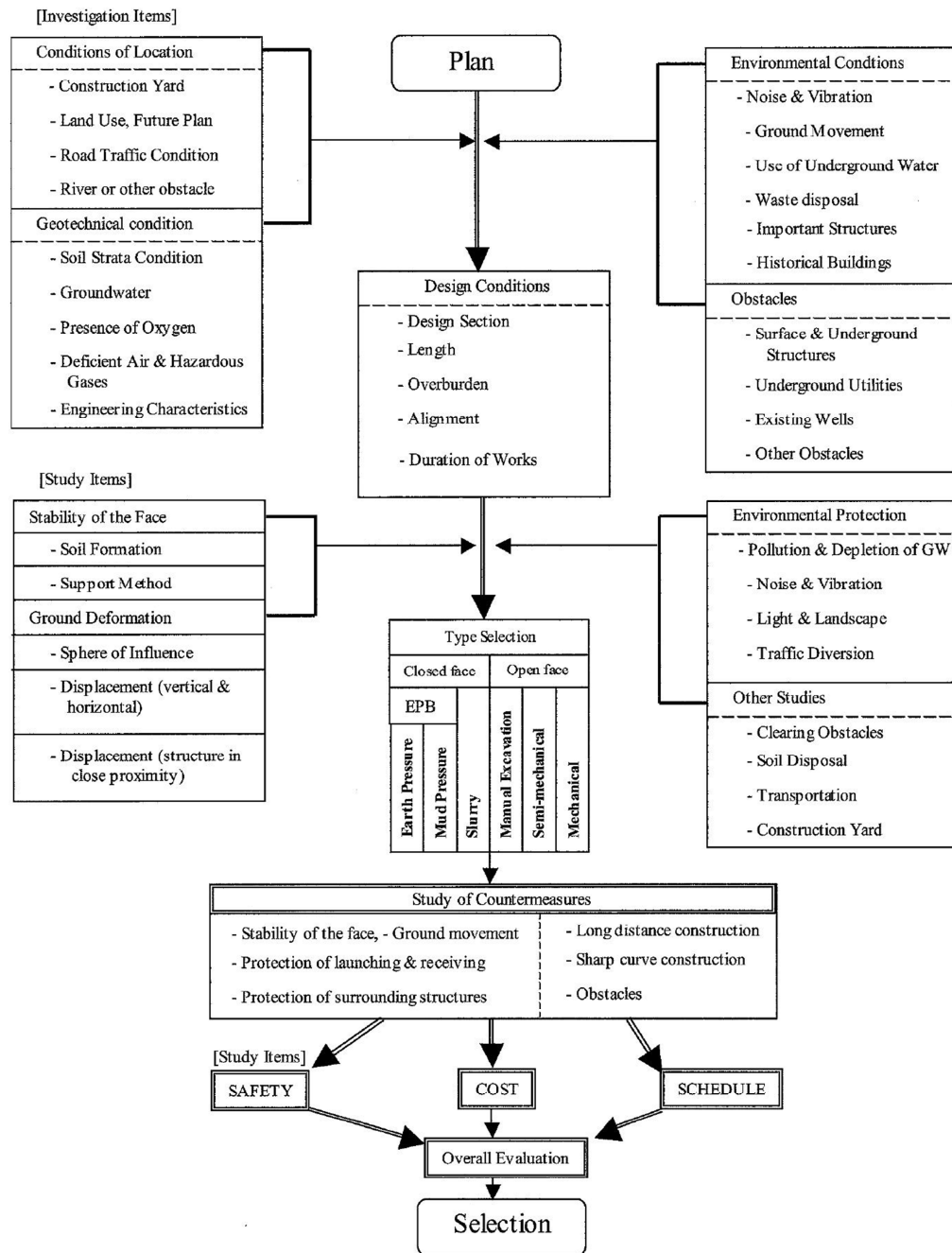


Figure 13.9: Flow Chart of Shield Method Selection (After JSCE, 1996)

13.9.4. NATM/SEM

This tunneling method, pioneered by the Austrians in the latter half of the twentieth century, is variously known as: “New Austrian Tunneling Method” (NATM), “Sequential Excavation Method” (SEM), and “Sprayed Concrete Lining”. In soft ground tunneling, ground support must be placed immediately after excavation. As long as the ground is properly supported, NATM construction methods are appropriate for soft ground conditions.

The tunnel is sequentially excavated and supported, and the excavation sequences can be varied. In soft ground tunnels, initial ground support in the form of shotcrete, usually with lattice girders and some form of ground reinforcement, is installed as excavation proceeds, followed by installation of a final lining at a later date. The permanent support is usually, but not always, a cast-in-place concrete lining. In cases where soft ground conditions do not favor an open face with a short length of uncompleted lining immediately next to it (flowing ground or ground with a short stand-up time), a ground arch does not develop. Unless such unstable conditions can be modified by dewatering, spiling, grouting, or other methods of ground improvement, closed-face shield tunneling methods, and not NATM, should be considered appropriate. A generalized design approach to modeling the excavation process for a NATM tunnel is shown in [Figure 13.10](#).

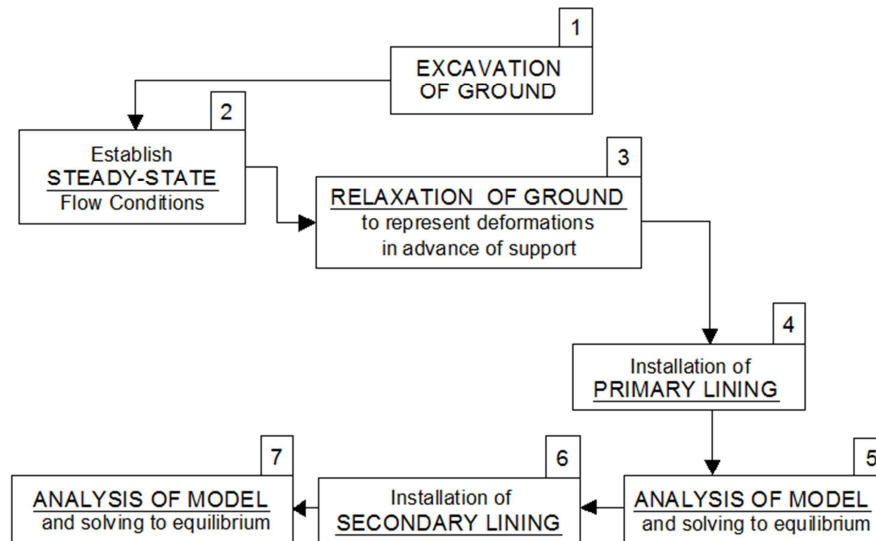


Figure 13.10: Modeling the Excavation Process (Generalized 2D Approach)

13.9.5. Soft Ground Tunnel Support & Lining

A lining should be designed to:

- i. withstand loads on the tunnel safely; in general, the primary lining is responsible for supporting loads on the tunnel;
- ii. retain the transportation function for the purpose of tunnel use; facilitate maintenance and management of the tunnel once it is put into service. This requires a study of watertightness, waterproofing and durability of the linings;
- iii. be suitable for tunnel construction conditions; should sustain jack thrust for advancing a shield machine, withstand the backfill grouting pressure, and function as a tunnel lining structure immediately after the shield is advanced.

Three types of initial support systems will be considered:

- 1) Ribs and Lagging;
- 2) Unbolted, Precast Concrete Segments, and
- 3) Bolted (or pinned) Precast Concrete Segments.

Interaction between support system and the surrounding ground is crucial, and depends on early contact between the two to stop the ground from moving (raveling, running, shearing or squeezing). The contact is obtained (except where supported by shotcrete) by expansion of the support system, contact grouting between the excavated tunnel surface and the support system or a combination of the two.

13.9.5.1. Two-pass Lining Scheme

The first two types of initial support system will later incorporate a final lining of cast-in-place concrete, used to provide design-life support (ribs and lagging scheme); sandwich drainage fabric or water-proofing membrane (both schemes); and provide the requisite inner surface of the tunnel for user requirements

13.9.5.2. One-pass Lining Scheme

The scheme incorporating bolted (or pinned) precast concrete segments usually does not have a final lining, unless a nominal one is dictated by user requirements.

13.9.6. Surface Effects of Tunnel Construction

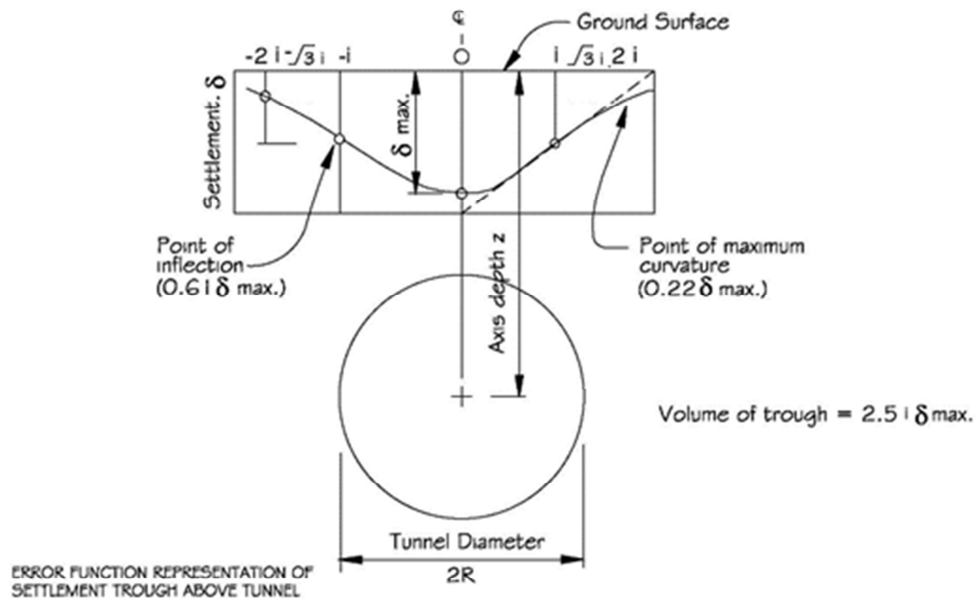
The tunnel engineer should minimize the extent and impact of tunnel-related settlement produced at the ground surface/structures overlying the tunnel (the contractor has most of the control through selection of tunneling methods and equipment). Water table depression occurs because the tunnel functions as a groundwater drain and increases effective stress, causing settlement. In sands and gravels, settlements are generally small, and should be approximated by elastic theory. In clay, silt, or peat, settlements are generally greater, and should be approximated by consolidation theory.

The three forms of ground loss in soft ground tunneling are:

- *Face Losses* - soil movement out in front of the shield and into the shield, through raveling, caving, flowing, running, or squeezing;
- *Shield Losses* - soil movement toward the shield between the cutting edge and tail, as a result of the shield plowing, pitching, or yawing, and from the void created by overcutters;
- *Tail Losses* - soil movement toward the support system as it leaves the shield's tail, resulting from soil moving to fill the tail void created by the volume of the tail skin plate and
- Incomplete support expansion, and delay in grouting.

[Figure 13.11](#) shows the properties of the probability curve as used to represent cross section of the settlement trough above the tunnel (see [Bickel et al., 1996](#) for greater details).

[Figure 13.12](#) defines the parameter i , which represents the width of the settlement trough – the horizontal distance from the location of maximum settlement to the point of inflection of the settlement curve. The maximum value of the surface settlement is equal to the volume of surface settlement divided by $2.5i$.



Error Function Representation of Settlement Trough Above Tunnel

Figure 13.11: Cross Section of Settlement Trough above Tunnel (Adapted from Peck, 1969)

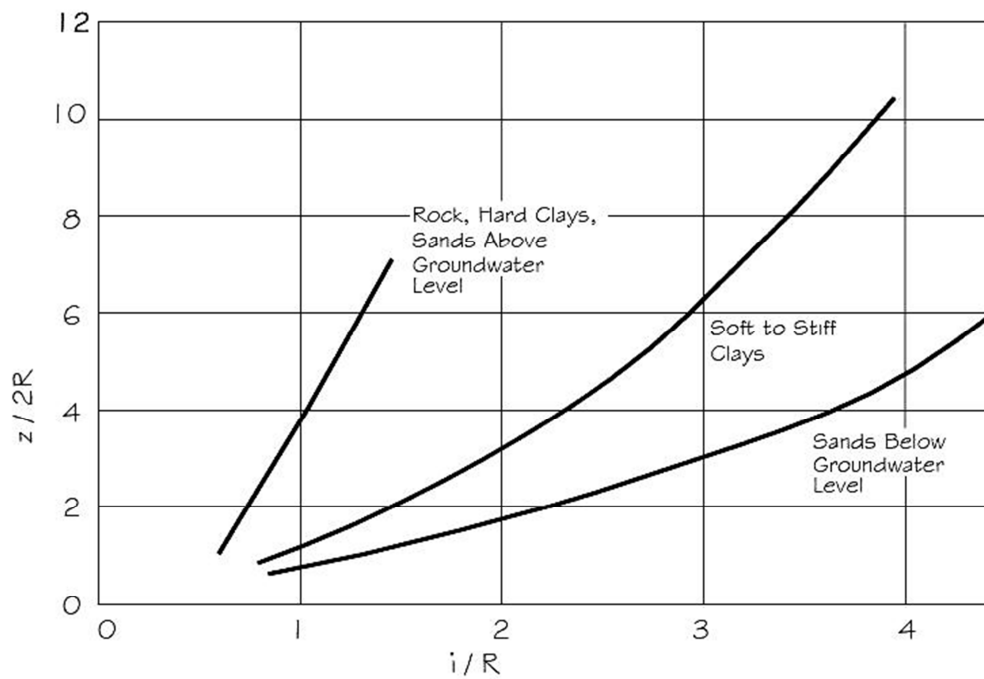


Figure 13.12: Relationship between Width of Settlement Trough and Depth of Tunnel (Adapted from Peck, 1969)

13.9.7. Building Protection Methods

The Tunnel Engineer should require the use of tunneling equipment and methods that reduce lost ground, including:

- Full and proper face control at all times, especially while shoving the shield;
- Limiting the length-to-diameter ratio for the shield, making directional control easier and reducing the effects of pitch and yaw;
- Rapid installation of ground support;
- Rapid expansion, pea-gravelling, and/or contact grouting of ground support;

In special cases, other steps may include:

- Use of compressed air;
- Consolidation grouting of the ground before tunneling
- Consolidation grouting from the tunnel face;
- Compaction grouting between tunnel and foundations;
- Underpinning structures by various methods.
- Use of protective walls, including: slurry walls or soil-cement structural walls embedded below the tunnel.

See [Cording & Hansmire \(1975\)](#) for detailed examples of actual measurements of ground movement about tunnels in sand; See [Palmer & Belshaw \(1979, 1980\)](#) for detailed examples of ground movement about tunnels in clay.

Results of the wide variety of existing evaluation methods of the influence of tunnel-induced settlement on buildings are surprisingly consistent; [Table 13.10](#) shows limiting angular distortion for various categories of potential damage.,

Table 13.9: Limiting Angular Distortion, ([Wahls, 1981](#))

Category of Potential Damage	Angular Distortion
Damage to machinery sensitive to settlement	1/750
Danger to frames with diagonals	1/600
Safe limit for no cracking of building ^a	1/500
First cracking of panel walls	1/300
Difficulties with overhead cranes	1/300
Tilting of high rigid building becomes visible	1/250
Considerable cracking of panel and brick walls	1/150
Danger of structural damage to general building	1/150
Safe limit for flexible brick walls ^a	1/150

^a Safe limit includes a factor of safety.

13.9.8. Design of Tunnel Lining for Shield Tunnels

This Section covers the basic requirements of design of the tunnel lining for shield tunnels; while it addresses tunnels with a circular cross section, with appropriate modifications, it can be applicable to other shield tunnel shapes. An excellent reference would be the JSCE's [Japanese Standard for Shield Tunneling \(1996\)](#). Note that the design of initial support and design of permanent, final linings are addressed in Article [13.10.5](#) and [13.10.7](#), respectively.

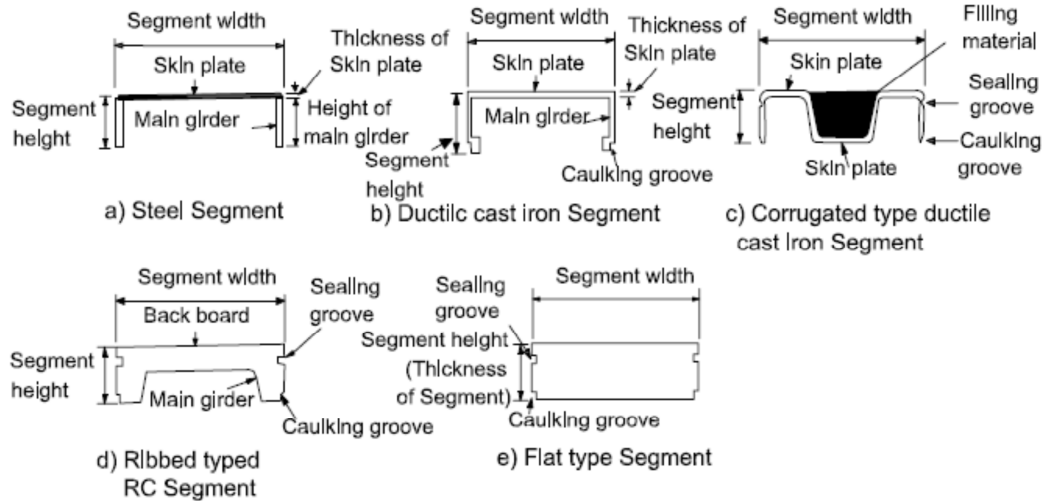


Figure 13.13: Cross Section of Segments

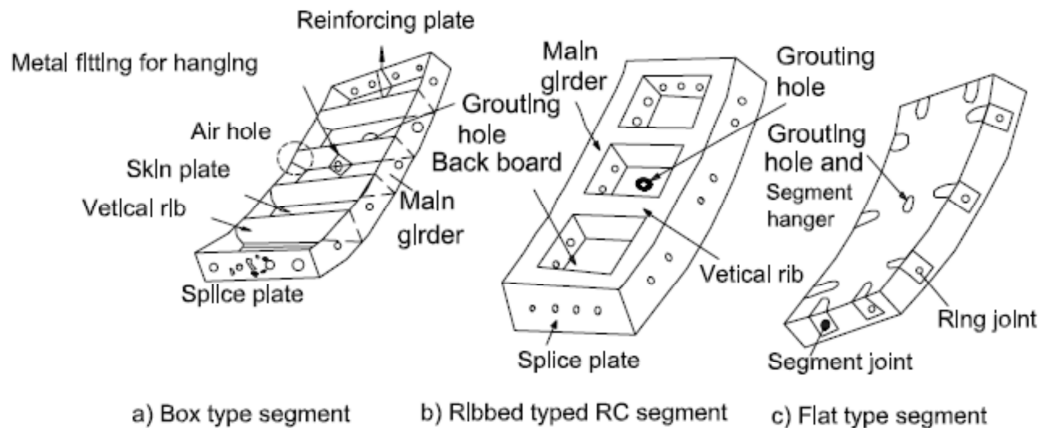


Figure 13.14: Segment Parts

13.9.8.1. Terminology

1. Types of Segments

The five types of segments are described below and shown in [Figure 13.13](#) and [Figure 13.14](#):

1. *Box-Type Segment*: A generic name for the steel segment with a re-entrant enclosed with the main girders and the splice plates or the vertical ribs;

2. *Ductile Cast Iron Segment*: A Box-Type Segment made of spheroidal graphite cast iron;
3. *Ribbed Type RC Segment*: A Box-Type Segment made of concrete.
4. *Corrugated Type Segment*: A Ductile Cast Iron Segment with outer re-entrant filled with solid material.
5. *Flat Type Segment*: Reinforced concrete segments in the shape of a flat plate with a solid body; term also used for composite segments in which the concrete segment is entirely covered with steel plate or reinforced with steel sections instead of reinforcement bars.

2. Segment Parts

The different parts of a segment are defined in [Figure 13.14](#).

3. Segmental Ring Components

A Segment, B Segment and K Segment are defined in [Figure 13.17](#).

As shown in [Figure 13.18](#), there are two types of K segment, depending on the direction of insertion.

4. Joint Assemblies

a. Straight Joint Assembly

When segment joints are arranged in the direction of the tunnel axis.

b. Staggered Joint Arrangement

When segment joints are arranged in a staggered pattern.

5. Tapered Ring

As defined in [Figure 13.15](#), a tapered ring has a taper which allows the lining to adapt itself to a specific curvature. The taper is the difference between the maximum and minimum lengths of the tapered ring.

Cross sections of segmental rings are shown in [Figure 13.16](#).

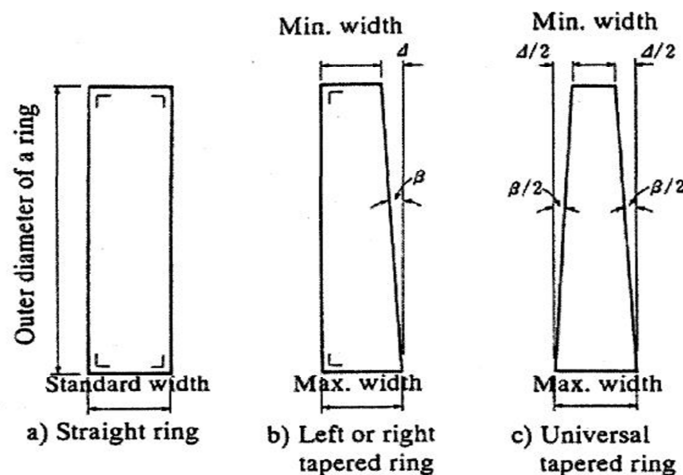


Figure 13.15: Tapered Ring

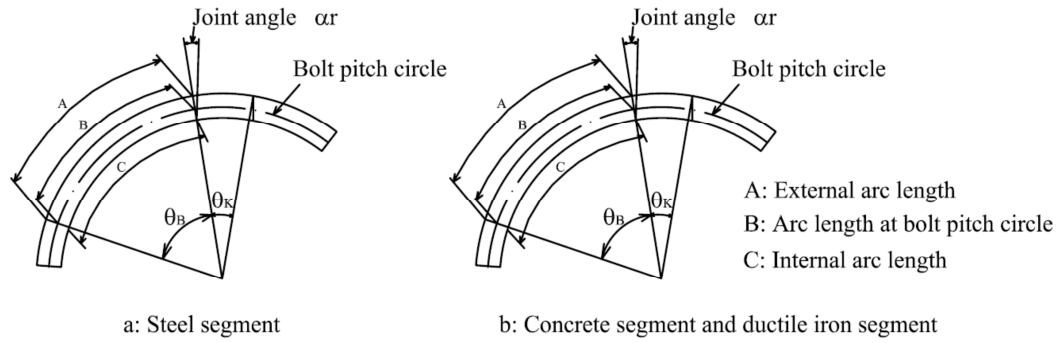


Figure 13.16: Cross Section of Segmental Ring

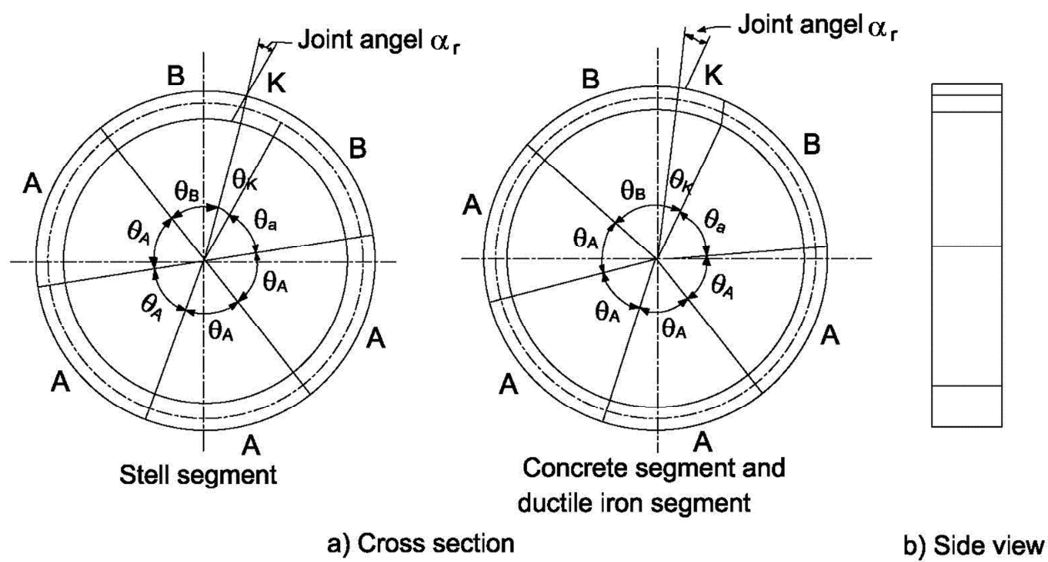


Figure 13.17: Segmental Ring Components

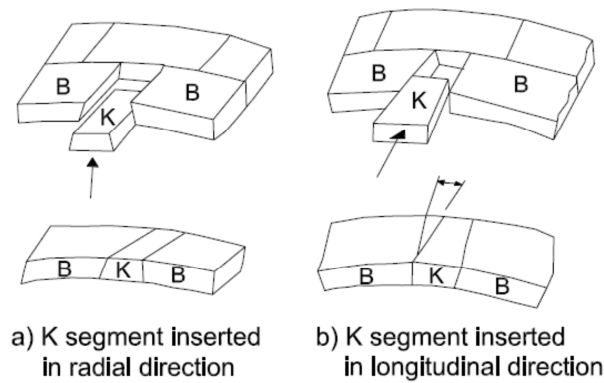


Figure 13.18: Types of K Segment

13.9.8.2. Notation

The notation used for the structural calculation of the lining is defined as follows:

E_c, E_s, E_D	=	Modulus of elasticity of concrete, steel and ductile cast iron
I	=	Moment of inertia
M, N, Q	=	Bending moment, axial force and shear force (for member forces, the directions indicated in the figure below are assumed to be positive)
η_l	=	Effective ratio of bending rigidity (EI)
ζ	=	Transfer ratio of bending moment
R_o, R_c, R_i	=	Outer radius, radius of centroid, and internal radius of the primary lining
h_1, h_2	=	Thickness (height) of the primary lining and the secondary lining
B	=	Width of segment

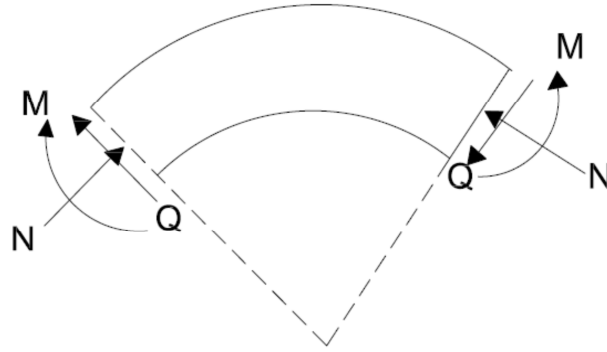


Figure 13.19: Bending Moment, Axial Force and Shear Force

ν	=	Angle at the point of calculation of member forces, etc. (angle measured clockwise from the tunnel crown is assumed to be positive)
$\gamma, \gamma', \gamma_w$	=	Bulk density of soil, submerged weight of soil and specific weight of water
H	=	Earth cover (overburden depth) measured from the tunnel crown
H_w	=	Height of groundwater table from the tunnel crown
P_o	=	Surcharge
W_1, W_2	=	Dead weight of the primary lining and the secondary lining (per unit length in longitudinal direction)
g_1, g_2	=	Dead weight of the primary lining and the secondary lining along the centroid of lining (per unit length in longitudinal direction)
p	=	Intensity of vertical load
q	=	Intensity of horizontal load
λ	=	Coefficient of lateral earth pressure

κ	=	Coefficient of soil reaction
δ	=	Deformation of lining (inward deformation assumed positive)
c	=	Cohesion of soils
ω	=	Internal angle of friction of soils
ν_A, ν_B, ν_K	=	Internal angles of A, B, and K segments

Figure 13.20 shows how the notation is used in the Total Stress and Effective Stress methods

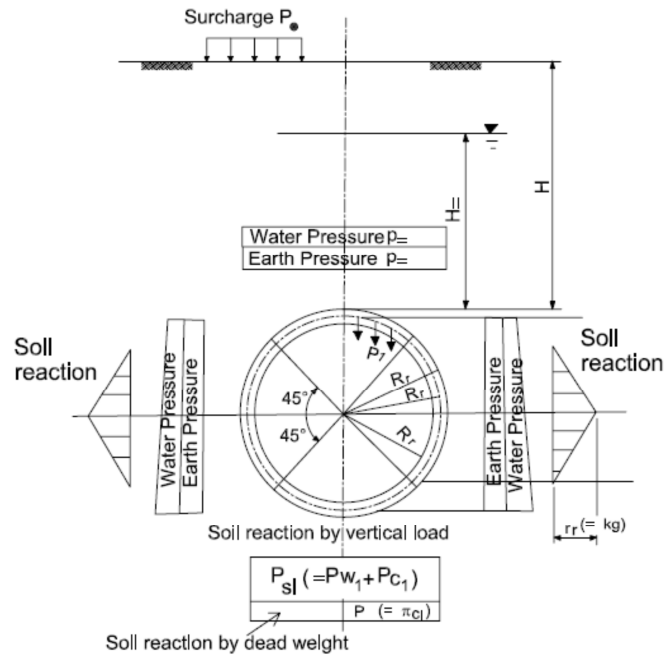


Figure 13.20: Example of notation in Total Stress and Effective Stress Methods (after JSCE, 2001)

13.9.8.3. Basis of Design

The lining design should be based on safety considerations, and should be in compliance with the purpose of tunnel usage and should be carried out by the allowable stress design method with the condition that adequate and proper construction is executed using good quality materials.

13.9.8.4. Design Loads

The following loads should be considered in designing the lining of the shield tunnel:

- Vertical and horizontal earth pressure
- Water pressure
- Dead Weight
- Effects of surcharge
- Soil reaction
- Internal Loads

- g) Construction Loads
- h) Effects of Earthquake
- i) Effects of two or more shield tunnels in construction
- j) Effects of concurrent construction works in the vicinity
- k) Effects of ground subsidence
- l) Other effects.

13.9.8.5. Classification of Loads

The loads should be classified as follows:

1. Primary Loads

Loads *a*) through *e*); should always be considered in designing the lining;

2. Secondary Loads

Loads *f*) through *h*); should be considered as acting during construction or after completion of the tunnel. They should be taken into account according to the objective, the conditions of construction and location of the tunnel.

3. Special Loads

Loads *i*) through *l*); are to be specifically considered according to the conditions of the ground and tunnel usage.

13.9.8.6. Vertical and Horizontal Earth Pressure

Depending on the ground conditions, groundwater pressure should be considered by using either the Effective Stress method or the Total Stress method;

- The vertical earth pressure should be the uniform load acting on the tunnel crown. Its magnitude should be determined considering the overburden, the cross section and the outer diameter of the tunnel, and ground conditions;
- The horizontal earth pressure should be the uniformly varying load acting on the centroid of the lining from the crown to the bottom of the tunnel. Its magnitude is the product of the vertical earth pressure and the coefficient of lateral earth pressure.

13.9.8.7. Applicability of Loosening Pressure

For cases where the depth of overburden (H) is greater than the tunnel diameter (D_o = outer diameter of the segmental ring), the loosening pressure can be used for the design vertical earth pressure because of the relevance of soil arching effect. The loosening pressure should be adopted in the following cases:

Sandy Soil	for $H > 1-2 D_o$
Cohesive Soil	for $H > 1-2 D_o$, and tunnel in stiff clay with $N > 8$

[Figure 13.21](#) summarizes the loosening pressure.

The loosening width for sections other than the circle can also be calculated from the expression of Terzaghi, if the loosening width (B_l) can be suitably evaluated. However, in such cases, the distribution of the load needs to be carefully decided as it may vary according to the configuration of the tunnel cross section. For such cases the

designer should refer to results of field measurements along with data on earth pressure and groundwater pressure, etc, in similar ground conditions.

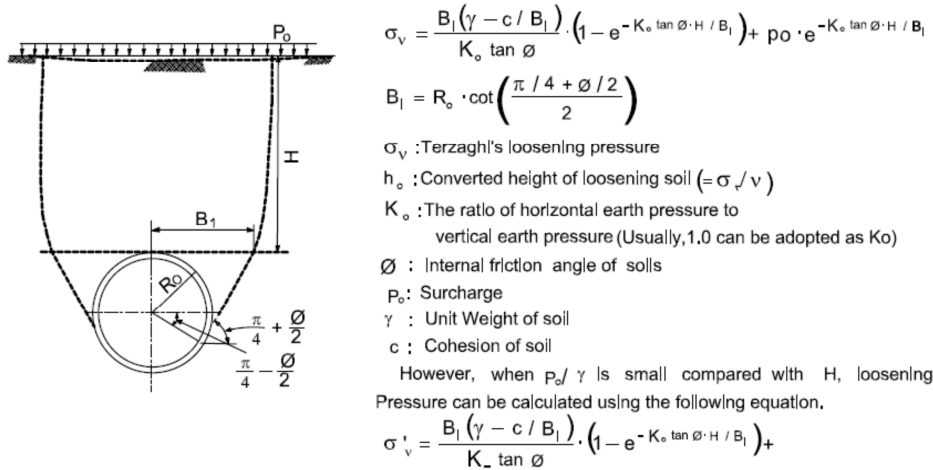


Figure 13.21: Loosening Pressure (after JSCE, 2001)

13.9.8.8. Water Pressure

Groundwater level should be determined along with possible change of groundwater level during and after construction. Vertical water pressure should be a uniformly distributed load, and its magnitude should be hydrostatic pressure acting on the highest point at the tunnel crown, and hydrostatic pressure acting on the lowest point at the tunnel bottom. Horizontal water pressure should be uniformly distributed load, and its magnitude should be hydrostatic pressure.

13.9.8.9. Dead Weight

Is a load in the vertical direction, distributed along the centroid of the lining. It should be calculated by the following equation:

$$g_1 = W_l / (2\pi \cdot R_c)$$

13.9.8.10. Surcharge

The effect of surcharge should be determined considering transmission of stress in the ground.

13.9.8.11. Soil Reaction

The extent of generation, shape of distribution, and the intensity of the soil reaction, should be determined in connection with the design calculation method being employed.

13.9.8.12. Construction Loads

Construction loads to be considered for the design of the lining should include:

- 1) The thrust force of shield jacks;
- 2) Pressure for backfill grouting;
- 3) Operation load of the erector;

- 4) Other loads, as appropriate.

13.9.8.13. Internal Loads

Internal load is a load which acts inside the lining after tunnel completion, and should be determined according to actual conditions.

13.9.8.14. Effects of Earthquake

When anticipated, studies should be made considering: importance of a tunnel; condition of tunnel location; condition of surrounding ground; earthquake motions experienced in the region concerned; structural details of the tunnel; and other necessary conditions.

Careful studies should be made in the following conditions:

- Where the lining structure changes suddenly, for example, at the underground tunnel connection, and at the connection with the shaft;
- When the tunnel is in soft ground
- Where ground conditions such as geology, overburden, and bedrock depth change suddenly
- When the alignment includes sharp curves
- When the tunnel is in loose, saturated sand and there is a possibility of liquefaction.

In general, a seismic studies of the shield tunnel are made considering the following:

1. Stability of the tunnel and surrounding ground; adequate studies on liquefaction of the surrounding soil should be conducted, and precautionary measures such as ground improvement, should be taken, if deemed necessary. [Figure 13.22](#) presents a flow chart for studying stability of surrounding ground in a seismic design.
2. Dynamic study of the tunnel in the transverse direction; should be done using the Response displacement method - gives the member forces and deformation of the tunnel by calculating the displacement of the ground at the tunnel position and applying the entire or one part of its displacement to the tunnel. [Figure 13.23](#) shows an example in which the surface subsoil is assumed subject to shear vibration and the displacement amplitude of its first vibration mode is obtained.

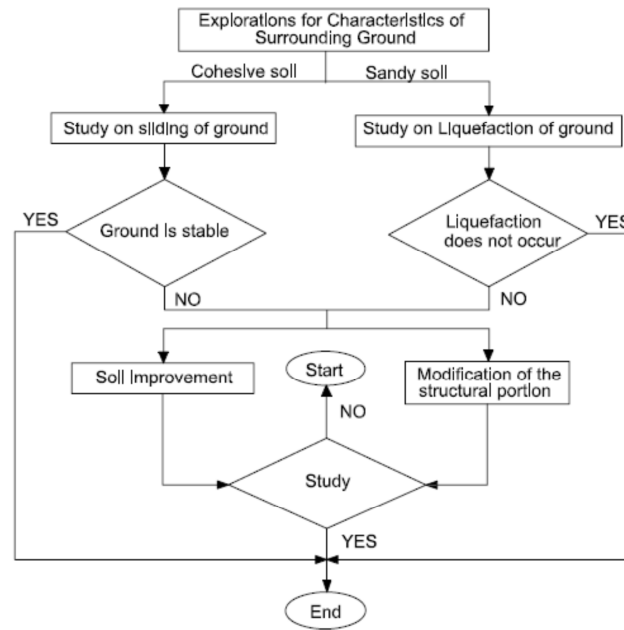


Figure 13.22: Study on Stability of Surrounding Ground in a seismic design (after JSCE, 2001)

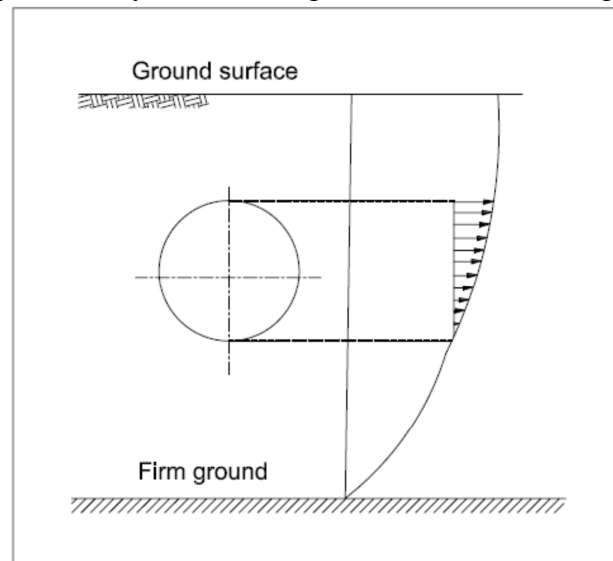


Figure 13.23: Transverse relative displacement in the Response-Displacement Method (after JSCE, 2001)

- Dynamic study of the tunnel in the longitudinal direction - The wave length is determined from consideration of ground characteristics at the tunnel position, the displacement amplitude of the ground vibration, which is assumed to be on a sin wave, is then calculated by the response-displacement method. Member forces and the deformation of the tunnel in the longitudinal direction are then calculated by applying the obtained ground displacement to the tunnel. A flow chart and an example for a seismic study by the response displacement method are shown in [Figure 13.24](#) and [Figure 13.25](#), respectively.

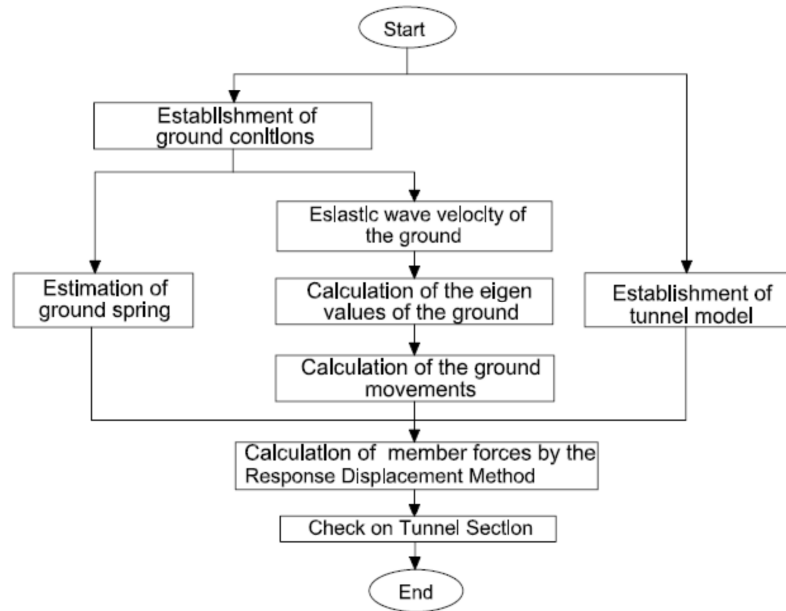


Figure 13.24: Flow Chart for the Response Displacement Method (after JSCE, 2001)

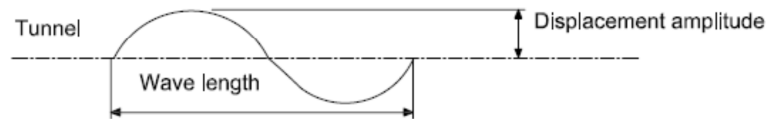


Figure 13.25: Longitudinal Ground Movements in the Response-Displacement Method (after JSCE, 2001)

13.9.8.15. Effects of Two or more Tunnels

When constructing a tunnel parallel to an existing one, the tunnel designer should consider the following:

1. Condition of surrounding ground - the degree to which the loosening of the ground will affect the load should be evaluated when a closed-face machine is used in soft ground with high sensitivity or sandy ground with low stability, in particular;
2. The position of the tunnels in relation to one another - will have an effect when clearance between tunnels is less than the outer diameter of the existing tunnel, either in the horizontal or vertical direction. When a succeeding tunnel is constructed below an existing one, there will be an increase in vertical load, caused by ground loosening and unequal settlement.
3. The outer diameter of each tunnel; When constructing two or more tunnels, design of the preceding tunnel should consider the effect of the outer diameter of both tunnels, along with the position of the preceding tunnel in relation to the succeeding shield tunnel;
4. Timing of construction of the new shield tunnel when constructing a succeeding tunnel while the effects of the preceding tunnel are still being felt, careful

consideration should be given to the timing of construction of both tunnels since the interaction of both tunnels, as described under 1), is significant;

5. The type of shield machine to be used at the time of construction - for a closed-face shield machine, the succeeding shield tunnel tends to push the preceding shield tunnel, contrary to when an open face type shield machine is used, when the succeeding shield tunnel tends to pull the preceding shield tunnel;
6. Construction loads of the new shield tunnel that affect the existing tunnel- thrust load, grouting pressure, slurry pressure and mud slurry pressure.

13.9.8.16. Effects of Vicinity Construction

The Design Engineer should evaluate any untoward effects resulting from anticipated construction in close proximity during or after shield tunneling.

13.9.8.17. Effects of Ground Settlement

The Tunnel Designer should study the effects of soil characteristics on ground settlement; as well as the effect of ground settlement on the tunnel and the joints between the tunnel and the shaft.

1. Effect of Ground Settlement on the Tunnel can be studied in two ways; by studying:
 - i. The effect of consolidation settlement on the tunnel in the transverse direction, and;
 - ii. The effect of unequal settlement on the tunnel in the longitudinal direction.
2. Joints between the Tunnel and shafts – Relative displacement tends to occur at the joints connecting a tunnel and the shaft because different types of structures are connected at these positions. The design should prevent stress concentrations by applying flexible joints, where necessary, or reducing the effect of unequal settlement by making the shaft foundation a floating foundation. It is also effective to set the inner diameter larger, so that the required cross section can be secured by minor repair work.

13.9.8.18. Other Loads

A prior examination should be made of the effects of other possible loads likely to apply to tunnel lining.

13.9.8.19. Structural Calculation of Segment

1. Basis of structural calculation should be as follows:

1. Structural calculation for tunnel should be made under loads in each stage during construction and also after construction.
2. The design load for the cross section of tunnel should be determined assuming the worst possible condition in the tunnel section which is subject to design;
3. When calculating statically indeterminate force or elastic deformation for concrete segments, such calculation should be made ignoring reinforcement and assuming that the whole cross section of concrete is effective.

The design of segments should be made with consideration given to loads that may work on the tunnel to be constructed for many years after completion as well as consideration of the following:

- Stability, member forces and deformation during the period from immediately after the erection of segments to the hardening of backfill material;
- Member forces of segments and their deformation due to thrust force by shield jacks;
- Member forces of segments and their deformation caused by grouting pressure;
- Sharp curve construction;
- The case of rapid change in the ground;
- The joints of the tunnels and shafts;
- Effect of load fluctuation, vicinity construction, and future construction.

2. Calculation of Member Forces

Member forces of segment should be calculated in consideration of properties of a structure. Since a suitable model to calculate member forces depends on given conditions, such as tunnel usage, ground conditions, design loads, structures of segments, and required accuracy of analyses, careful consideration should be given to selecting a model.

Schematic drawings of some structural models of segmental ring are shown in [Figure 13.26](#), and design load distributions proposed for these models are shown in [Figure 13.27](#).

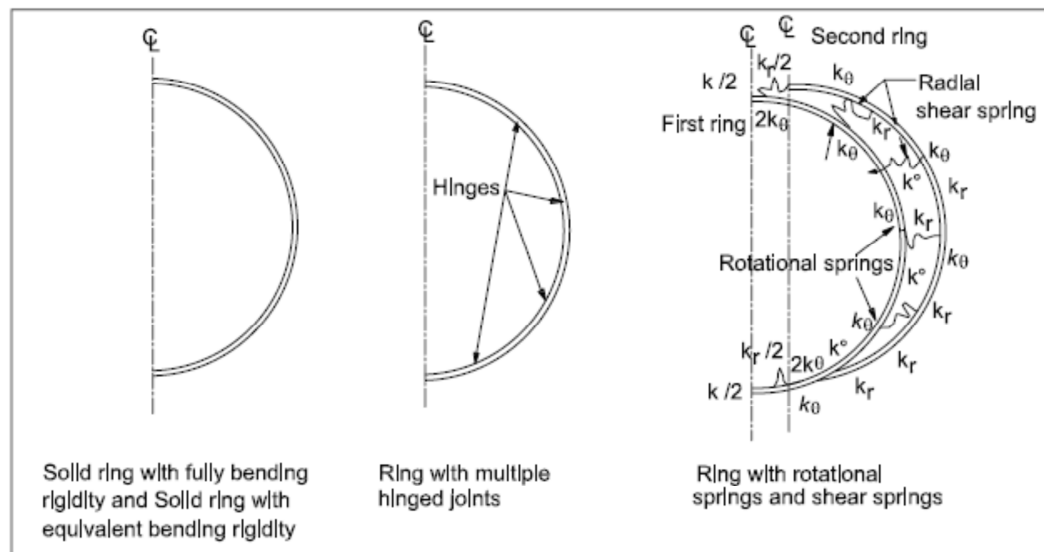


Figure 13.26: Schematic Drawings of Design Models (after JSCE, 2001)

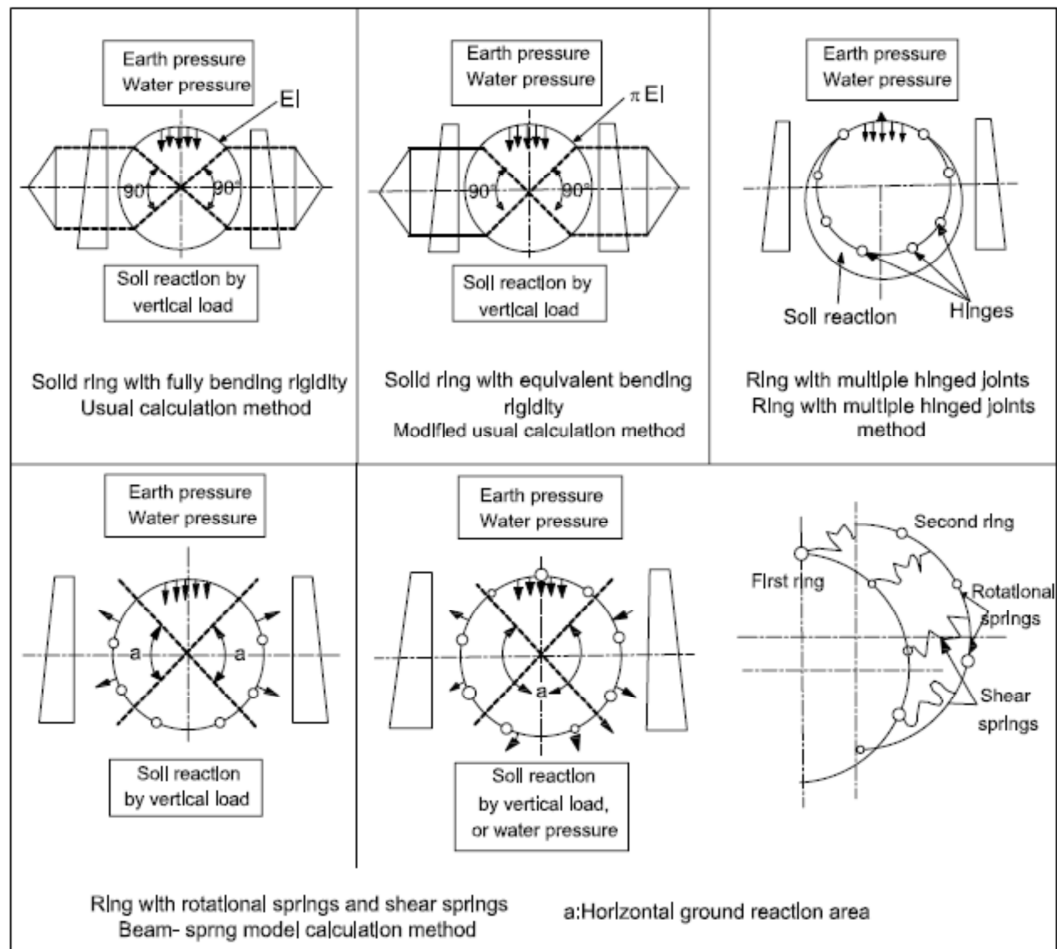


Figure 13.27: Design Load Distributions for above Models (after JSCE, 2001)

Equations of major sectional forces are in [Table 13.10](#).

Table 13.10: Equations of Member Forces for “Usual Calculation & Modified Usual” Calculation Methods (after JSCE, 2001)

LOAD	BENDING MOMENT	AXIAL FORCE	SHEAR FORCE
Vertical Load ($P_{et} + P_{wt}$)	$M = \frac{1}{4}(1 - 2\sin^2 \theta)P_{et} + P_{wt})R_c^2$	$N = (P_{et} + P_{wt})R_c^2 \sin^2 \theta$	$Q = (-P_{et} + P_{wt})R_c \sin \theta \cos \theta$
Horizontal Load ($q_{et} + q_{wt}$)	$M = \frac{1}{4}(1 - 2\cos^2 \theta)P_{et} + P_{wt})R_c^2$	$N = (P_{et} + P_{wt})R_c^2 \cos^2 \theta$	$Q = (-q_{et} + q_{wt})R_c \sin \theta \cos \theta$
Horizontal Triangular Load ($q_{ez} + q_{wz} - q_{et} - q_{wt}$)	$M = \frac{1}{48}(6 - 3\cos \theta - 12\cos^2 \theta + 4\cos^3 \theta)(q_{ez} + q_{wz} - q_{et} - q_{wt})R_c^2$	$N = \frac{1}{16}(\cos \theta + 8\cos^2 \theta - 4\cos^3 \theta)(q_{ez} + q_{wz} - q_{et} - q_{wt})R_c$	$N = \frac{1}{16}(\sin \theta + 8\sin \theta \cos \theta - \cos \theta - 4\sin \theta \cos^2 \theta)(q_{ez} + q_{wz} - q_{et} - q_{wt})R_c$
Soil reaction $q_r = k \cdot \delta$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{4}$ $M = (0.2346 - 0.3536 \cos \theta)k \delta R_c^2$ $\frac{\pi}{4} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ $M = (-0.3487 + 0.5 \sin^2 \theta + 0.2357 \cos^2 \theta)k \delta R_c^2$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{4}$ $N = 0.3536 \cos \theta k \delta R_c$ $\frac{\pi}{4} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{4}$ $Q = 0.3536 \sin \theta k \delta R_c$ $\frac{\pi}{4} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ $Q = (\sin \theta \cos \theta + \cos^2 \theta + 0.7071 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta)k \delta R_c$
Dead Load $P_{g1} = \pi \cdot g_1$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ $M = (\frac{3}{8}\pi - \theta \sin \theta - \frac{5}{6}\cos \theta)gR_c^2$ $\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \pi$ $M = (-\frac{1}{8}\pi + (x - \theta) \sin \theta - \frac{5}{6}\cos \theta - \frac{1}{2}\pi \sin^2 \theta)gR_c^2$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ $N = (\theta \sin \theta - \frac{1}{6}\cos \theta)gR_c$ $\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \pi$ $M = (-x \sin \theta + \theta \sin \theta + \pi \sin^2 \theta - \frac{1}{6}\cos \theta)gR_c$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ $Q = (\theta \cos \theta + \frac{1}{6}\cos \theta)gR_c$ $\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \pi$ $Q = ((\pi - \theta) \cos \theta - x \sin \theta \cos \theta - \frac{1}{6}\sin \theta)gR_c$
Horizontal Deformation of a Ring at Spring Line δ	Without considering soil reaction derived from dead weight of lining $\delta = \frac{\{2(P_{et} + P_{wt}) - (q_{et} + q_{wt}) - (q_{ez} + q_{wz})\} R_c^4}{24(\eta EI + 0.0454k \cdot R_c^4)}$ considering soil reaction derived from dead weight of lining $\delta = \frac{\{2(P_{et} + P_{wt}) - (q_{et} + q_{wt}) - (q_{ez} + q_{wz}) + \pi g\} R_c^4}{24(\eta EI + 0.0454k \cdot R_c^4)}$ However EI: Beading rigidity in unit width		

3. Effective Width of Skin Plate and Backboard

The effective width of skin plate and backboard should be based to suit the segment structure.

4. Stress of Main Section

The stress on the main section of the segment should be calculated using the maximum member force, assuming the beam element is straight.

5. Calculation of Segment Joint

The segment joint should be designed in accordance with the method used in calculating member forces of the segmental ring.

6. Calculation of Skin Plate/Backboard

With the Box-type Segment, the skin plate is that to which the periphery is supported with the main girders and the splice plates. For the Steel Segment, the term "Skin Plate" is used; for the Ribbed-type RC Segments, the term "Backboard" is used.

The skin plate/backboard should be designed as a structural member with uniform loading conditions. Due consideration should be given for material and structural characteristics of segments.

7. Calculation of Vertical Rib

The vertical rib should be designed against the thrust force of shield jacks as a short column with an eccentric axial force acting only towards the direction of the tunnel radius.

13.9.8.20. Design Detail for Segment

1. Joint Structure

Joint structure of segments should be designed in consideration of strength, reliability of assembly, workability and water-tightness.

2. Bolt Layout

Bolt layout should be designed in consideration of strength and rigidity of segmental ring, accuracy of manufacturing, erection of segment, and water-tightness.

3. Vertical Rib

Vertical ribs should be designed for box type segment in order to transmit thrust force of shield jacks to adjacent segmental ring.

4. Waterproofing

As a general rule, sealing groove and caulking groove should be provided on the joint surface in order to prevent water leakage.

5. Grouting Hole

Grouting holes of segment should be provided for uniform backfill grouting, as necessary.

6. Segment Hanger

Segment hanger should be provided for each segment piece.

7. Workability, Arrangement, and Fixing of Reinforcement

- i. Steel bar bending arrangement should be determined in consideration of reinforcement performance, bending, filling of concrete and placement of reinforcement.

The horizontal spacing between main reinforcements should be wider than the larger of: $5/4$ of the maximum size of coarse aggregates or the diameter of the reinforcement. The vertical clearance between main reinforcement, if arranged in two

layers or more, should be wider than the larger of: 0.8 in (20mm) or the diameter of the reinforcement.

In principle, reinforcement joints are not permitted for segments. In case joints are necessary, joints should be designed in accordance with specifications and diameter of reinforcement, proper type of joint and filling clearances between reinforcement with concrete. Main reinforcements, stirrups, distribution bars, erection bars and anchor bars are required for segment construction. Ensuring sufficient clearance is difficult, therefore, no steel bar joint should be provided in the segment.

- ii. End of reinforcement should be fixed in concrete with sufficient bonding, hooks or mechanical joint.
- iii. Concrete covers should be determined in consideration of concrete quality, diameter of reinforcement, accuracy of production of segment or the environment of tunnel.

8. Corrosion Protection and Rust Protection

Corrosion protection and rust protection measures should be provided for the segment, as necessary.

9. Other Design Detail

- Welding should be carried out accurately in accordance with the approved working method and procedure to achieve the specified quality.
- Air Hole - for removal of air during concrete placement of the secondary lining, should be provided on steel and ductile cast-iron segments;
- Reinforcement Plate - For steel segments, reinforcement plate should be provided to reinforce the splice plate and to increase rigidity of joint/assembly system, if necessary.

Secondary lining should be provided where steel segments and ductile cast iron segments are used as primary lining for shield tunnels. It is difficult to fill concrete in boxes surrounded with main girders and vertical ribs due to air voids when installing the secondary lining. Air holes should be provided to remove air at a corner of vertical ribs, as shown in the Figure.

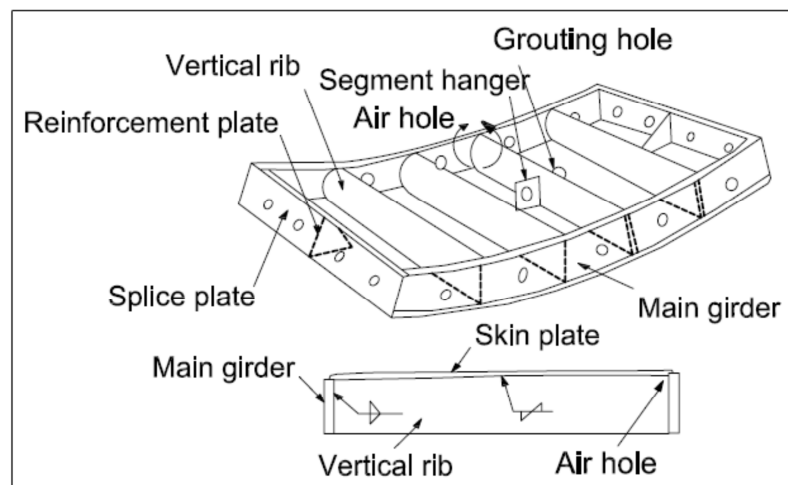


Figure 13.28: Air Hole of Steel Segment (JSCE, 2001)

13.9.9. Tunnel Jacking

13.9.9.1. Introduction

Tunnel jacking is used to construct large shallow underground openings beneath facilities that must be kept in service during construction. The method, which evolved from pipe jacking, is generally used in soft ground for relatively short lengths of tunnel, where TBM or cut-and-cover methods would be less desirable.

The technique of tunnel jacking is not new, but in recent years it has been used to construct openings primarily in Europe and Asia, often under railroad lines and highways.

Until recently, when it was used on the Central Artery /Tunnel project (CA/T) in Boston, the method has had limited use in the United States. However, its use on the CA/T project was the largest application of its kind in the world, resulting in several awards and accolades.

Ropkins (1999) and Taylor & Winsor (1999) are excellent references on design and construction of jacked tunnels.

13.9.9.2. Technique Selection

Selection of the Technique should consider the following:

- Required tunnel clearance envelope
- Requirement for services within the completed tunnel
- Driver sight lines
- Acceptable amount of disturbance to the overlying facility
- Ability to re-level or adjust the overlying facility periodically during construction
- Optimum depth from ground surface to the top of the tunnel
- Ground conditions both for stability at the tunnel face and for provision of the required jacking force to install the tunnels
- Maintenance provisions to the completed tunnel
- Details of any abutting structures or tunnels
- Architectural/aesthetic requirements
- Health and safety of construction staff.

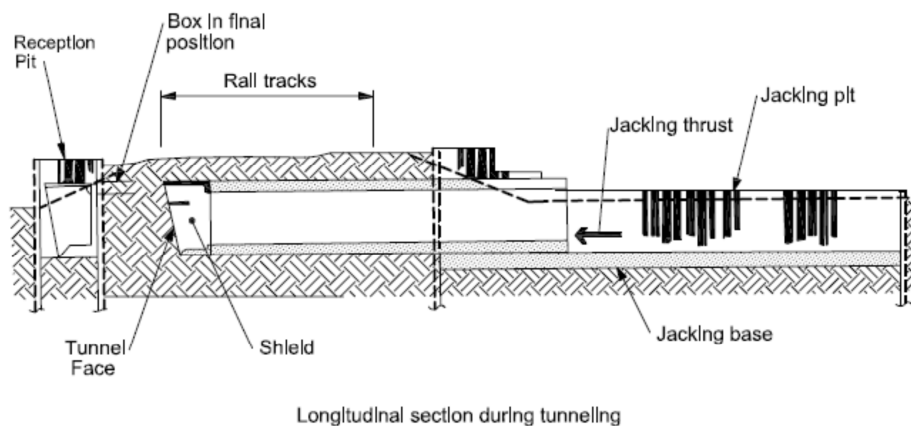


Figure 13.29: Basic Jacking Sequence (After Ropkins, 1999)

13.9.9.3. Basic Jacking Sequence

[Figure 13.29](#) illustrates the basic jacking sequence of jacked box tunneling, using a single piece site-cast box.

The box structure is constructed on a jacking base in a jacking pit located to one side of an existing railway. A tunneling shield is provided at the front end of the box and hydraulic jacks are provided at the rear. The box is tunneled into position under the railway tracks by excavating ground from within the shield and jacking the box forward.

In order to maintain support to the tunnel face, excavation and jacking are normally carried out alternately in small increments of advance.

13.9.9.4. Design

1. Ground Drag

Design should include provisions for controlling down drag. An excellent solution for the longer boxes is the Anti-drag System (ADS), discussed by [Ropkins \(1999\)](#), which effectively separates the external surface of the box from the adjacent ground during tunneling.

The ADS is an array of closely-spaced wire ropes which are initially stored within the box with one end of each rope anchored at the jacking pit. As the box advances, the ropes are progressively drawn out through guide holes in the shield and form a stationary separation layer between the moving box and the adjacent ground. The drag forces are absorbed by the ADS and transferred back to the jacking pit. In this manner the ground is isolated from drag forces and remains largely undisturbed.

2. Vertical Alignment

Design should also include provisions for controlling vertical alignment. A long box has directional stability by virtue of its large length to depth ratio. The box is guided during the early stages of installation by its self weight acting on the jacking base. Beyond the jacking base, the bottom ADS 'tracks' maintain the box on a correct vertical alignment. As the pressure on the ground under the 'tracks' is normally less than or similar to the pre-existing pressure in the ground and as localized disturbance of the ground is eliminated, no settlement of the tracks can occur. Any tendency for the box to dive is thereby prevented.

In the case of a short box or series of short boxes, it is necessary to steer each box by varying the elevation of the jacking thrust. This is done by arranging groups of jacks at each jacking station at different elevations within the height of the box and by selectively isolating individual groups. The jacking process is complicated by the need to check, at each stage of the operation, the alignment of all box units and if necessary to employ a suitable steering response at all jacking stations.

3. Horizontal Alignment

Design should also include provisions for controlling horizontal alignment. As discussed previously under vertical alignment, a long box has a degree of directional stability by virtue of its length to width ratio, and is normally guided during the early stages of installation by fixed guides located on the jacking base along both sides of the box. Where appropriate, steerage may also be used and is normally provided by selectively isolating one or more groups of thrust jacks located across the rear of the box.

In the case of a short box or series of short boxes, fixed side guides are also appropriate but more reliance has to be placed on steerage.

4. Face Loss

Design should also include provisions for controlling face loss which occurs when the ground ahead of the shield moves towards the tunnel as a result of reduction in lateral pressure in the ground at the tunnel face. With face loss, as the tunnel advances, a greater volume of ground are excavated than that represented by the theoretical volume displaced by the tunnel advance.

In cohesive ground, face loss is controlled by supporting the face at all times by means of a specifically-designed tunneling shield and by careful control of both face excavation and box advance. The shield is normally divided into cells by internal walls and shelves which are pushed firmly into the face. Typically 150mm of soil is trimmed from the face following which the box is jacked forward 150mm. This sequence is repeated until the tunneling operation is complete, thus maintaining the necessary support to the face.

The ground may need to be stabilized in advance of the tunneling operation, where the ground is weak or where there is high water table or artesian pressure. Techniques for stabilizing ground include: grouting, well point dewatering, and freezing.

The Tunnel Designer should ensure that ground treatment measures do not in themselves cause an unacceptable degree of ground disturbance and surface movement.

5. Overcut

Design should also include provisions for controlling overcut in soft ground, by ensuring that the shield perimeter is kept buried and cuts the ground to the required profile. However, a degree of over-cut at the roof and sides beyond the nominal dimensions of the box is required for two reasons:

1. The hole through which the box travels must be large enough to accommodate irregularities in the external surfaces of the box;
2. It is desirable to reduce contact pressures between the ground and the box, to reduce drag.

The amount of over-cut required should be minimized if unnecessary ground disturbance and surface settlement is to be avoided. This demands that the external surfaces of the box be formed as accurately as possible.

Typical forming tolerances are: ± 10 mm at the bottom and ± 15 mm at the walls and roof.

6. Tunneling Operation

The jacked box tunneling operation must be carefully monitored and controlled to ensure proper performance and safety. Throughout the tunneling operation, movements at the ground surface over the area affected by the tunneling operation, jacking forces and box alignments are all regularly monitored and compared to predicted or specified values.

The jacking operation can be adjusted based on the monitoring data.

7. Box Jacking & ADS Loads

a. Interface Drag Loads

Soil/box contact pressures are calculated and multiplied by appropriate friction factors, and are used to estimate drag loads at frictional interfaces; an appropriate adhesion value is used at the interface between the box and cohesive ground.

b. Jacking Load

The ultimate bearing pressures on the face supports and on the shield perimeter are used to calculate the jacking load required to advance the shield.

c. ADS Loads

Simplifying assumptions are made in developing ADS loads and modeling box/ADS/soil interaction, the validity of which is done by back analyses of loads and other historical data.

d. Jacking Thrust

Jacking thrust is provided by means of specially built high capacity hydraulic jacking equipment. Jacks of 4,448 kN or more can be utilized on large tunnels. Sufficient capacity is provided, via multiple jacks, to allow for steerage control and for possible inaccuracies in the assessment of jacking loads.

Reaction to the jacking thrust developed is provided by either a jacking base or a thrust wall, depending on the site topography and the relative elevation of the tunnel. These temporary structures must in turn transmit the thrust into a stable mass of adjacent ground.

A jacking base is normally stabilized by shear interaction with the ground below and on each side. Where the interface is frictional, the interaction may be enhanced by surcharging the jacking base by means of pre-stressed ground anchors or compacted tunnel spoil. The jacking base is also stabilized by both the top and bottom ADS which are anchored to it.

A thrust wall is normally stabilized by passive ground pressure. In developing this reaction, the wall may move into the soil and this movement must be taken into account when designing the jacking system. When a thrust wall is used in a vertical sided jacking pit, care is required to ensure that movement of the thrust wall under load does not cause any lack of stability elsewhere in the pit.

13.10. ROCK TUNNELS

13.10.1. General

Uncertainties persist in the properties of rock materials and in the way rock materials and groundwater behave; these uncertainties must be overcome by employing sound flexible design and redundancies, including selection or anticipation of construction methods. Design must be a careful and deliberate process that incorporates knowledge.

From many disciplines; few engineers know enough about design, construction, operations, environmental concerns, and commercial contracting practices, to make all important decisions alone.

13.10.2. Rock Discontinuities

Two major types should be considered:

- Fractures, which result from cooling of magma, tectonic action, formation of synclines and anticlines, or other geologic stresses;
- Bedding Planes are relatively thin layers of weaker material that create a definite discontinuity, interspersed between layers of more competent sedimentary material.

Faults are any fracture showing relative displacement, and are the result of seismic activity at great depth. The Tunnel Engineer should consider individually, those faults showing major displacement activity, and provide necessary stabilization on each side of the fault. In particular, movements may have juxtaposed a dry and tight formation against a heavily water-bearing formation, with resulting inflow that may destroy the heading, if not anticipated.

Joints are fractures along which there is no evident displacement. The tunnel Engineer should consider continuous and discontinuous joints; joint shape (particularly planar joints); joint roughness (smooth, interlocked, or slickenside); joint alteration; and bedding planes.

13.10.3. Rock Movement

The Tunnel Engineer, in designing the principal structural element (the rock arch or rock shell) should, in most cases, assume that elastic movements are insignificant; design should consist of evaluating the erratic movements of joints and blocks and how they can be controlled.

Two types of movement should be considered

- Frictional, with high resistance, where friction is supplied by the shape and surface of the joint, and the amount of jointing;
- Sliding, where intrusive material separates rock fragments, or the rock itself has been altered to lower resistance (as in healed [no joint], unaltered [clean/sharp], and altered [non-softening coatings to softening degradations]).

In evaluating the rock mass, the Tunnel Engineer should also consider: the presence of water; in-situ conditions; and special zones of weakness. Free water in discontinuities acts as a lubricant and is a significant tunneling deterrent.

13.10.4. Rock Reinforcement

Two types of reinforcement should be considered:

- Rock Bolts (including rock dowels and cable tendons); bolts are pretensioned, and dowels are initially unstressed. Bolts should be used in special situations, such as very narrow pillars where the additional confinement provided by the pretension force is considered necessary. Use of tendons should be limited to long distances between anchorage and excavated surface; for example, an insufficient thickness of sound rock overlain by a substantial thickness of incompetent rock can be supported by anchoring it to a second, overlying layer of competent rock. Both permanent bolts and economical alternatives (friction bolts) should be considered.
- Shotcrete; functions as rock reinforcement by forcing its way into spaces between intact rock pieces when applied to rock at high pressures; it prevents raveling, thereby eliminating the nil confining pressure at the surface and constraining movement within the mass. Its rapid strength gain permits it to

function quickly as a membrane, thereafter gaining strength as the newly confined rock struggles to obtain a new equilibrium condition.

13.10.5. Design of Initial Support

Initial ground support is installed shortly after excavation, to make the underground opening safe until permanent support is installed. Initial ground support may also function as the / a part of the permanent ground support system. The initial ground support system must be selected in view of its temporary and permanent functions.

The Tunnel Engineer should use one of the following methodologies to select initial ground support:

13.10.5.1. Empirical Rules

Constructed from experience records of past satisfactory performance. If these empirical systems are used, it will be necessary to examine the available rock mass information to determine if there are any applicable failure modes not addressed by the empirical systems. Empirical systems include the following:

1. Terzaghi's Rock Loads & ROD [1964]

In general, Terzaghi's rock loads should not be used with methods of excavation and support that minimize rock mass disturbance and loosening, such as excavation on TBM and immediate ground support using shotcrete and dowels.

2. Wickman et al.'s RSR [1972]

The RSR database consists of 190 tunnel cross sections, of which only three were shotcrete-supported, and fourteen were rock bolt-supported. Therefore, the RSR should be used in rock load recommendations for steel ribs.

3. Bieniawski's Geomechanics Classification RMR [1979]

The RMR system is based on a set of case histories of relatively large tunnels excavated using blasting. Ground support components include rock bolts (dowels), shotcrete, wire mesh, and for the two poorest classes, steel ribs. The system should be used for such conditions; it should not be used for TBM-driven tunnels, where rock damage is less, and where immediate shotcrete application may not be feasible.

4. Barton et al.'s O-System [1974]

this system is derived from a database of underground openings excavated by blasting and supported by rock bolts (tensioned and untensioned), shotcrete, wire and chain link mesh, and cast-in-place concrete arches. Increase the Q-value by a factor of 5.0 for TBM -driven tunnels.

13.10.5.2. Theoretical & Semi-Theoretical Methods

1. Rock Bolt Analyses

When directions of discontinuities are known, wedge analyses should be used for rock bolt analysis, whereby the stability of a wedge is analyzed using two or three-dimensional equilibrium equations. Wedge analysis (see example in [Figure 13.30](#)) will show which wedges are potentially unstable, and will indicate the appropriate orientation of bolts or dowels for their support. [Table 13.11](#) summarizes empirical rules for rock bolt design (after Lang, 1961).

2. Shotcrete Analyses

Shotcrete is used to create a semi-stiff immediate lining on the excavated rock surface. By its capacity to accept shear and bending and its bond to the rock surface, shotcrete prevents displacement of blocks of rock that can potentially fall; it can also act as a shell and accept radial loads. It is possible to analyze all of these modes of failure only if the loads and boundary conditions are known. It should be noted that neither the "Falling Block Theory" (whereby the weight of a wedge of rock is assumed to load the skin of shotcrete, which can then fail by shear, diagonal tension, bonding loss, or bending [Figure 13.31]) nor the "Arch Theory" (where an external load is assumed, and the shotcrete shell is analyzed as an arch, with bending and compression), provides anything but a crude approximation of stresses in the shotcrete. When shotcrete is used in NATM, computer analyses can be used to reproduce the construction sequence, including the effects of variations of shotcrete modulus and strength with time. Thus, one can estimate load buildup in the shotcrete lining as the ground yields to additional excavation and as more layers of shotcrete are applied.

13.10.5.3. Fundamental Approach – Design Of Steel Ribs & Lattice Girders

1. Use of Steel Ribs & Lattice Girders

Use steel sets as ground support near tunnel portals and at intersections, for TBM starter tunnels, in poor ground in blasted tunnels, and in TBM tunnels in poor ground when a reaction platform for propulsion is required. Traditional blocking consists of timber blocks and wedges, tightly installed between the sets and the rock, with an attempt to prestress the set. Recently, concrete or steel blocking is often specified. Shotcrete is also used, and when well placed, it fills the space between the steel rib and the rock, and is superior to other methods of blocking by providing for uniform interaction between the ground and support.

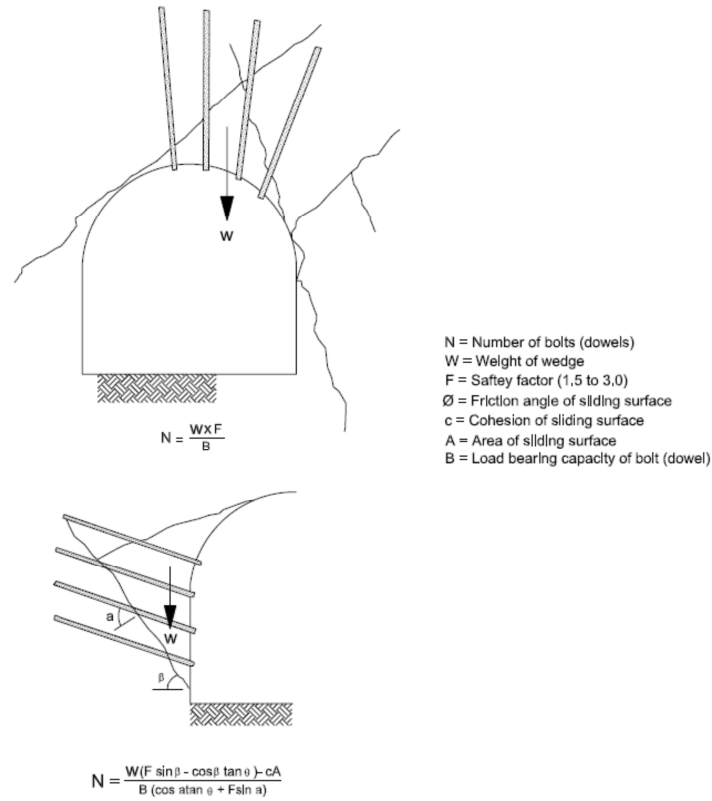


Figure 13.30: Gravity Wedge Analyses to Determine Anchor Loads & Orientations

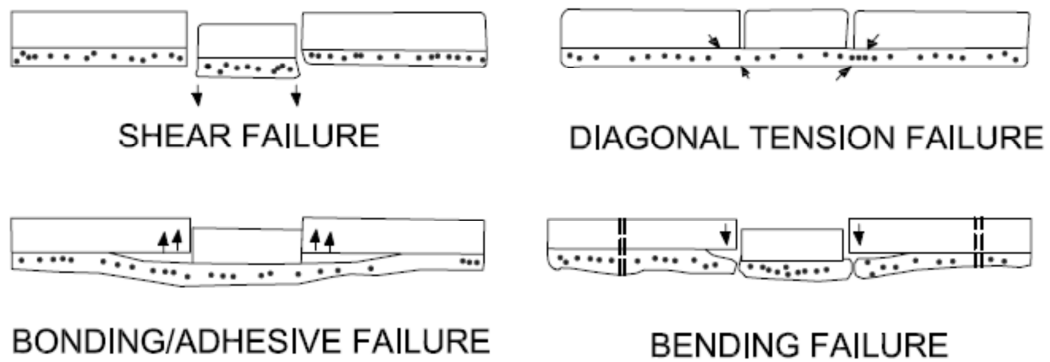


Figure 13.31: Shotcrete Failure Modes

Table 13.11: Empirical Design Recommendations (After Lang, 1961)

Parameter	Empirical Rule
Minimum length and maximum spacing	
Minimum length	Greatest of:
(a)	2×bolt spacing
(b)	3×thickness
(c)	(Note1): For elements above the spring line: Spans<6m:0.5×span Span between 18 and 30m:0.25span
(d)	For elements below the spring line: Height <18m: as (c) above Height >18m:0.2×height
Maximum Spacing	Least of:
(a)	0.5×bolt length
(b)	1.5× width of critical and potential unstable rock blocks (Note1)
(c)	2.0m (Note 2)
Minimum Spacing	0.9 to 1.2 m
Minimum average confining pressure at yield point of elements (Note 3)	Greatest of:
(a)	Above springline: either pressure = vertical rock load of $0.2 \times \text{opening width}$ or 40 kn/m^2
(b)	below springline: either pressure = vertical rock load of $0.1 \times \text{opening height}$ or 40 kn/m^2
(c)	At intersections: 2×confining pressure determined above (Note 4)

Notes:

1. Where joint spacing is closed and span relatively large, the superposition of two reinforcement patterns may be appropriate (e.g. long heavy elements on wide centers to support the spane, and shorter, lighter bolts on closer centers to stabilize the surface against ravelling).
2. Greater spacing than 2.0 m makes attachment of surface support elements(e.g. weldmesh or chain-link mesh) difficult.
3. assuming the elements behave in a ductile mannar.

4. this reinforcement should be installed from the first opening excavated prior to forming the intersection. Stress concentrations are generally higher at intersection, and rock blocks are free to move toward both openings.

Lattice girders offer similar moment capacity at a lower weight than comparable steel ribs. They are easier to handle and erect, and their open lattice permits shotcrete to be placed with little or no voids in the shadows behind the steel structure, thus forming a composite structure. They can be used together with dowels, spiling, and wire mesh, and as the final lining.

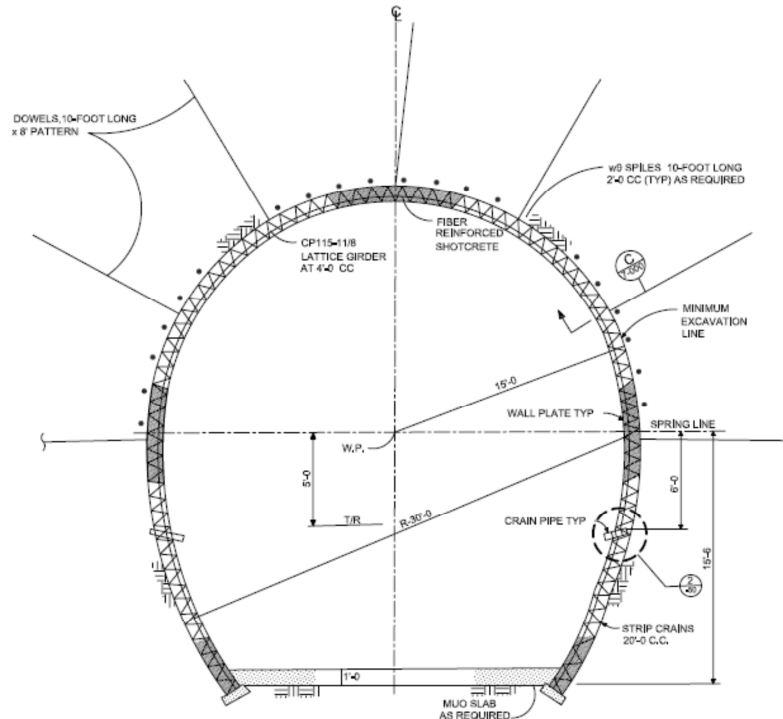


Figure 13.32: Lattice Girders used as final support, with steel-reinforced shotcrete, dowels & spiles

a. Design of Blocked Ribs

The Tunnel Engineer is referred to **Proctor & White (1946)** for details of design (and design charts) of steel ribs installed with blocking, and to the available commercial literature for the design of connections and other details.

b. Lattice Girders with Continuous Blocking

The theory for blocked arches works adequately for curved structural elements if the blocking is able to deform in response to applied loads, provided the arch transmits a thrust and moment to the end points of the arch. With continuous blocking by shotcrete, however, the blocking does not yield significantly once it has set, and load distribution is a function of excavation and installation sequences.

Moments in the composite structure should be estimated using one of the methods discussed in Section g) Design of Permanent, Final Lining.

Use finite element or finite difference methods to estimate moments for sequential excavation and support, where the ground support for a tunnel is constructed in stages.

These analyses only yield approximate results, but are useful to study variations in construction sequences, locations of maximum moments and thrusts, and effects of variations of material properties and in-situ stress.

The analysis should incorporate at least the following features:

1. Unloading of the rock due to excavation
2. Application of ground support
 - First shotcrete application
 - Lattice girder installation
 - Subsequent shotcrete application
 - Other ground support (dowels, etc), as applicable
3. Increase in shotcrete modulus with time as it cures
4. Repeat for all partial face excavation sequences until lining closure is achieved.

Stresses in composite lattice girder and shotcrete linings can be analyzed in a manner similar to reinforced concrete subject to thrust and bending (see Article [13.10.7](#), “Design of Permanent, Final Linings”). [Figure 13.33](#) shows an approximation of the typical application of lattice girders and shotcrete. The moment capacity analysis should be performed using the applicable shotcrete strength at the time considered in the analysis.

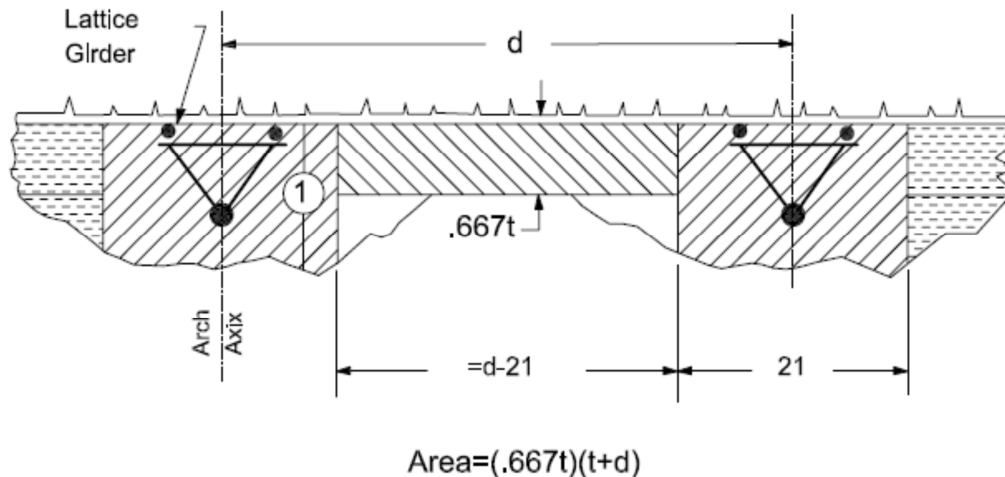


Figure 13.33: Estimation of Cross Section for Shotcrete-encased lattice Girders

13.10.6. Geomechanical Analysis

Understanding rock mass response to tunnel and shaft construction is necessary for assessing opening stability and opening support requirements. Several approaches of varying complexity have been developed to help the designer understand rock mass response. The methods cannot consider all aspects of rock behavior, but are useful in quantifying rock response and providing guidance in support design.

13.10.6.1. General Concepts

1. Stress/strain relationships.

a. Elastic parameters.

Elasticity is the simplest and most frequently applied theory relating stress and strain in a material. An elastic material is one in which all strain is instantaneously and

totally recoverable on the removal of the stress. The theory of elasticity idealizes a material as a linear elastic, isotropic, homogeneous material.

The stress/strain relationship for rock can sometimes be idealized in terms of a linear elastic isotropic material. In three dimensions, for an isotropic homogeneous elastic material subject to a normal stress σ_x in the x direction, the strains in the x, y, and z directions are:

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_x &= \sigma_x / E \\ \epsilon_y = \epsilon_z &= -\nu \cdot \sigma_x / E\end{aligned}$$

where

σ_x = applied stress in x-direction.

ν = Poisson's Ratio.

E = modulus of elasticity.

Since the principle of superposition applies, the stress/strain relationships in three dimensions are:

$$\epsilon_x = (\sigma_x - \nu (\sigma_y + \sigma_z)) / E$$

$$\epsilon_y = (\sigma_y - \nu (\sigma_z + \sigma_x)) / E$$

$$\epsilon_z = (\sigma_z - \nu (\sigma_y + \sigma_x)) / E$$

For a competent rock that is not linear elastic, the stress/strain relationship can be generalized in the form of a curve with an increasing slope at low stress levels (related to closing of micro-cracks), an approximately linear zone of maximum slope over its mid-portion, and a curve of decreasing slope at stress levels approaching failure. In order to apply elastic theory to such rocks, it is necessary to define an approximate modulus of elasticity. The different methods available for defining this modulus of elasticity are as follows:

- Tangent modulus (E_T) to a particular point on the curve, i.e., at a stress level that is some fixed percentage (usually 50 percent) of the maximum strength.
- Average slope of the more-or-less straight line portion of the stress/strain curve.
- Secant modulus (E_s) usually from zero to some fixed percentage of maximum strength.

Since the value of Poisson's Ratio is greatly affected by non-linearities in the axial and lateral stress-strain curves at low stress levels, ASTM suggests that the Poisson's Ratio is calculated from the equation:

$$\nu = \text{slope of axial curve} / \text{slope of lateral curve}$$

For most rocks, Poisson's Ratio lies between 0.15 and 0.30. Generally, unless other information is available, Poisson's Ratio can be assumed as 0.25. The modulus of elasticity varies over a wide range. For crude estimating purposes, the modulus of elasticity is about 350 times the uniaxial compressive strength of a rock (Judd and Huber 1961).

Establishing values for elastic parameters that apply in the field takes judgment and should be made on a case-by-case basis. For a strong but highly jointed rock mass, a reduction in the value of E from the laboratory values of an order of magnitude may be in order. On the other hand, when testing very weak rocks (uniaxial compressive strength less than 3.5 MPa, sample disturbance caused by the removal of the rock sample from the ground may introduce defects that result in reduced values for the laboratory-determined modulus. For critical projects it is advisable to use field tests to determine the in situ deformability of rock.

b. Non-elastic parameters

Many rocks can be characterized as elastic without materially compromising the analysis of their performance. Where the stresses are sufficiently large that a failure zone develops around the tunnel, elastoplastic analyses are available for analyzing the stresses and strains. However, for some rocks such as potash, halite, and shales, time-dependent or creep movements may be significant and must be taken into account when predicting performance. Chabannes (1982) has established the time-dependent closure based on a steady-state creep law. Lo and Yuen (1981) have used rheological models to develop a design methodology for liner design that has been applied to shales. Time-dependent relationships are difficult to characterize because of the difficulty selecting rock strength parameters that accurately model the rock mass.

c. Rock strength

Rock material is generally strong in compression where shear failure can occur and weak in tension. Failure can take the form of fracture, in which the material disintegrates at a certain stress, or deformation beyond some specific strain level. Rocks exhibit a brittle-type behavior when unconfined, but become more plastic as the level of confinement increases. Conditions in the field are primarily compressive and vary from unconfined near the tunnel walls to confined some distance from the tunnel. The strength of a rock is affected not only by factors that relate to its physical and chemical composition such as its mineralogy, porosity, cementation, degree of alteration or weathering, and water content, but also by the method of testing, including such factors as sample size, geometry, test procedure, and loading rate.

d. Uniaxial compressive strength

The uniaxial or unconfined compressive strength is the geotechnical parameter most often quoted to characterize the mechanical behavior of rock. It can be misleading since field performance often depends on more than just the strength of an intact sample, and this value is subject to a number of test-related factors that can significantly affect its value. These factors include specimen size and shape, moisture content, and other factors. Uniaxial compressive strength usually should not be considered a failure criterion but rather an index that gives guidance on strength characteristics. It is most useful as a means for comparing rocks and classifying their likely behavior.

The compressive strength of a rock material is size dependent, with strength increasing as specimen size decreases. It is useful to adjust the compressive strength

values to take into account the size effect. An approximate relationship between uniaxial compressive strength and specimen diameter that allows comparison between samples is as follows:

$$\sigma_c = \sigma_{c50} (50/d)^{0.18}$$

where

σ_c = compressive strength for a 50-mm diam sample

d = sample diameter (Hock and Brown 1980)

The compressive strength of a rock material often decreases when the rock is immersed in water. The reduced stresses may be due to dissolution of the cementation binding the rock matrix or to the development of water pressures in the interconnected pore space.

e. Tensile strength

For underground stability, the tensile strength is not as significant a parameter as the compressive strength for rocks. Generally, tensile rock strength is low enough that when rock is in tension, it splits and the tensile stresses are relieved. As a rule of thumb, the tensile strength of rock material is often taken as one-tenth to one-twelfth of the uniaxial compressive strength of the intact rock. In jointed rocks, the jointing may very well eliminate the tensile strength of the rock mass, in which case the in situ rock should be considered as having zero tensile strength. Values of tensile strength and other geotechnical parameters of some intact rocks are given in [Table 13.12](#).

f. Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion

The Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion is most often applied to rock in the triaxial stress state. This criterion is based on (1) rock failure occurring once the shear stress on any plane reaches the shear strength of the material, (2) the shear strength along any plane being a function of the normal stress G_n on that plane, and (3) the shear strength being independent of the intermediate principal stress. The general form of the normal stress versus shear stress plot is shown in [Figure 13.34](#). As an approximation over limited ranges of normal stress, the shear stress is defined as a linear relationship of the normal stress as follows:

$$\tau = c + \sigma_n \times \tan \Phi$$

where

τ = shear strength

σ_n = applied normal stress

c = cohesion of the rock

Φ = angle of internal friction

Table 13.12: Geotechnical Parameters of Some Intact Rocks (after Lama and Vutukuri 1978)

Rock Type	Location	Mg/m	Modulus, GPa	Strength, MPa	MPa
Amphibolite	California	2.94	92.4	278	22.8
Andesite	Nevada	2.37	37.0	103	7.2
Basalt	Michigan	2.70	41.0	120	14.6
Basalt	Colorado	2.62	32.4	58	3.2
Basalt	Nevada	2.83	33.9	148	18.1
Conglomerate	Utah	2.54	14.1	88	3.0
Diabase	New York	2.94	95.8	321	55.1
Diorite	Arizona	2.71	46.9	119	8.2
Dolomite	Illinois	2.58	51.0	90	3.0
Gabbro	New York	3.03	55.3	186	13.8
Gneiss	Idaho	2.79	53.6	162	6.9
Gneiss	New Jersey	2.71	55.2	223	15.5
Granite	Georgia	2.64	39.0	193	2.8
Granite	Maryland	2.65	25.4	251	20.7
Granite	Colorado	2.64	70.6	226	11.9
Graywacke	Alaska	2.77	68.4	221	5.5
Gypsum	Canada	-	-	22	2.4
Limestone	Germany	2.62	63.8	64	4.0
Limestone	Indiana	2.30	27.0	53	4.1
Marble	New York	2.72	54.0	127	11.7
Marble	Tennessee	2.70	48.3	106	6.5
Phyllite	Michigan	3.24	76.5	126	22.8
Quartzite	Minnesota	2.75	84.8	629	23.4
Quartzite	Utah	2.55	22.1	148	3.5
salt	Canada	2.20	4.6	36	2.5
Sandstone	Alaska	2.89	10.5	39	5.2
Sandstone	Utah	2.20	21.4	107	11.0
Schist	Colorado	2.47	9.0	15	
Schist	Alaska	2.89	39.3	130	5.5
Shale	Utah	2.81	58.2	216	17.2
Shale	Pennsylvania	2.72	31.2	101	1.4
Siltstone	Pennsylvania	2.76	30.6	113	2.8
Slate	Michigan	2.93	75.9	180	25.5
Tuff	Nevada	2.39	3.7	11	1.2
Tuff	Japan	1.91	76.0	36	4.3

Generally, the shear strength in the laboratory is determined from testing intact rock samples in compression. The value obtained in this way does not take into account the joints and other discontinuities that materially influence the strength behavior of the rock mass.

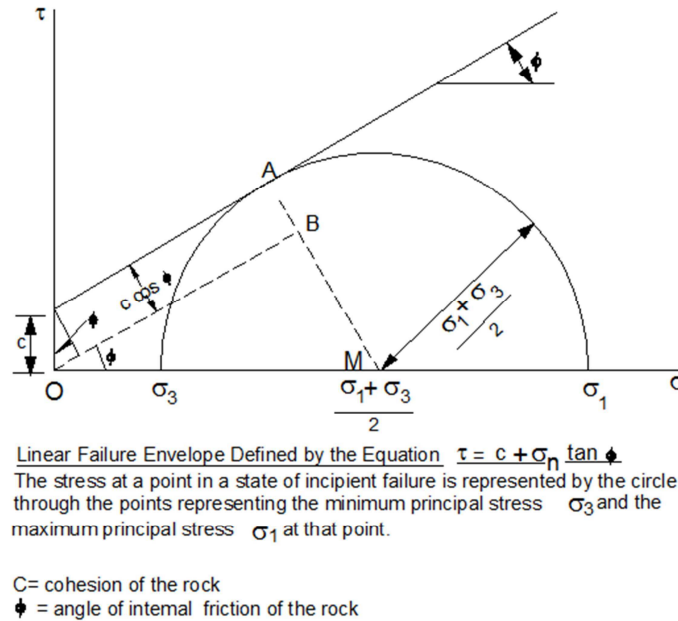


Figure 13.34: Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion

g. Hock-Brown failure criterion

To overcome the difficulties in applying the Mohr-Coulomb theory to rocks, i.e., the nonlinearity of the actual failure envelope and the influence of discontinuities in the rock mass, **Hock and Brown (1980)** developed an empirical failure criterion. The Hock-Brown failure criterion is based on a combination of field, laboratory, and theoretical considerations, as well as experience. It sets out to describe the response of an intact sample to the full range of stress conditions likely to be encountered. These conditions range from uniaxial tensile stress to triaxial compressive stress. It provides the capability to include the influence of several sets of discontinuities. This behavior may be highly anisotropic.

The Hock-Brown failure criterion is as follows:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 + \sqrt{(m \sigma_c \sigma_3 + s \sigma_c^2)}$$

where

σ_1 = major principal stress at failure

σ_3 = minor principal stress at failure

σ_c = uniaxial compressive strength of the intact rock material (given by $\sigma_3 = 0$ and $s = 1$)

m and s are constants that depend on the properties of the rock and the extent to which it has been broken before being subjected to the stresses σ_3 and σ_1 .

In terms of shear and normal stresses, this relationship can be expressed as:

$$\tau = (\sigma \times \sigma_3) \sqrt{(1 \times m \sigma_c / 4 \tau_m)}$$

where:

$$\tau_m = 0.5 (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$$

Hock and Brown (1988) have developed estimates for the strengths of rock masses based on experience with numerous projects. The estimates that cover a wide range of rock mass conditions are given in [Table 13.13](#).

2. In situ stress conditions

The virgin or undisturbed in situ stresses are the natural stresses that exist in the ground prior to any excavation. Their magnitudes and orientation are determined by the weight of the overlying strata and the geological history of the rock mass. The principal stress directions are often vertical and horizontal. They are likely to be similar in orientation and relative magnitude to those that caused the most recent deformations. Some of the simplest clues to stress orientation can be estimated from a knowledge of a region's structural geology and its recent geologic history. Knowledge of undisturbed stresses is important. They determine the boundary conditions for stress analyses and affect stresses and deformations that develop when an opening is created. Quantitative information from stress analyses requires that the boundary conditions are known. Uncertainties are introduced into the analyses by limited knowledge of in situ stresses. Although initial estimates can be made based on simple guidelines, field measurements of in situ stresses are the only true guide for critical structures.

a. In situ vertical stress

For a geologically undisturbed rock mass, gravity provides the vertical component of the rock stresses. In a homogeneous rock mass, when the rock density γ is constant, the vertical stress is the pressure exerted by the mass of a column of rock acting over level. The vertical stress due to the overlying rock is then:

$$\sigma_z = \gamma h$$

where γ represents the density that is the unit weight of the rock and generally lies between 20 and 30 kN/m³.

Table 13.13: Approximate Relationship between Rock Mass Quality and Material Constants

	Carbonate Rocks with Well Devel- oped Crystal Cleavage <i>dolomite, limestone, and marble</i>	Lithified Acrillaceous Rocks <i>mudstone, siltstone, shale, and slate (normal to cleav- age)</i>	Arenaceous Rocks with Strong Crystals and Poorly Developed Crystal Cleavage <i>sandstone and quartzite</i>	Fine-Grained Polymineraleic Igneous Crystalline Rocks <i>andesite, dolerite, diabase, and rhyolite</i>	Coarse-Grained Polymineraleic Igneous and Meta- morphic Crystalline Rocks <i>amphibolite, gabbro, gneiss, granite, norite, quartz-diorite</i>
Intact Rock Samples <i>Laboratory specimens free from discontinuities RMR = 100, Q = 100</i>	m = 7.00 s = 1.00	10.00 1.00	15.00 1.00	17.00 1.00	25.00 1.00
Very Good Quality Rock Mass <i>Tightly interlocking undisturbed rock with unweathered joints at 1 to 3 m RMR = 85, Q = 100</i>	m = 4.10 s = 0.189	5.85 0.189	8.78 0.189	9.95 0.189	14.63 0.189
Good Quality Rock Mass <i>Several sets of moder- ately weathered joints spaced at 0.3 to 1 m RMR = 65, Q = 10</i>	m = 2.006 s = 0.0205	2.865 0.0205	4.298 0.0205	4.871 0.0205	7.163 0.0205
Fair Quality Rock Mass <i>Several sets of moder- ately weathered joints spaced at 0.3 to 1 m RMR = 44, Q = 1</i>	m = 0.947 s = 0.00198	1.353 0.00198	2.030 0.00198	2.301 0.00198	3.383 0.00198
Poor Quality Rock Mass <i>Numerous weathered joints at 30-500 mm, some gouge; clean compacted waste rock RMR = 23, Q = 0.1</i>	m = 0.447 s = 0.00019	0.639 0.00019	0.959 0.00019	1.087 0.00019	1.598 0.00019
Very Poor Quality Rock Mass <i>Numerous heavily weathered joints spaced < 50 mm with gouge; waste rock with fines RMR = 3, Q = 0.01</i>	m = 0.219 s = 0.00002	0.313 0.00002	0.469 0.00002	0.532 0.00002	0.782 0.00002

Empirical Failure Criterion:

$$\sigma'_1 = \sigma'_3 + \sqrt{m\sigma'_c\sigma'_3 + s\sigma_c^2}$$

 σ'_1 = major principal effective stress σ'_3 = minor principal effective stress σ'_c = uniaxial compressive strength of intact rock, and m and s are empirical constants

CSIR rating: RMR

NGI rating: Q

13.10.6.2. Convergence-Confinement Method

Combines concepts of ground relaxation and support stiffness to determine interaction between ground and ground support. [Figure 13.35](#) through [Figure 13.37](#) illustrate the concept of rock support interaction in a circular tunnel excavated by TBM. The example shows a ground relaxation curve that represents poor rock that requires support to prevent instability or collapse.

The stages described in [Figure 13.35](#) through [Figure 13.37](#) are:

Early installation of ground support (Point D 1) leads to excessive build-up of load in the support.

In a yielding support system, the support will yield without collapsing; to reach equilibrium point E1.

A delayed installation of the support (Point D2) leads to excessive tunnel deformation and support collapse (Point E2). The Tunnel Designer can

Optimize support installation to allow for acceptable displacements in the tunnel and loads in the support.

The convergence-confinement method is also a powerful conceptual tool that provides the designer with a framework for understanding support behavior in tunnels and shafts. Note that closed form Solutions or Continuum Analyses are convergence-confinement methods, as they model rock-structure interaction. The ground relaxation/interaction curve can also be defined by in-situ measurements.

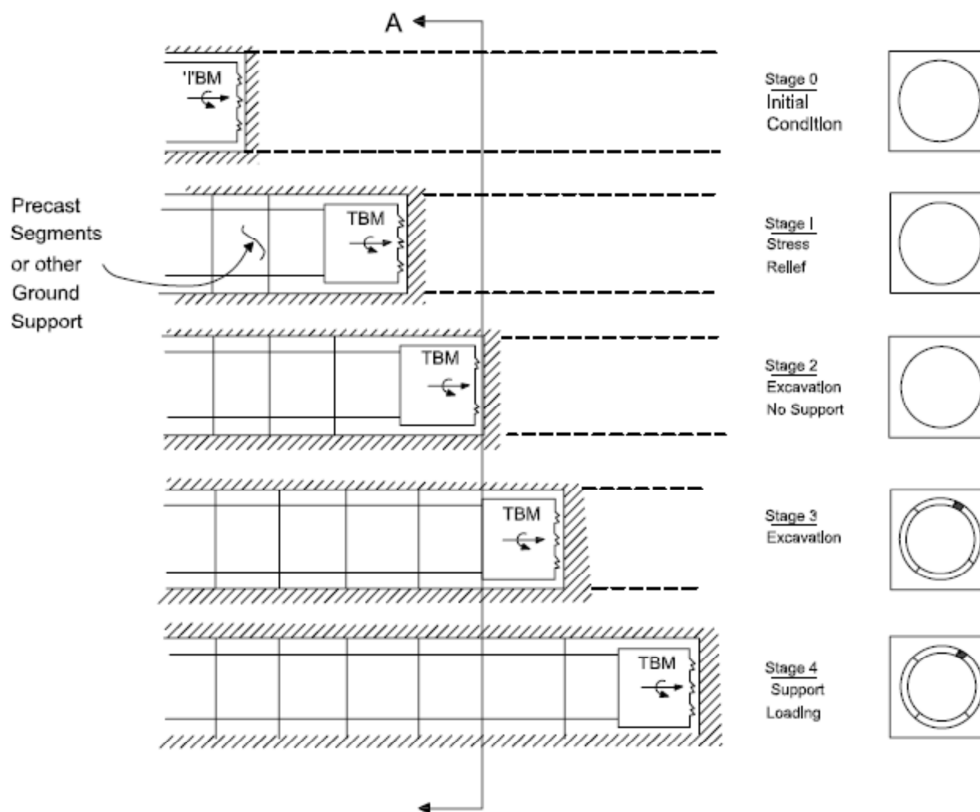


Figure 13.35: Rock Support Interaction

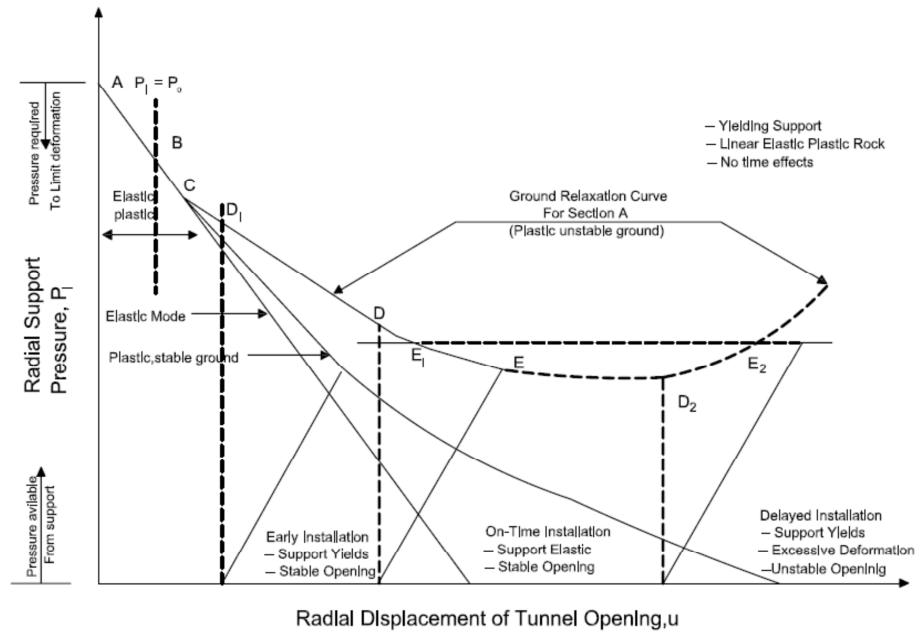
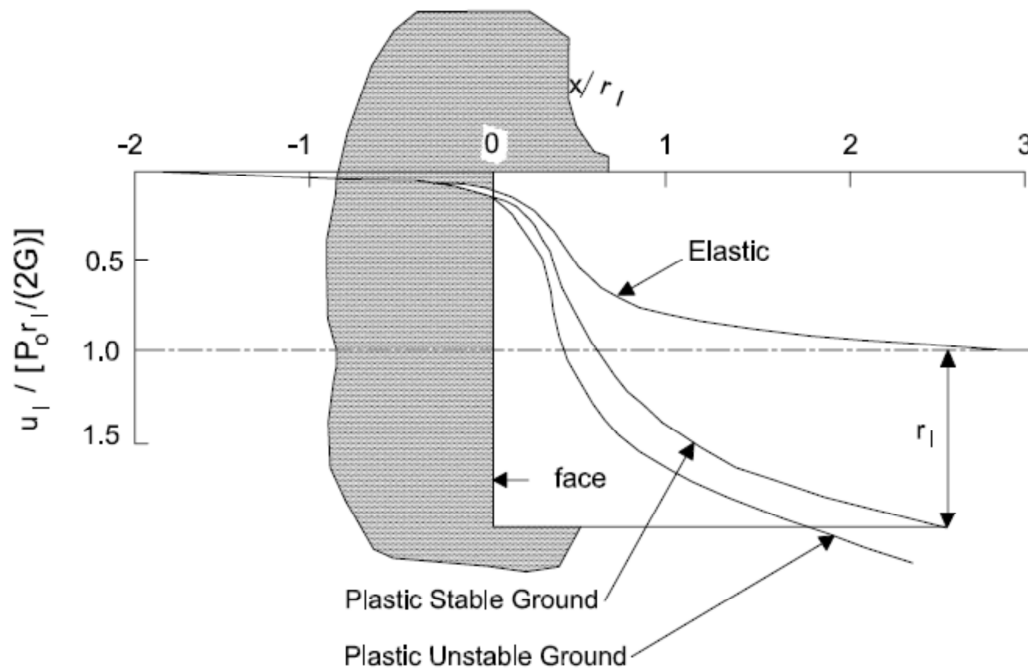
Figure 13.36: Radial Displacement of Tunnel Opening, u 

Figure 13.37: Rock Support Interaction

13.10.6.3. Stress Analysis

The construction of an underground structure within a rock mass differs from most other building activities. Generally, an aboveground structure is built in an unstressed environment with loads applied as the structure is constructed and becomes operational.

For an underground structure, the excavation creates space within a stressed environment. Stress analyses provide insight into the changes in preexisting stress equilibrium caused by an opening. It interprets the performance of an opening in terms of stress concentrations and associated deformations and serves as a rational basis for establishing the performance of requirements for design. The properties of the rock mass are complex, and no single theory is available to explain rock mass behavior. However, the theories of elasticity and plasticity provide results that have relevance to the stress distributions induced about openings and provide a first step to estimating the distribution of stresses around openings. Prior to excavation, the in situ stresses in the rock mass are in equilibrium. Once the excavation is made, the stresses in the vicinity of the opening are redistributed and stress concentrations develop. The redistributed stresses can overstress parts of the rock mass and make it yield. The initial stress conditions in the rock, its geologic structure and failure strength, the method of excavation, the installed support, and the shape of the opening are the main factors that govern stress redistribution about an opening.

1. Excavation configuration and in situ stress state.

The excavation shape and the in situ stresses affect the stress distribution about an opening. Since stress concentrations are often critical in the roof and sidewalls of excavations, [Hock and Brown \(1980\)](#) have determined the tangential stresses on the excavation surface at the crown and in the sidewall for different-shaped openings for a range of in situ stress ratios. They are given in [Figure 13.38](#). These are not necessarily the maximum stresses developing about the opening. Maximum stresses occur at the corners where they can cause localized instabilities such as spalling.

2. Porewater pressures.

Stress analysis within the rock mass for tunneling has been traditionally carried out in terms of total stresses with little consideration given to pore pressures. However, as design approaches for weak permeable rocks are improved, design approaches in terms of effective stress analyses are being developed ([Fernandez and Alvarez 1994](#); [Hashash and Cook 1994](#)), see Article [13.10.6.4](#).

3. Circular opening in elastic material.

The elastic solution for a deep circular tunnel provides insight into the stresses and displacements induced by the excavation. The tunnel is regarded as “deep” if the free surface does not affect the stresses and displacements around the opening. The problem is considered a plane strain problem and the rock assumed to be isotropic, homogeneous, and linearly elastic. Kirsch’s solution ([Terzaghi and Richart 1952](#)) disregards body forces and the influence of the boundary at the ground surface. [Mindlin’s comprehensive solution \(1939\)](#), which considers the boundary and takes gravity into account, shows that the approximation gives very good agreement for the stresses for depths greater than about four tunnel diameters. Absolute values of stress and deformation are the same regardless of the sequence of application of loading and excavation; however, relative displacements experienced when the tunnel is driven can only be determined theoretically. [Pender \(1980\)](#) has presented comprehensive solutions for the linear elastic plane strain problem that are summarized in [Figure 13.39](#).

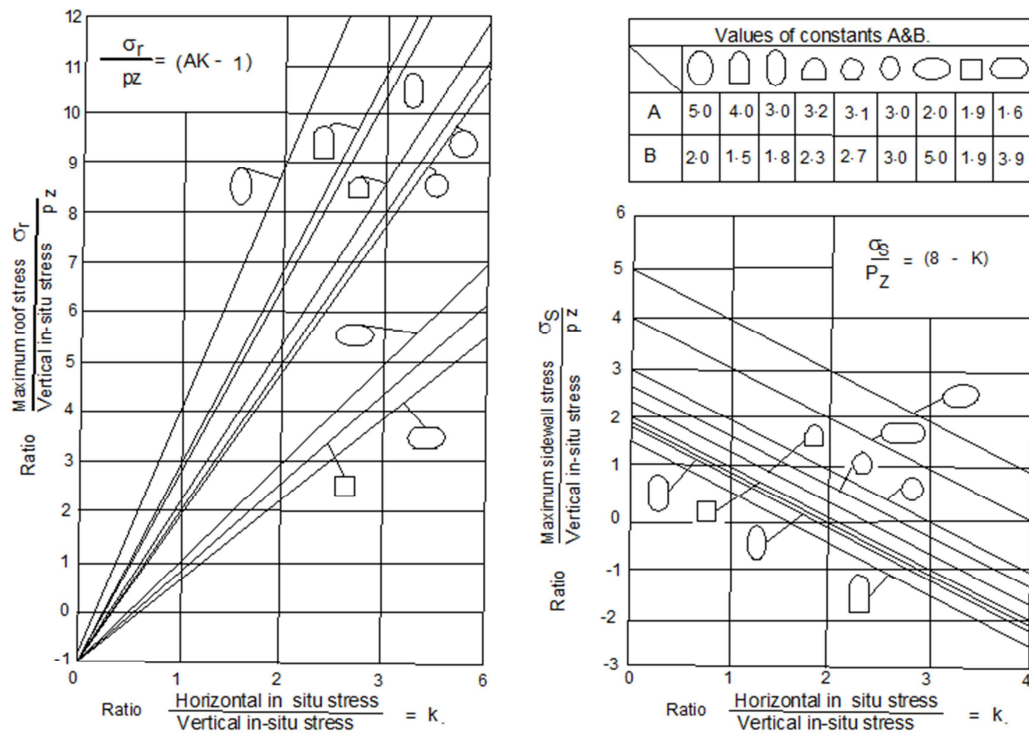
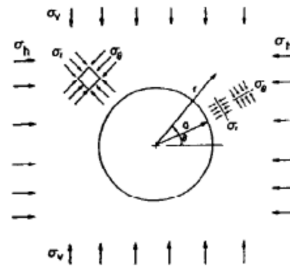


Figure 13.38: Stresses predicted by elastic analysis (After Hock & Brown, 1980)



Notation used to describe stresses around a circular opening in a biaxial stress field

a	radius of tunnel shaft
r	radial distance to any point
θ	angular distance to any point
σ_h, σ_v	original (pre-tunneling) stress field at the tunnel level
σ_r, σ_θ	final (post tunneling) radial and tangential stresses around the tunnel
E	is Young's Modulus of the rock
ν	is the Poisson's Ratio
u_a	is the radial displacement at radius a
v_a	is the tangential displacement at radius a

The stresses are:

radial stress $\sigma_r = 0.5(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)(1 - a^2/r^2) + 0.5(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)(1 + 3a^4/r^4 - 4a^2/r^2) \cos 2\theta$

circumferential stress $\sigma_\theta = 0.5(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)(1 + a^2/r^2) - 0.5(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)(1 + 3a^4/r^4) \cos 2\theta$

shear stress $\tau_{r\theta} = 0.5(\sigma_h - \sigma_v)(1 - 3a^4/r^4 + 2a^2/r^2) \sin 2\theta$

Case 1 Stresses applied at a distant boundary - appropriate for condition where a large surface loading is applied after the tunnel is constructed

The displacements are:

$$Eu = (1-\nu^2)[0.5(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)(r + a^2/r) - 0.5(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)(r - a^4/r^3 + 4a^2/r) \cos 2\theta] - \nu(1+\nu)[0.5(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)(r - a^2/r) - 0.5(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)(r - a^4/r^3) \cos 2\theta]$$

$$Ev = 0.5(\sigma_v - \sigma_h) \{ (1 - \nu^2)(r + 2a^2/r + a^4/r^3) + \nu(1+\nu)(r - 2a^2/r + a^4/r^3) \} \sin 2\theta$$

At the tunnel periphery, the displacements are:

$$Eu_a = (1-\nu^2)a[(\sigma_v + \sigma_h) - 2(\sigma_v - \sigma_h) \cos 2\theta]$$

$$Ev_a = 2(1-\nu^2)a(\sigma_v - \sigma_h) \sin 2\theta$$

Case 2 Tunnel excavated in a prestressed medium - appropriate for analysis of tunnel excavation

The displacements are:

$$Eu = 0.5(1+\nu)[(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)(a^2/r) - (\sigma_v - \sigma_h)((1-\nu)4a^2/r - a^4/r^3) \cos 2\theta]$$

$$Ev = 2(1+\nu)(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)2a^2/r + a^4/r^3 \sin 2\theta$$

At the tunnel periphery, the displacements are:

$$Eu_a = 0.5(1+\nu)a[(\sigma_v + \sigma_h) - (3-4\nu)(\sigma_v - \sigma_h) \cos 2\theta]$$

$$Ev_a = 6(1+\nu)(\sigma_v - \sigma_h) \sin 2\theta$$

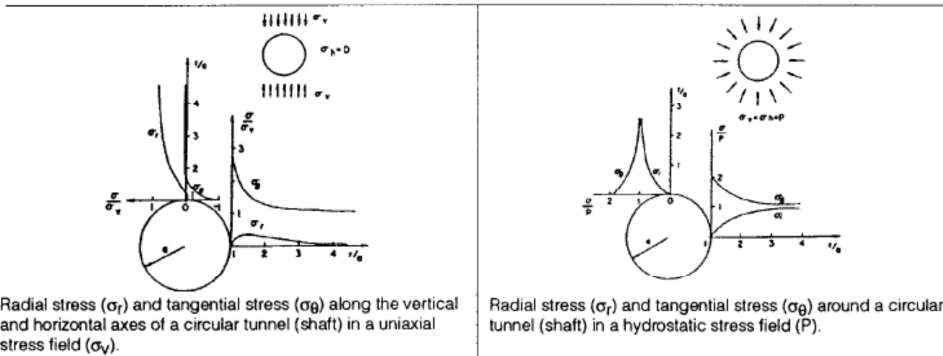


Figure 13.39: Stresses around a Circular Opening in a Biaxial Stress Field

The simplicity of the elastic solution for the stresses and displacements about a circular opening provides insight into the significance of various parameters and can be used to understand the magnitude of the stresses and deformations induced about an opening.

4. Plastic/yield model

The creation of an underground excavation disturbs the stress field. In the case of weak or even competent rocks subject to high stresses, induced stresses can exceed the strength of the rock leading to its failure. Failure takes the form of gradual closure of the excavation, localized spalling, roof falls, slabbing of side walls, or, in extreme cases, rock bursts. In cases where the violent release of energy is not a factor, this leads to the development of a fractured zone about an excavation that will require stabilization. In strong rocks where brittle or strain softening behavior occurs, strata can be supported relatively easily by the mobilization of the residual strength of the deformed strata by low support pressures. In weaker rocks subject to high stresses where ductile or strain-hardening behavior occurs, possibly over a period of time, much higher restraint is required to support strata as part of the development of a yield zone, substantial plastic or time-dependent deformations may occur. To estimate these effects, stresses and deformations are calculated from elasto-plastic analyses. The simplest case is that of a circular tunnel driven in a homogeneous, isotropic, initially elastic rock subject to a hydrostatic stress field. The analysis is axisymmetric. The solution assumes plane strain conditions in the axial direction and that the axial stress remains the principal intermediate stress. As the stresses induced by the opening exceed the yield strength of the rock, a yield zone of radius R , develops about the tunnel while the rock outside the yield zone remains elastic. The analysis is illustrated in [Figure 13.40](#), [Figure 13.46](#) and Article [13.10.6.4.1](#). The rock tends to expand or dilate as it breaks, and displacements of the tunnel wall will be greater than those predicted by elasticity theory. Support requirements are theoretically related to the displacement of the excavation. Deformations are limited by applying a high support pressure, whereas, support pressures are reduced as deformations take place. These theoretical provisions must be tempered with judgment since excessive deformation can adversely affect stability and lead to increased support requirements that are not predicted by the analyses. The elastoplastic solutions for stress distributions and deformations around circular-cylindrical underground openings are summarized in [Figure 13.40](#), [Figure 13.46](#). It is assumed that the opening is far enough removed from the ground surface that the stress field may be assumed homogeneous and that a lithostatic stress field exists. Body forces are not considered. The assumption is made that the material is either plastic frictionless ($\Phi = 0$) or frictional ($c-\Phi$).

Elasto Plastic Solution

Reference: Salencon 1969.

$p_z = \sigma_v = \sigma_n$ $p_i = \text{Internal Pressure}$

yield condition: $p_z \geq (p_i + c \cos \phi) / (1 - \sin \phi)$

radius of yield zone:

$$R = a \left[\frac{(1 - \sin \phi)(p_z + c \cot \phi)}{(p_i + c \cot \phi)} \right]^{1/(K_p - 1)}$$

where $K_p = (1 + \sin \phi) / (1 - \sin \phi)$

ELASTIC ZONE:

stresses: $\sigma_r = p_z - (p_z - \sigma_\phi) (R_e/r)^2$

$$\sigma_\theta = p_z + (p_z - \sigma_\phi) (R_e/r)^2$$

$\sigma_\phi = p_z (1 - \sin \phi) - c \cos \phi = \text{Radial stress at the Elasto-Plastic interface}$

deformations: $u_r = (p_z \sin \phi + c \cos \phi) (R^2/r) / (2G)$

PLASTIC ZONE:

stresses: $\sigma_r = -c \cot \phi + (p_i + c \cot \phi) (r/a)^{K_p - 1}$

$$\sigma_\theta = -c \cot \theta + (p_i + c \cot \phi) K_p (r/a)^{K_p - 1}$$

$$\sigma_y = (\sigma_r + \sigma_\theta) / 2 = c \cot \phi + (p_i + c \cot \phi) (1 - \sin \phi)^{-1} (r/a)^{K_p - 1}$$

deformations: $u_r = r / (2G) \chi$

where $\chi = (2\nu - 1) (p_z + c \cot \phi) + (1 - \nu) \left[\frac{(K_p^2 - 1) (K_p + K_{ps})}{K_p} \right] (p_i + c \cot \phi) (R/a)^{(K_p - 1)} (R/r)^{(K_{ps} + 1)}$

$$+ \left[(1 - \nu) (K_p K_{ps} + 1) / (K_p + K_{ps}) - \nu \right] (p_i + c \cot \phi) (r/a)^{(K_p - 1)}$$

and $K_{ps} = (1 + \sin \psi_s) / (1 - \sin \psi_s)$ and $G = E / 2(1 + \nu)$

Figure 13.40: Elasto Plastic Solution



Figure 13.41: Elasto Plastic Particular Solutions

13.10.6.4. Continuum Analyses Using Finite Difference, Finite Element, or Boundary Element Methods

Advances in continuum analysis techniques and the advent of fast low-cost computers have led to the proliferation of continuum analysis programs aimed at the solution of a wide range of geo-mechanical problems including tunnel and shaft excavation and construction. For the purpose of this manual, continuum analyses refer to those methods or techniques that assume the rock medium to be a continuum and require the solution of a large set of simultaneous equations to calculate the states of

stress and strain throughout the rock medium. The available techniques include the Finite Difference Method (FDM) (Cundall 1976), the Finite Element Method (FEM) (Bathe 1982), and the Boundary Element Method (BEM) (Venturini 1983). While there are subtle advantages of one method over another for some specialized applications, the three methods are equally useful for solving problems encountered in practice. Each of the three numerical techniques is used to solve an excavation problem in a rock medium whereby the field of interest is discretized and represented by a variety of elements. The changes in stress state and deformations are calculated at the element level given the (unloading (construction) history and material properties. These numerical techniques provide the designer with powerful tools that can give unique insights into the tunnel/shaft support interaction problem during and after construction. Article [13.10.6.4.1](#) summarizes the steps followed in performing a continuum analysis. The following paragraphs describe these steps and how to consider continuum analyses as part of the design process. Advantages as well as the limitations of the numerical techniques are described.

1. Steps to Follow in Continuum Analysis of Tunnel and Shaft Excavations

a. Identify the need for and purpose of continuum analysis.

The first step in carrying out a continuum analysis is identifying whether an analysis is needed. The FEM, FDM, or BEM numerical techniques are not substitutes for conventional methods of support design. The continuum analysis is then used to study the influence of the construction sequence and ground deformation on load transfer into supports. Safety factors and load factors commonly used in conventional methods should not be used in numerical analyses. Continuum analyses can incorporate details that cannot be accounted for using conventional methods such as inhomogeneous rock strata and nonuniform initial in situ stress, and hence provide guidance for modifications required in the support system. The continuum methods can best serve to improve support design through the opportunity they provide to study types of situations from which general practical procedures can be developed (e.g., Hocking 1978). Modes of behavior that can be assessed using continuum analysis include the following:

- Elastic and elastoplastic ground/support interaction. Convergence-confinement curves can be constructed using continuum analysis.
- Study of modes of failure.
- Identification of stress concentrations.
- Assessment of plastic zones requiring support.
- Analysis of monitoring data.

b. Define computer code requirements.

A wide range of commercial and in-house programs are available for modeling tunnel and shaft construction. Prior to performing an analysis using a particular computer code, the user should determine the suitability of the program. Example analyses of problems for which a closed form solution is available (such as those given in Article [13.10.6.3](#)) should be performed and the analysis results checked against those solutions. The user should verify that the program is capable of modeling the excavation process correctly and is able to represent the various support elements such as concrete and shotcrete lining, lattice girders, and bolts.

c. Modeling of the rock medium.

The FEM, FDM, and BEM techniques model the rock mass as a continuum. This approximation is adequate when the rock mass is relatively free of discontinuities. However, these methods can still be used to model jointed rock masses by using equivalent material properties that reflect the strength reduction due to jointing (e.g., Zhu and Wang 1993; Pariseau 1993) or a material model that incorporates planes of weakness such as the Ubiquitous Joint Model (ITASCA 1992). Interface elements may be used to model displacements along discontinuities if they are deemed to be an important factor in the behavior of the system. The designer should first use as simple a model as possible and avoid adding details that may have little effect on the behavior of the overall system.

The initial state of stress in the rock mass is important in determining the deformation due to excavation and the subsequent load carried by the support system. In a cross-anisotropic rock mass (in a horizontal topography) where material properties are constant in a horizontal plane, the state of stress can be described by a vertical stress component σ_v due to the weight of rock and a horizontal stress component $\sigma_h = K_o \sigma_v$. K_o is the lateral in situ stress ratio. In situations where the rock mass is anisotropic, has non-horizontal strata, or where the ground surface is inclined (e.g., sloping ground), methods such as those proposed by Amadei and Pan (1992), and Pan and Amadei (1993) should be used to establish the initial state of stress in the rock. Such methods are necessary because the initial stresses in the rock mass include nonzero shear stress components.

The choice of a material model to represent the rock medium depends on the available properties obtained from laboratory and in situ testing programs and the required accuracy in the analysis. Many of the available continuum analysis programs have a large material model library that can be used. These include linear elastic and nonlinear elasto-plastic models and may have provisions to incorporate creep and thermal behavior. Available material/constitutive laws for modeling of the rock medium include the following:

- Linear Elastic.
- Non-Linear Elastic (Hyperbolic Model).
- Visco-Elastic.
- Elastic-plastic (Mohr-Coulomb failure criteria with an associated or nonassociated flow rule that controls material dilatancy, Hock and Brown failure criteria).
- Elastic-viscoplastic.
- Bounding Surface Plasticity (Whittle 1987).

The continuum analysis can be performed assuming either an effective stress or a total stress material behavior. Using effective stress behavior may be more appropriate for use in saturated rock masses and those of sedimentary origin such as shales or sandstones. There is sufficient evidence in the literature that would support the use of the effective stress law for some rocks (e.g., Warpinski and Teufel 1993; Berge, Wang, and Bonner 1993; Bellwald 1992). Examples of effective stress analysis of tunnels can be found in Cheng, Abousleiman, and Roegiers (1993).

The size of the rock field (mesh size) and boundary conditions applied along the far-field edges of the model depend on the size of the opening and the hydrologic conditions. As a rule of thumb, the far-field boundary is placed at a distance 5-10 times

the size of the opening away from the centerline. Pore-pressure boundary conditions along the edges of the model and along the ground surface influence the predicted drawdown condition, pore-pressure buildup, and water inflow into the opening.

d. Two - and three - dimensional analyses.

The available numerical techniques can be used to solve a shaft or tunnel excavation problem in two or three dimensions. Two dimensional (2-D) analysis is appropriate for modeling tunnel sections along a running tunnel. Three dimensional (3-D) analysis can be useful for understanding the behavior at tunnel and shaft intersections. However, 3-D analyses are laborious and involve the processing of large amounts of data. It is recommended that the analyst use a simplified 2-D model and arrive at a good understanding of the system response before commencing a full blown 3-D analysis. Examples of 2-D and 3-D analyses are given in [Figure 13.42](#) and [Figure 13.43](#).

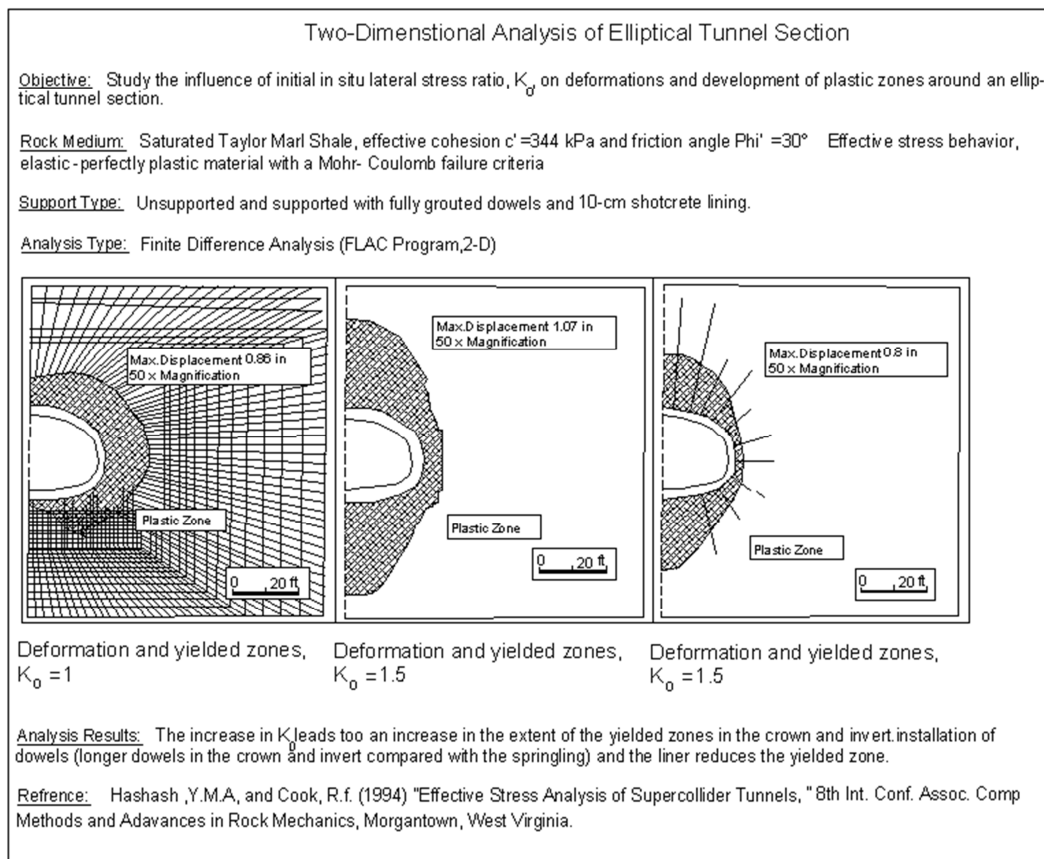


Figure 13.42: Two-Dimensional Analysis of Elliptical Tunnel Section

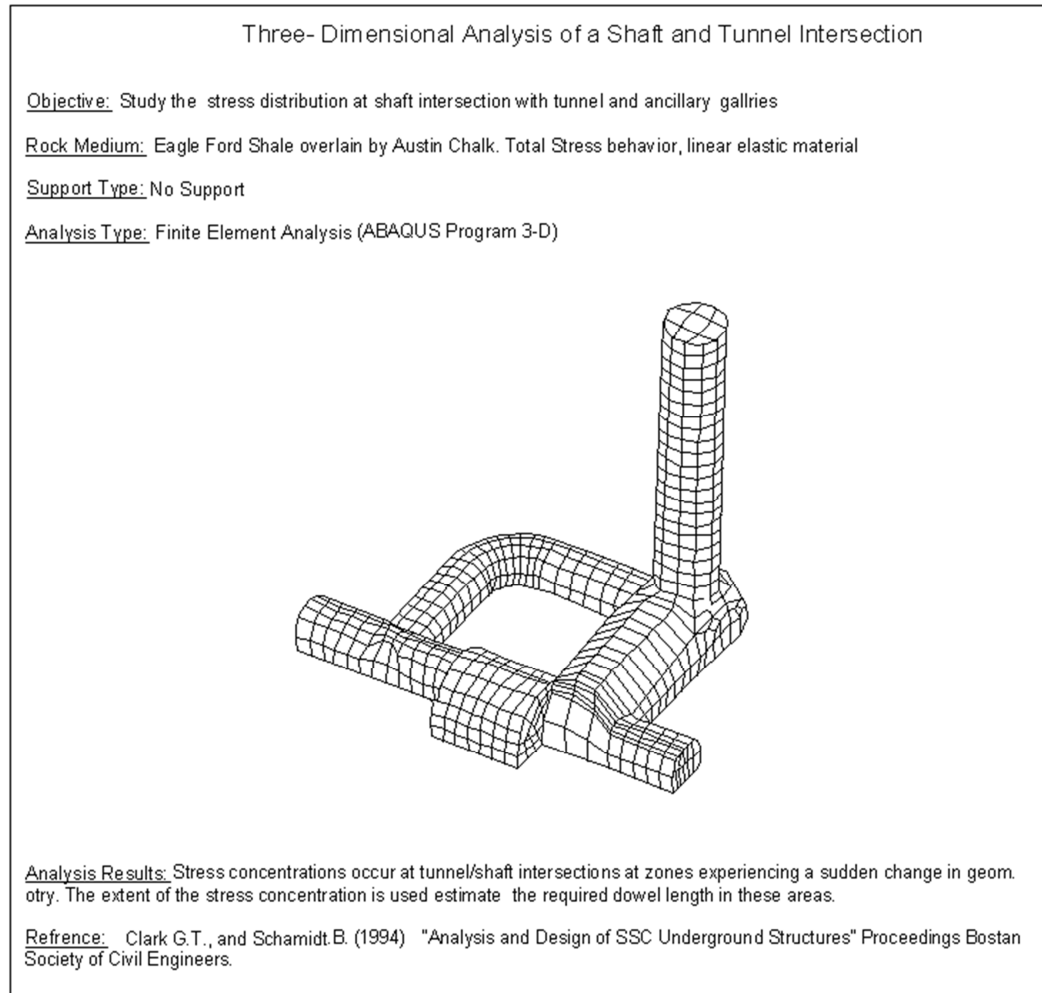


Figure 13.43: Three-Dimensional Analysis of a Shaft and Tunnel Intersection

e. Modeling of supports and construction sequence.

The construction sequence of a tunnel/shaft is complicated and involves many details. It is not practical to incorporate all these details in the numerical simulation. Material removal and liner and dowel installation should be simplified into discrete steps. The following are a few examples of the possible simplifications:

- **Tunnel support.** Tunnel support can be cast-inplace concrete, precast concrete segments, shotcrete, or steel sets. The support can be modeled using the same types of elements used to model the rock, but using material models and properties that correspond to the support material. Since the thickness of the support is usually much less than the size of the opening, structural (beam) elements can be used to model the liner. In many situations, these elements are preferred as they better capture the bending behavior of the supports.
- **Shotcrete application.** There is usually a lag time between the application of shotcrete and the development of the full strength of the shotcrete. A simple approach to incorporate this effect into the continuum model would be to simulate shotcrete "installation" at the stage when the shotcrete develops its full strength.

- **Simulation of transfer of load to tunnel liner in a 2-D analysis.** During tunnel driving, support is installed close to the tunnel face. As the face is advanced, the rock relaxes further and load is applied to the supports. This problem is three-dimensional in nature. In a 2-D model, the rock is allowed to deform a percentage of its otherwise free deformation prior to “installation” of the support. This percentage ranges between 50 and 90 percent (Schwartz, Azzouz, and Einstein 1980) depending on how far the supports are installed behind the tunnel face. Article [13.10.6.3](#) discusses the development of deformations at the tunnel face in the context of the convergence-confinement method.
- **Fully grouted dowel with bearing plate.** The principal function of this support element is to reinforce the rock the bearing plate has a relatively minor role in providing support for the overall system. In the numerical model, the bearing plate can be ignored; only a fully grouted dowel element needs to be represented.
- **Simulation of bolts and lattice girders in 2-D analysis.** Bolts and lattice girders are usually installed in a pattern in a tunnel/shaft section and at a specified spacing along the length of the excavation. Therefore, bolts and lattice girders are three-dimensional physical support components. In a 2-D analysis, the properties of bolts and lattice girders are “smeared” along the length of the tunnel. The properties of the bolts and lattice girders used in the model are equal to those of the actual supports averaged by the support spacing along the tunnel/shaft length (i.e., equivalent properties per unit length of tunnel/shaft).

f. Analysis approach

Throughout the process of constructing the model and performing the analyses, it is important to keep the number of details and analyses to a minimum. A well-defined set of parametric studies should be prepared and adjusted as the results of the analyses are examined. The analyst should maintain open communications with the design team. A common mistake is to expect the analysis to provide a resolution or accuracy higher than that of the input data.

g. Interpreting analysis results.

Upon performing the first analysis, the analyst should carefully examine the results. The first step is to check whether the results are reasonable. Some of the questions that should be answered are as follows:

- Is the rock deforming as expected?
- Is the load distribution in the support system consistent with rock deformations?
- Is the change in the state of stress in the rock consistent with the failure criteria and other material properties?
- Did the solution converge numerically?

Answering these and similar questions might reveal an error in the input data. A detailed check of the numerical results is necessary for the first analysis. A less rigorous check is required for subsequent analyses, but nonetheless the analyst should check for any possible anomalies in the results.

Evaluation of the results of the continuum analyses and their implication regarding the rock-support interaction includes examining the following:

- **Deformations around the opening.** Deformations in the reek mass are related to the load transferred to the support system. Data from numerical analyses can be used to develop ground reaction curves (Article [13.10.6.3](#)). Parametric studies can be used to develop general design charts that apply to more than one opening size or support configuration,
- **Loads in support system.** The analyses can provide moment, thrust, and shear force distributions in the liner. The data provided can be used to address possible modification in the liner, such as the introduction of pin connections to reduce excessive moments. Dowel load data can also be used to revise the distribution and modify the capacity of the proposed dowels. The analyses provide information on the influence of the opening on adjacent structures such as adjacent tunnels or surface buildings that may be distressed due to tunnel/shaft construction. Excessive deformations indicate the need for a more effective support system or a change in the construction method or sequence to mitigate potential damage.
- **Yielded and overstressed rock zones.** These zones indicate a potential for reek spalling and rock falls if located near the excavated surface. Large yielded zones indicate a general weakening of the reek and the need to provide reinforcement. The zones can be used to size reek reinforcements (bolts and dowels).
- **Pore-pressure distribution and water inflow.** This will provide information on the direction of potential water flow, as well as the expected changes in pore pressures in the rock. The information is relevant in reek masses with discontinuities, as well as in swelling rocks. Contours of pore-pressure distribution are useful in this regard. Many of the commercially available codes have postprocessors that provide the user with a wide range of output capabilities including tabulated data, contour plots, deformed mesh plots, and color graphics. These are useful tools that can convey the results of the analysis in a concise manner especially to outside reviewers.

h. Modification of support system reanalysis.

- Continuum analyses provide insight into the behavior of the overall support system and the adequacy of the support system. The analyses may highlight some deficiencies or possible overdesign in the proposed support system. Several analysis iterations may be required to optimize the design.
- Limitations of continuum analyses. Continuum analysis techniques are versatile tools that provide much understanding of problems involving underground structures. However, they have several limitations that have to be considered to use these techniques effectively. Continuum analysis techniques are not a substitute for conventional design techniques and sound engineering judgment. A continuum analysis cannot give warning of phenomena such as localized spalling. Continuum analysis in geotechnical applications is vastly different from applications in the structural field. Continuum analysis in structural application is good to satisfy code requirements where the parameters are well defined. Continuum analysis in geotechnical and underground applications involves many unknown factors and requires much judgment on the part of the user. The complexity of a

continuum analysis is often limited by the availability of geo-mechanics data and rock properties. The designer should avoid making too many assumptions regarding the material properties in a model while still expecting to obtain useful information from the analysis. Continuum analyses predict stresses, strains, and displacements but generally do not tell anything about stability and safety factors. Some specialized programs can provide predictions of stability (e.g, Sloan 1981).

- Example applications. [Figure 13.42](#) and [Figure 13.43](#) illustrate the use of continuum analyses for shaft and tunnel problems as applied to the Superconducting Super Collider underground structures.

13.10.6.5. Discontinuum Analyses

Closed form solutions and continuum analyses of tunnel and shaft problems in rock ignore weaknesses and flaws that interrupt the continuity of the rock mass. The presence of weaknesses makes the rock a collection of tightly fitted blocks. The rock, thus, exhibits a behavior different from a continuous material. This section describes approaches to analysis of openings in rock behaving as a discontinuum.

1. Key block theory.

The best known theory for discontinuous analysis of rocks is the key block theory pioneered by Goodman and Shi (1985). In a key block analysis, the object is to find the critical blocks created by intersections of discontinuities in a rock mass excavated along defined surfaces. The analysis can skip over many combinations of joints and proceed directly to consider certain critical (key) blocks. If these blocks are stabilized, no other blocks can fall into the opening. The principal assumptions are as follows:

- All joint surfaces are planar. Linear vector analysis can therefore be used for the solution of the problem.
- Joint surfaces extend through the entire volume of the rock mass. No discontinuities terminate within a block. No new discontinuities can develop due to cracking.
- The intact blocks defined by the discontinuities are rigid. Deformations are due to block movement but not block deformation.
- The discontinuity and excavation surfaces are defined. If the joint set orientations are actually dispersed about a central tendency, one direction must be chosen to represent the set.

[Figure 13.44](#) illustrates the concept of key block analysis. Block analysis can be carried out using stereographic projection graphical methods or vector methods. Hatzor and Goodman (1993) illustrate the application of the analysis to the Hanging Lake Tunnel, Glenwood Canyon, Colorado. The analysis methods have been incorporated into computer programs.

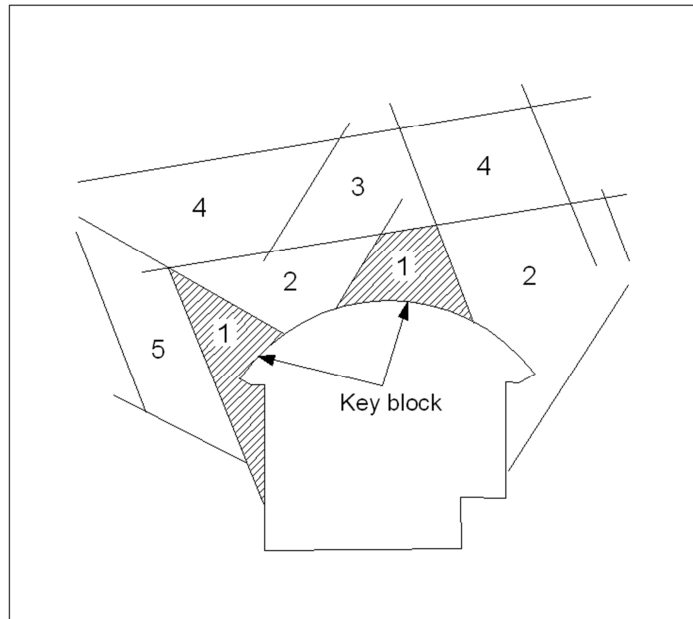


Figure 13.44: Key block analysis

2. Discrete element methods.

Cundall and Hart (1993) propose that the term discrete element method applies to computer methods that allow finite displacements and rotations of discrete bodies, including complete detachment, and recognize new contacts automatically as the calculation progresses. Four main classes of computer methods conform to this definition:

- Distinct element methods. They use explicit, time-marching to solve the equations of motion directly. Bodies may be rigid or deformable contacts are deformable.
- Modal methods. They are similar to distinct element methods in the case of rigid bodies, but for deformable bodies, modal superposition is used.
- Discontinuous deformation methods. In these methods, contacts are rigid, and bodies may be rigid or deformable.
- Momentum-exchange methods. In these methods, both the contacts and the bodies are rigid; momentum is exchanged between two contacting bodies during an instantaneous collision. Frictional sliding can be represented.

Figure 13.45 shows an analysis of a tunnel opening in a jointed rock mass using the distinct element method and the computer program UDEC.

The block theory and discrete element analysis methods are useful in identifying unstable blocks in large underground chambers. In smaller openings such as shafts and tunnels, they are less useful. Cost considerations may preclude the use of discontinuum analysis in small openings due to budget constraints. Large openings that are used to house expensive equipment have big enough budget to perform these analyses. Discontinuum analysis methods are limited by the unavailability of sufficient data during design. The methods can be used during construction after mapping of discontinuities to identify potential unstable blocks that require support (NATM).

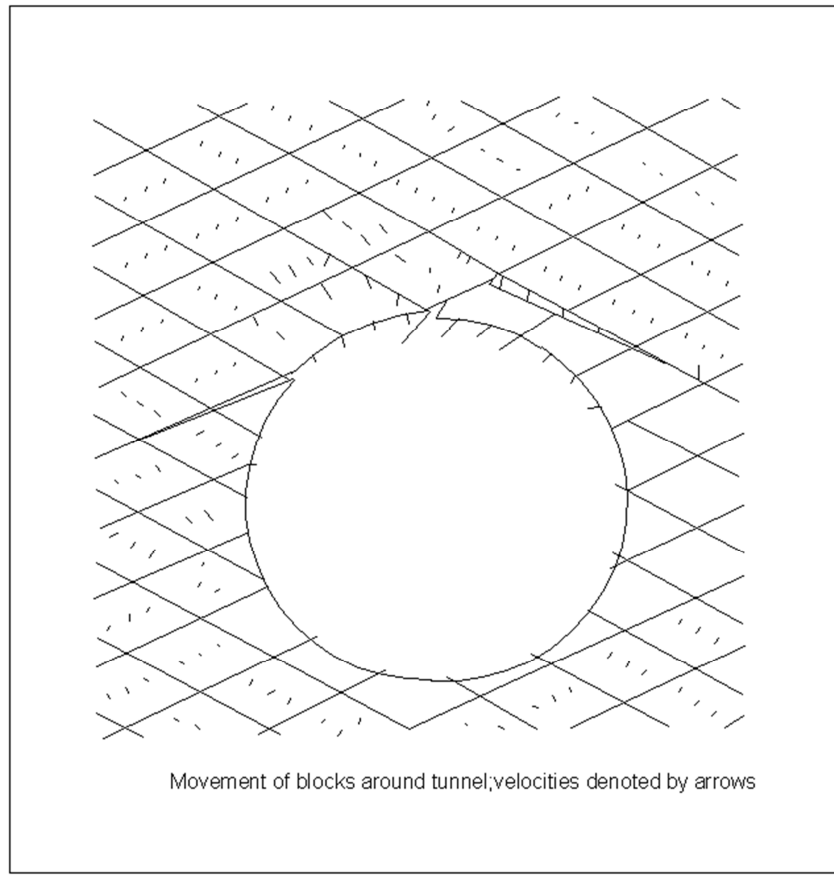


Figure 13.45: Distinct element analysis, **Cundell and Hart**
1993

13.10.7. Design of Permanent, Final Linings

13.10.7.1. Lining Selection:

The Tunnel Engineer should consider final lining options including:

- 1) Unreinforced concrete;
- 2) Reinforced concrete; and,
- 3) Segments of concrete.

The appropriate lining type should be selected through consideration of:

- 1) 1)Functional Requirements;
- 2) Geology and Hydrology;
- 3) Constructability; and,
- 4) Economy.

[Table 13.14](#) summarizes the common options for final lining.

Table 13.14: Summary of Principal Lining Types (After O'Rourke, 1984; COE EM 1110-2-2901, 1997)

Lining Type	Prominent Features
Unsupported Rock	Suitable for rock of very good quality. Must conform to in-situ stress limitations. Drying and slabbing at rock surfaces may require surface sealants to suppress long-term deterioration.
Rock Reinforcement Systems	Untensioned dowels may be suitable for good quality rock. Tensioned rock bolts more expensive, but provide greater effectiveness. Spiles used to reinforce the ground and increase stand-up time. Cement and resin grouts provide permanent anchorage and corrosion protection. Rock reinforcement often supplemented with shotcrete or mesh to contain loose rock and control spalling.
Shotcrete Lining	Will provide support and may improve leakage and hydraulic characteristics of the tunnel. It also protects the rock against erosion and deleterious action of water. To protect water-sensitive ground, the shotcrete should be continuous and crack-free and reinforced with wire mesh or fibers. As with unlined tunnels, shotcrete-lined tunnels are usually furnished with a cast-in-place concrete invert.
Segmented Systems	Segments generally composed of precast concrete or steel leakage often controlled through bolted compression seals. Unbolted, segmented rings with grouted annulus are suitable for some tunnels in rock.
Unreinforced Concrete Linings	This is acceptable if the rock is in equilibrium prior to concrete placement, and loads on the lining are expected to be uniform and radial; and if leakage through minor shrinkage and temperature cracks is acceptable. It is not acceptable in badly squeezing rock, which can exert non-uniform displacement loads.

The lining design should account for possible increased leakage with time through permeable geologic features and discontinuities with erodable gouge. It should account for rock-lining interaction, including failure modes and following loads that persist independently of displacement.

The linings of relatively shallow rock tunnels are acted upon primarily by gravity loads which represent the weight of rock wedges adjacent to the tunnel perimeter. These loads are determined by the unit weight of the rock and the system of joints and discontinuities that intersect the rock mass. The loads on a continuous lining can be estimated by considering various combinations of joints that are consistent with the geology and form wedges overlying or adjacent to the tunnel. The maximum support load would be the weight of the largest critical wedge, less the frictional and interlocking resistance developed along sliding planes. There have been many useful studies of critical wedges and support requirements for underground openings including work by Cording and Deere (1972), Brierley (1975), Ward (1978), and Hoek and Brown (1980). The characteristics of the joints (e.g., orientation, frequency, thickness, frictional or cohesive resistance, and degree of inter-locking along joint surfaces) play an important role in determining the amount and distribution of the

gravity loads. Accordingly, geotechnical investigations are necessary to characterize the rock structure and to make a quantitative assessment of the rock and joint characteristics for load evaluation.

Methods have been proposed for selecting rock support systems on the basis of empirical correlations between support and various qualitative and quantitative classifications of the rock mass (Terzaghi, 1946; Deere, Merritt and Coon, 1969; Wickman, Tiedemann and Skinner, 1974; Barton, Lien and Lunde, 1977; Bieniawski, 1979). These classification systems are helpful in obtaining an estimate of support needs. The designer usually requires a more detailed assessment to determine the type and dimensions of the permanent lining. Cording and Maher (1978) outline a general approach that provides a more comprehensive determination, according to the following steps: 1) evaluation of the geology and significant rock index properties; 2) estimation of rock loads consistent with the construction procedure and the models of rock behavior for the given geologic setting and excavation geometry; and 3) selection of the support best suited for the construction procedure and intended lifetime services of the facility.

Tunnel excavation changes the state of stress in the rock mass. As a result, tunnel linings are rarely designed for loads equivalent to the in-situ state of stress; such a load would often be impractical to support and usually does not exist at the time of final lining construction.

The reduction of in-situ stress often is expressed in the form of a ground-response curve, in which the radial pressure at the lining-ground interface is plotted as a function of the inward radial displacement. Ground response curves have been developed for various models of material behavior, as discussed by Brown et al. (1983). In rock tunnels of shallow depth, very small displacements are sufficient to cause substantial reductions in radial stress. In tunnels excavated under conditions of high in-situ stress in rock of relatively low strength, plastic behavior may lead to substantial inward movement before the rock mass can mobilize sufficient shear strength to reduce radial pressure. Ground response curves for this type of squeezing ground conditions have been used on a conceptual basis for coordinating initial support installation and inward convergence measurements during the construction of several European highway tunnels (e.g., Rabcewicz, 1969; Rabcewicz, 1975; Steiner, Einstein and Azzouz, 1980).

The most important material for the stability of a tunnel is the rock mass, which accepts most or all of the distress caused by excavation of the tunnel opening by redistributing stress around the opening. The rock support and lining contribute mostly by providing a measure of confinement. A lining placed in an excavated opening that has reached stability (with or without initial rock support) will experience no stresses except due to self-weight. On the other hand, a lining placed in an excavated opening in an elastic rock mass at the time that 70 percent of all latent motion has taken place will experience stresses from the release of the remaining 30 percent of displacement. The actual stresses and displacements will depend on the modulus of the rock mass and that of the tunnel lining material. If the modulus or the in-situ stress is anisotropic, the lining will distort, as the lining material deforms as the rock relaxes. As the lining material pushes against the rock, the rock load increases.

13.10.7.2. Failure Modes for Concrete Linings

The rock load on tunnel ground support depends on the interaction between the rock and rock support, and overstress can often be alleviated by making the rock support more flexible. It is possible to redefine the safety factor for a lining by the ratio of the

stress that would cause failure and the actual induced stress for a particular failure mechanism. Failure modes for concrete linings include collapse, excessive leakage, and accelerated corrosion. Compressive yield in reinforcing steel or concrete is also a failure mode; however tension cracks in concrete usually do not result in unacceptable performance.

13.10.7.3. Following Loads

These loads persist independently of displacement, and include, for example, hydrostatic load from formation water; loads resulting from swelling and squeezing rock displacements, which are not usually uniform and can result in substantial distortions and bending failure of tunnel linings.

13.10.7.4. Linings subject to bending and distortion

In most cases, the rock is stabilized at the time the concrete lining is placed, and the lining will accept loads only from water pressure. However, reinforced concrete linings may be required to be designed for circumferential bending in order to minimize cracking and avoid excess distortions. [Figure 13.46](#) shows some general recommendations for selection of loads for design.

General Recommendations for Loads and Distortions

1. Minimum loading for bending: Vertical load uniformly distributed over the tunnel width, equal to a height of rock 0.3 times the height of the tunnel.
2. Shatter zone previously stabilized: Vertical, uniform load equal to 0.6 times the tunnel height.
3. Squeezing rock: Use pressure of 1.0 to 2.0 times tunnel height, depending on how much displacement and pressure relief is permitted before placement of concrete. Alternatively, use estimate based on elastoplastic analysis, with plastic radius no wider than one tunnel diameter.
4. For cases 1, 2, and 3, use side pressures equal to one-half the vertical pressures, or as determined from analysis with selected horizontal modulus. For excavation by explosives, increase values by 30 percent.
5. Swelling rock, saturated in situ: Use same as 3 above.
6. Swelling rock, unsaturated or with anhydrite, with free access to water: Use swell pressures estimated from swell tests.
7. Noncircular tunnel (horseshoe): Increase vertical loads by 50 percent,
8. Non-uniform grouting load, or loads due to void behind lining: Use maximum permitted grout pressure over area equal to one-quarter the tunnel diameter, maximum 1.5 m (5 ft).

Figure 13.46: General Recommendations for Loads and Distortions (After US Army COE EM 1110-2-2901, 1997)

Conditions causing circumferential bending in linings are as follows:

- Uneven support caused by a layer of rock of much lower modulus than the surrounding rock, or a void left behind the lining;
- Uneven loading caused by a volume of rock loosened after construction, or localized water pressure trapped in a void behind the lining;

- Displacements from uneven swelling or squeezing rock;
- Construction loads, such as from non-uniform grout pressures.

The most important types of methods for analyzing tunnel linings for bending and distortion are:

- Free-standing ring subject to vertical and horizontal loads (no ground interaction);
- Continuum mechanics (closed solutions)
- Loaded ring supported by springs simulating ground interaction (many structural engineering codes);
- Continuum mechanics (numerical codes).
- The designer must select the method which best approximates the character and complexity of the conditions and the tunnel shape and size.

1. Continuum Mechanics, Closed Solutions

Moments developed in a lining are dependent on the stiffness of the lining relative to that of rock. The relationship between relative stiffness and moment can be studied using the closed solution for elastic interaction between rock and lining. The equations for this solution and the basic assumptions are shown in [Figure 13.47](#). These assumptions are hardly ever met in real life, except when a lining is installed immediately behind the advancing face of a tunnel or shaft, before elastic stresses have reached a state of plane strain equilibrium. Nonetheless, the solution is useful for examining the effects of variations in important parameters. Note that the maximum moment is controlled by the flexibility ratio.

Analysis of Moments & Forces using FEM

Moments and forces in circular and noncircular tunnel linings can be determined using structural FEM computer programs. Such analyses have the following advantages:

- Variable properties can be given to rock as well as lining elements;
- Irregular boundaries and shapes can be handled;
- Incremental construction loads can be analyzed, including, for example, loads from backfill grouting;
- Two-pass lining interaction can also be analyzed.

[Figure 13.48](#) shows the FEM model for a two-pass lining system. The initial lining is an unbolted, segmental concrete lining, and the final lining is reinforced cast-in-place concrete with an impervious waterproofing membrane.

Rigid links are used to inter-connect the two linings at alternate nodes. These links transfer only axial loads and have no flexural stiffness and a minimum of axial deformation. Hinges are introduced at crown, invert and spring-lines of the initial lining to represent the joints between the segments.

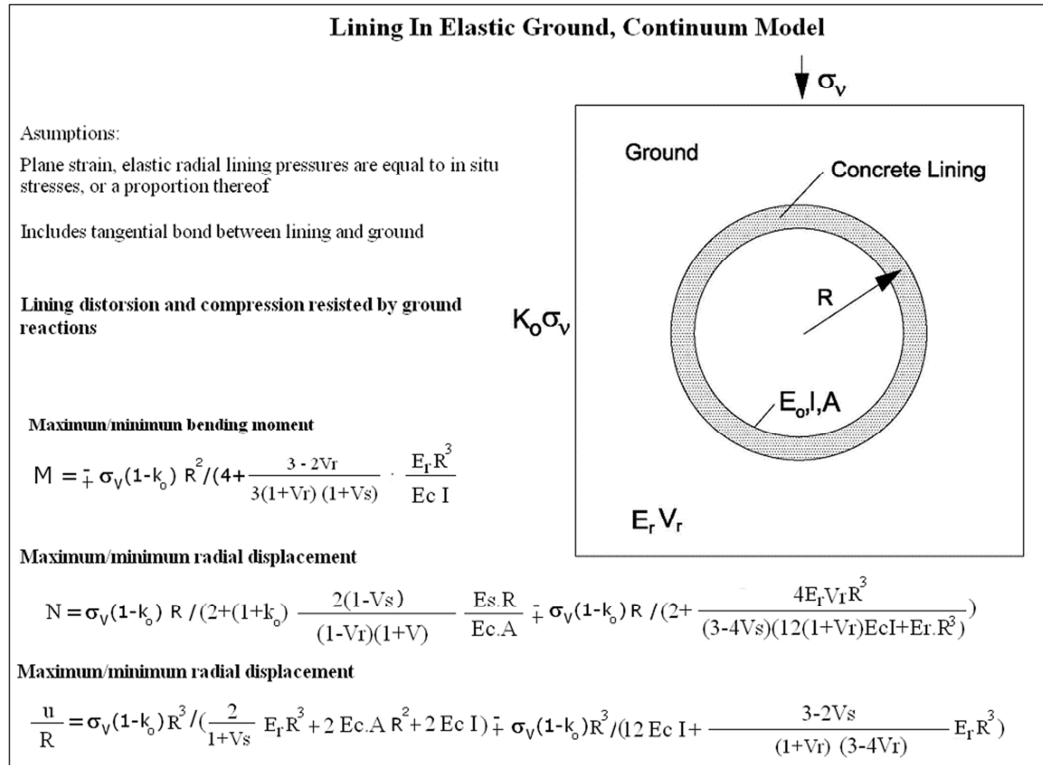


Figure 13.47: Lining in Elastic Ground, Continuum Model (After US Army COE EM 1110-2-2901, 1997)

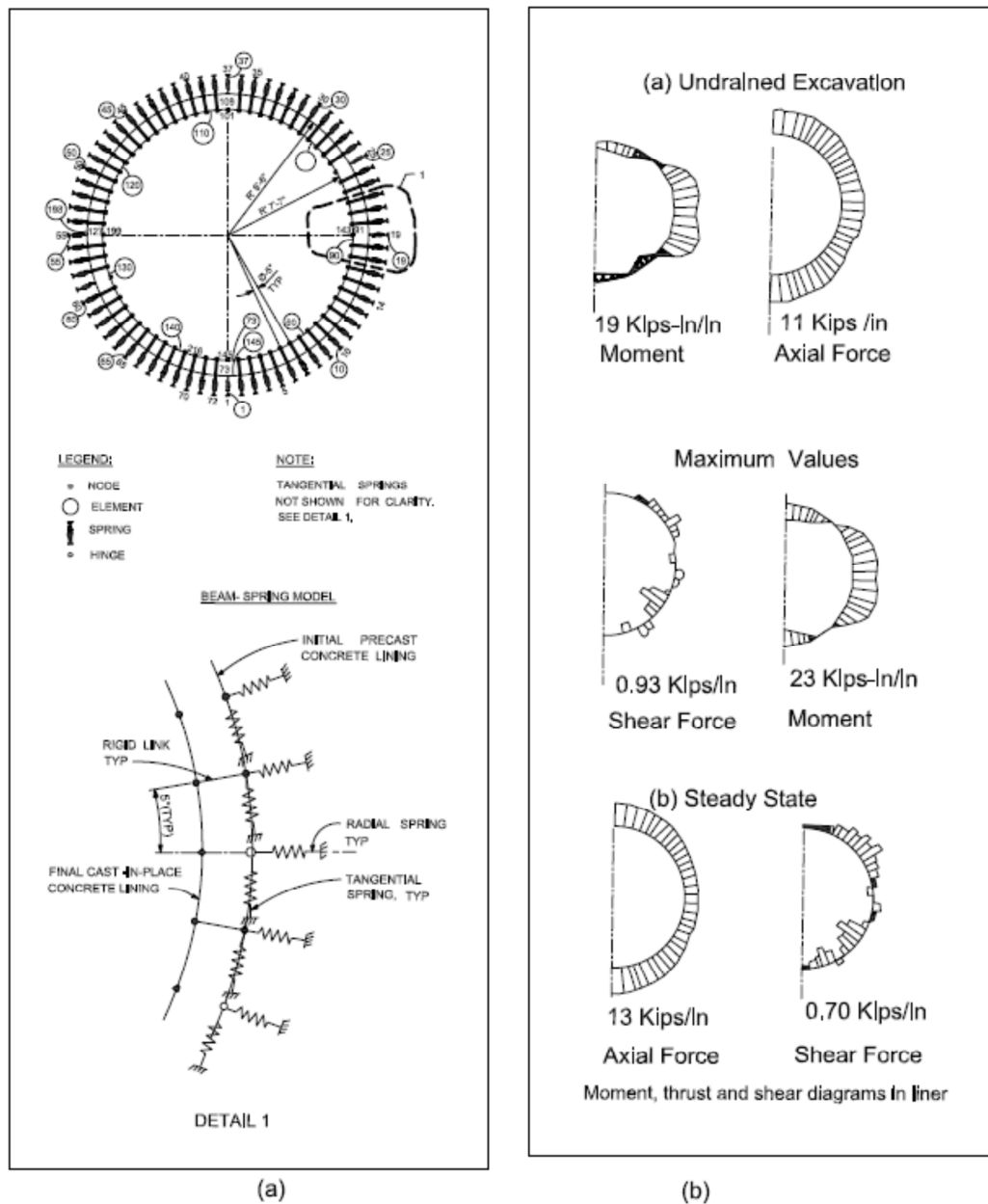


Figure 13.48: (a) Discretization of a two-pass lining system for Analysis, (b) Moments and Forces

2. Continuum Analysis, Numerical Solutions

Continuum analyses provide the complete stress state throughout the rock mass and the support structure. These stresses are used to calculate forces and bending moments in the components of the support structure.

The forces and moments give the designer information on the working load to be applied to the structure and can be used in the reinforced concrete design. [Figure 13.48\(b\)](#) shows a sample output of moment and force distribution in a lining of a circular tunnel under two different excavation conditions.

3. Design of Concrete Cross Section for Bending and Normal Force

Once bending moment and ring thrust in a lining have been determined, or a lining distortion estimated, based on rock-structure interaction, the lining must be designed to achieve acceptable performance.

Since the lining is subjected to combined normal force and bending, the analysis is conveniently carried out using the capacity-interaction curve, also called the moment-thrust diagram. The procedure for construction of the diagram in [Section 5](#) or in [ACI 318-05 \(ACI Committee 318, 2005\)](#) can be used. The interaction diagram displays the envelope of acceptable combinations of bending moment and axial force in a reinforced or unreinforced concrete member. As shown in [Figure 13.49](#), the allowable moment for low values of thrust increases with the thrust because it reduces the limiting tension across the member section. The maximum allowable moment is reached at the so-called balance point. For higher thrust, compressive stresses reduce the allowable moment. General equations to calculate points of the interaction diagram are shown in [Section 5](#).

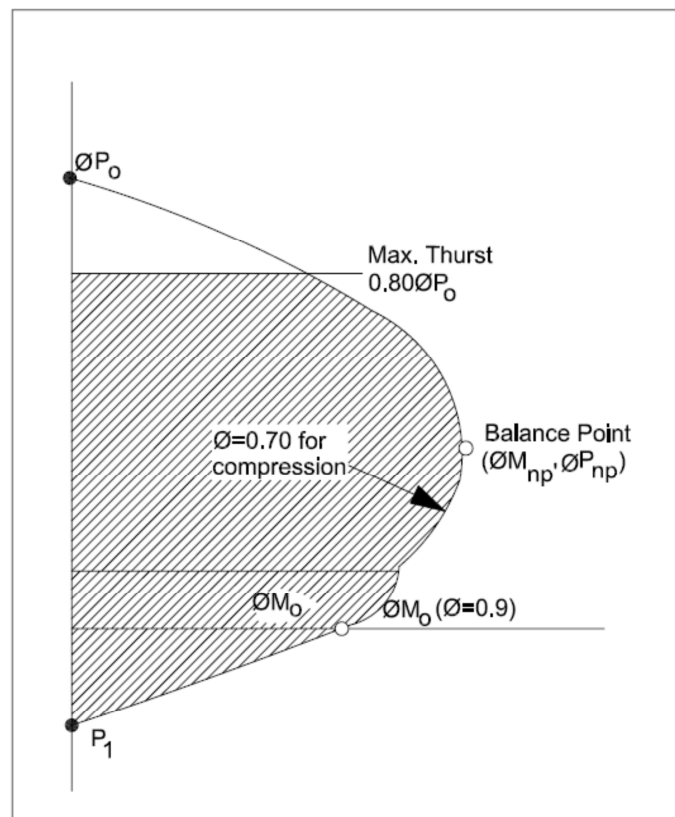


Figure 13.49: Capacity-Interaction Curve.

Interpretation of Analytical Results:

For all analytical methods, it is important to recognize that the precision of the analysis greatly exceeds the precision with which the controlling properties of the ground can be determined. Furthermore, a single lining system is commonly used for a long length of tunnel over which there are considerable variations in ground properties. Analytical properties are therefore useful for investigating the sensitivity of lining sections to variations of individual parameters, and for placing bounds on possible lining behavior. It should not be assumed that tunnel lining analyses can determine

actual stresses in real tunnels with anything like the precision associated with the structural analysis of building frames subject to well-defined loads.

Several investigators have evaluated how the results of various theoretical models relate to the field performance of actual linings. A general summary of lining design models, based on continuum mechanics principles, has been given by **Duddeck and Erdman (1982)**, and a number of design assumptions have been investigated and compared with tunneling practice by **Schmidt (1984)**, **Kuesel (1983)** has discussed the practical constraints on model applications and has summarized several simplified relationships between ground loads and the dimensions of typical lining systems.

Application of Codes:

Structural codes should be used cautiously. Most codes have been written for aboveground structures on the basis of assumptions that do not consider ground-lining interaction. Accordingly, the blind application of structural design codes is likely to produce limits on the capacity of linings that are not warranted in light of the substantial contributions from the ground and the important influence of construction method on both the capacity and cost of linings.

Shear stresses resulting from the analysis may be compared directly with the shear strength calculated from Article **5.8.2** of **Section 5** or **ACI 318-05** which takes into account the effect of thrust. If part of the lining for which the shear is checked is near a corner or a knee of an arch that may be considered a support for the member, the shear should be checked at a distance equal to the effective depth from the face of the support. If there is no such support, as in a circular tunnel, shear should be checked at the point of its maximum value.

Shear strength of embedded steel supports may be added to that of the concrete sections. It is not recommended that shear reinforcement be provided as stirrups, and therefore, the thickness would normally be adjusted to resist shear if needed. Concentrated loads from rock wedges may cause high shear at their edges, and this condition should be checked.

13.10.8. Excavation Methods

The Design Engineer should evaluate the following three excavation methods, which may be used separately or in combination:

- TBM, for full-face, circular sections only;
- Road header, for partial face advance, any cross section, or full-face for small sections;
- Drill-and-blast, for full or partial face advance, any cross section.

13.10.8.1. TBM Excavation

In general, TBM tunnels have high start-up (pre-excavation) costs and long lead time; the high rate of advance reduces the final per meter excavation cost. The total machine length (TBM proper plus necessary trailing gear) may approach 305 m in length.

The principal constraint on road headers is that they currently are usable only in rock of less than 83,000 kN/m² compressive strength. Stronger rock can be cut or chipped away if it is sufficiently fractured. With favorable geology and properly sized and equipped machine, they are capable of advances of up to 30.5m per day. The manner of cutting results in fairly small sized muck fragments. Mechanically collected

in the invert apron of the road header, they are delivered to the rear of the machine by an integral conveyor.

13.10.8.2. Drill and blast Excavation

This is the conventional method for non-circular cross sections and also for circular tunnels too short to amortize the high startup costs of a TBM. Drill-and-blast method should also be used when encountering great geologic variety, or other specific condition, such as: mixed-face, squeezing ground, etc.

13.10.8.3. Advancing the Face

Full-face Advance (excavating the complete tunnel section in one operation) should be recommended, when possible, depending on the geology, "active span" of opening (width of tunnel, or the distance from support to the face, whichever is less), and "stand-up time" (the time an opening can stand unsupported). The Lauffer diagram (Figure 13.50) displays, qualitatively, the range of stand-up times for various geologies. The figure is based on experience in the Alps; 'A' represents "best rock mass", and 'G' represents "worst rock mass"; shaded area indicates practical relations.

Thus, an increase in tunnel size leads to a drastic reduction in stand-up time, since the allowable size of the face obviously must be related to allowable active span.

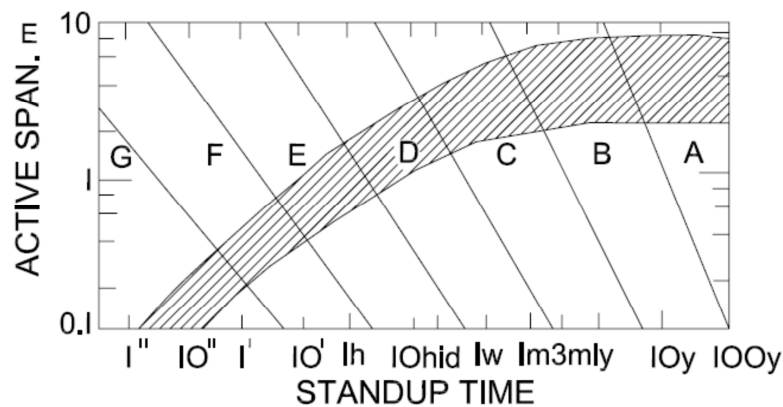


Figure 13.50: Active span versus Stand-up Time (Brekke and Howard, 1972).

13.10.8.4. Heading and Bench

When stand-up time is not adequate to install support, the round length should be shortened or partial face advance should be used to reduce cycle time. The most common approach is heading and bench.

A top heading is excavated first; this can extend the full length of the tunnel or may be as short as a single round length. Heading size should depend on the time required to install necessary support or reinforcement for the arch. Once the roof or back is secure, the bench can be excavated.

13.10.8.5. Multi-drift Advance

If stand-up time is insufficient for heading and bench advance, either because of the geology or large spans, the top heading should be divided into two or more drifts.

Advantages to doing this include:

1. Increase in stand-up time from reduced span;

2. Decrease in mucking time from reduced volume;
3. Reduction in time required to install support or reinforcement.

13.10.8.6. NATM

NATM was discussed earlier in Article 13.9, “Soft Ground Tunneling”. As discussed here, it is a multi-drift approach based on observational procedure for verifying adequacy of installed support. Best judgment and past experience were combined to select an initial drift size and accompanying stabilization system. Measurements were made to determine if inward movements were decreasing or if additional stabilization was necessary. Theory was developed gradually and more difficult ground conditions were evaluated.

Shotcrete and rock bolts should be used; they are available, inexpensive, and can easily be augmented when the initial array must be reinforced. Shotcrete can also be used to temporarily stabilize the face of each advance, when necessary.

Lattice girders are a frequent component of NATM, and consist of three or four sizeable concrete reinforcing bars arranged in triangular or trapezoidal section, pre-bent to the shape of the excavation periphery, and joined together into a pre-fabricated unit with continuous small-diameter lattice bars. After erection, the girder is filled and encased in shotcrete, and becomes an integral part of the initial support membrane.

13.10.9. Effect of Excavation Method on Design

Unless the specifics of a tunnel clearly indicate the superiority of one excavation method over the other, the contract documents should leave the choice to the contractor. However, the Tunnel Designer should consider and anticipate the following:

- Use of different stabilization patterns for a TBM drive than for drill-and-blast excavation (for example, use of circular steel ribs throughout, rather than only where required by bad ground).
- Preclusion of shotcreting within 152m of the cutter head of a TBM because the bulk of the machine inhibits access to the tunnel walls and shotcrete rebound would foul the TBM.
- Use of Pattern Bolting in rock of high mass strength, where the TBM is usually advanced by thrusting outward laterally with gripper jacks to provide the necessary resistance to the thrust of the TBM ram jacks.
- Excavation of TBM tunnel full-length for the largest diameter required (i.e., steel rib or similar system) when tunnels have both good and bad reaches. The rib or similar system then must be used full length, unless the TBM tail skin is slotted to permit rock bolting, or is equipped with both thrust jack and gripper propulsion systems and time is taken to change over from one system to the other, when necessary.

13.11. MIXED-FACE OR DIFFICULT GROUND

The Tunnel Designer should consider factors related to:

1) Instability

Can arise from lack of stand-up time in: non-cohesive sands and gravels (especially below the water table) and weak cohesive soils with high water content, or in blocky

and seamy rock; adverse orientation of joint and fracture planes; or the effects of flowing water

2) Heavy Loading

For a tunnel driven at depth in weak rock, squeezing, popping or explosive failure of the rock mass may be experienced due to heavy loading. For combinations of parallel and intersecting tunnels, loadings should be evaluated carefully by the Tunnel Designer.

3) Obstacles and Constraints

Special consideration should be given to natural obstacles, such as: boulder beds, in association with running silt and caverns in limestone. In urban areas, potential constraints include: abandoned foundations and piles, support systems for buildings in use and for future development.

4) Physical Conditions

The designer should consider the potential for noxious gases in areas affected by recent tectonic activity or continuing geothermal activity; rock of organic origin; elevated temperatures; and contaminated soil.

5) Mixed-face Tunneling

This term should be taken to refer to situations, such as:

- when the lower part of the working face is in rock while the upper part is in soil, or vice versa;
- hard rock ledges in a soft matrix;
- beds of hard rock alternating with soft, decomposed, or weathered rock; or
- non-cohesive granular soil above hard clay;
- boulders in a soft matrix; or hard nodular inclusions in soft rock (flint beds in chalk, or garnet in schist).

Consideration should be given to the potential for water flow into the tunnel once the mixed condition is exposed, increasing further destabilization potential. Groundwater control and adequate, continuous support of the weak material should be used to stabilize the hazard. The best time to seal off groundwater is before it starts to flow into the tunnel; otherwise, a bulkhead should be needed to stop it from within the tunnel.

6) Drill-and-Blast Tunneling

In squeezing ground, a closer approximation to a circular tunnel shape offers improved stability and longer tunnel life over variations to the horseshoe shape offered by this traditional method.

The Tunnel designer should consider techniques against excessive ground loading on the tunnel, such as:

- concrete-filled drifts;
- steel supports, and;
- use of yielding supports when ground conditions make it imperative to provide for greater convergence for stress relief; support system provides a relatively low initial support pressure, and permits almost uniform stress relief for the rock in a controlled manner, around the entire tunnel circumference, while preventing the rock from raveling ([Figure 13.51](#) and [Figure 13.52](#)).

Long-term support resistance should be increased by adding small amounts of shotcrete at the junction between the side wall and the invert slab and in the roof arch, as illustrated in [Figure 13.52](#). This additional shotcrete should be applied at a distance from the working face that will avoid interference with main production operations.

7) TBM Tunneling in Squeezing Ground

In fault crossings, water inflow carrying sand and fine rock tend to jam the cutters; cutter head design should allow only limited projection of the cutters forward of the cutter head, using a face shield ahead of the structural support element. Design should permit changing of worn cutters from within the tunnel, requiring no access in front of the cutter head.

A short shrinkable shield should be used on the machine, to prevent closure of the ground around the cutter head shield and consequent immobilization of the TBM from the load on the shield system being too high to permit the machine to advance.

It is practical to delay major support installation until a high percentage of the total strain has taken place and ground loading has been reduced, to prevent immediate instability from squeezing of the soft rock.

TBM Tunneling System: The Tunnel designer should note that the following TBM components are affected by the difference between tunneling in squeezing and non-squeezing ground:

- i. *Cutter head* - while the cutter head design is selected on the basis of the ground to be penetrated, the gauge cutters should be designed to be changed from behind, and a lighter false face should be provided so that the cutter disks protrude only a short distance. However, in weak ground a closed face shield should be used.
- ii. *Propulsion* - Limit the bearing pressure on the tunnel walls to prevent failure of the weak rock, even under light loads. Use of multiple grippers covering most of the circumference should be considered; the grippers should be of limited length to minimize uneven bearing on the squeezing rock face.

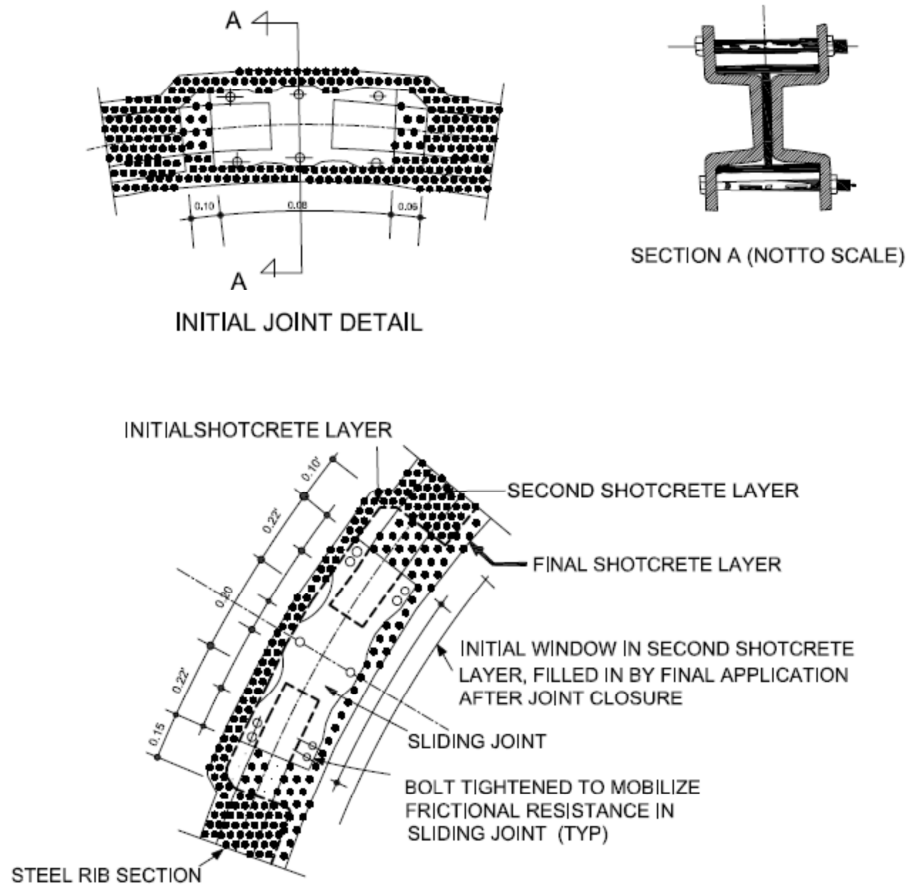


Figure 13.51: Details of Yielding Sets at Yacambu (after Bickel et Al., 1996)

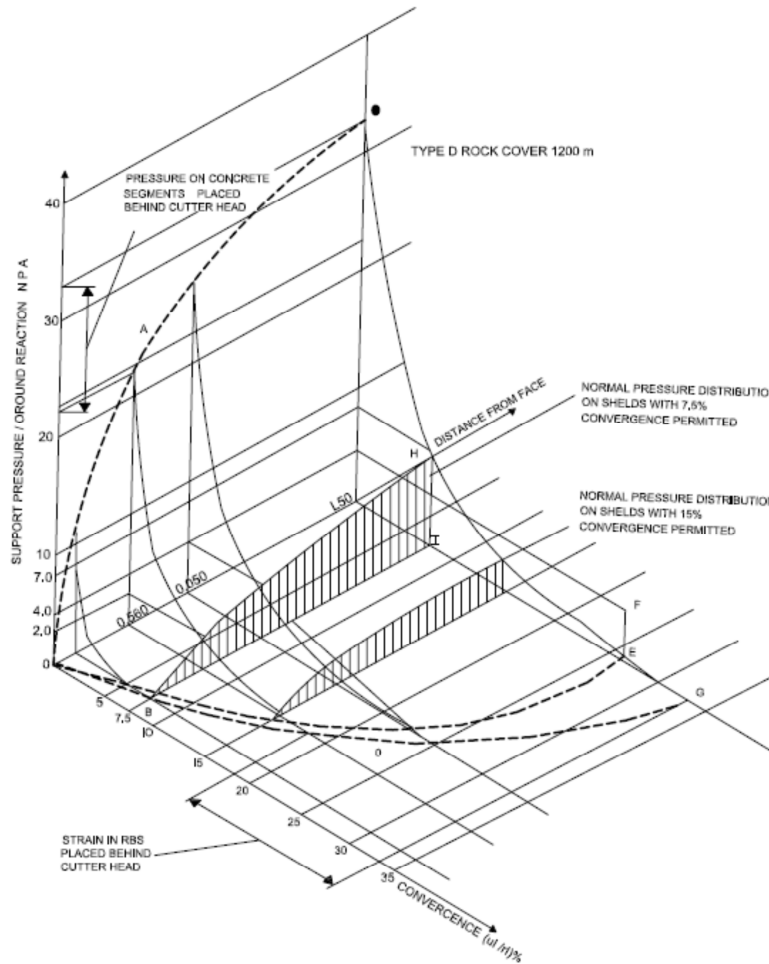


Figure 13.52: Relationship/ Convergence, Distance behind Working Face & Ground Pressure for Poor Quality Rock with 1,200 m of Cover (after Senthivel, '94)

Erector: The erector should be free to move along the tunnel, mounted on the conveyor truss, for complete flexibility in selecting the point at which ring erection is to take place.

Spoil Removal: conventional conveyor to rail car systems, or single conveyor systems designed for the tunnel size selected, are appropriate.

Back-up System: any ancillary equipment should be kept clear of the area between the grippers and the ring erection area at track level.

13.12. SHAFTS

13.12.1. General

Tunnels built through urban areas should consider using shafts to reach the working area and to provide for muck removal to minimize interference with existing services.

Temporary tunnel shafts are used by the contractor during construction while permanent shafts will become an integral part of the tunnel structure.

13.12.2. Shaft Excavation in Soft Ground

13.12.2.1. Installation Rate:

The rate of primary shaft lining installation should depend on the type of lining and the nature of the soil medium; installation every 1.2 or 1.5 m of advance is normal, albeit, shafts have been sunk up to 9 m without support.

13.12.2.2. Shaft Configuration:

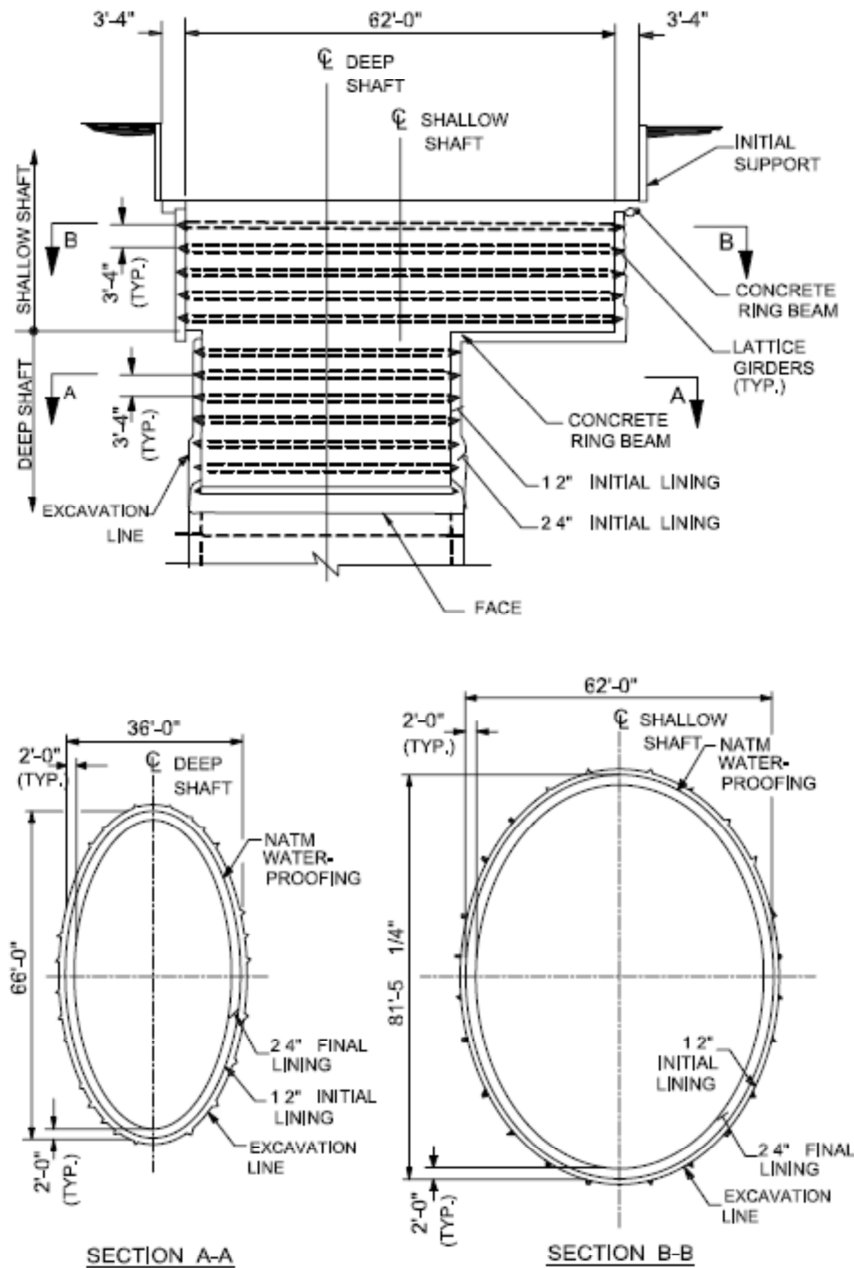
Permanent shafts should be round, oval (NATM) or rectangular in shape and usually will have a final lining of concrete, which may be cast, either with forms on both sides or on the inside only, with the ground support system on the outside.

13.12.2.3. Shaft Support System:

The shaft support system should be designed to prevent plastic yielding during shaft sinking in soft ground, and damage to existing structures. The choice of sheeting and bracing system should be dictated by soil characteristics, shaft depth, diameter and economic factors, and should include consideration of: Timber Sheet Piling; Steel Sheet Piling; Soldier Piles and Lagging; Liner Plates; Horizontal Ribs and Vertical Lining; Slurry Walls; and a NATM Shaft Support System (shown in [Figure 13.53](#)).

13.12.2.4. Excavation in Soft Wet Ground:

Design of shaft excavation in soft wet ground should evaluate: methods of lowering the groundwater table; Open Pumping; use of a well point system, or deep wells; Soil Freezing; use of slurry; grouting; sinking a pneumatic caisson; and sinking a dredged drop caisson with a tremie concrete seal ([Figure 13.54](#) and [Figure 13.55](#)).



NOTE: FINAL CONCRETE LINING
IS NON-REINFORCED

Figure 13.53: NATM System Shaft (final concrete lining is non-reinforced)

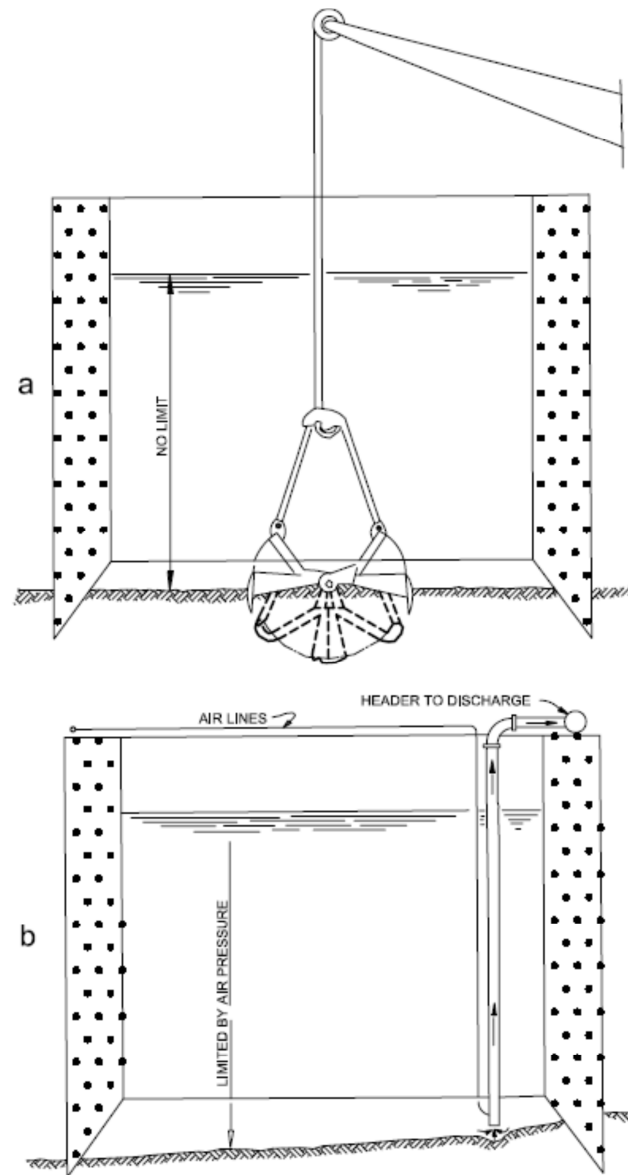


Figure 13.54: Schematic Representation of Dredged Caisson; a) Excavation by Clamshell, b) by Airlift.

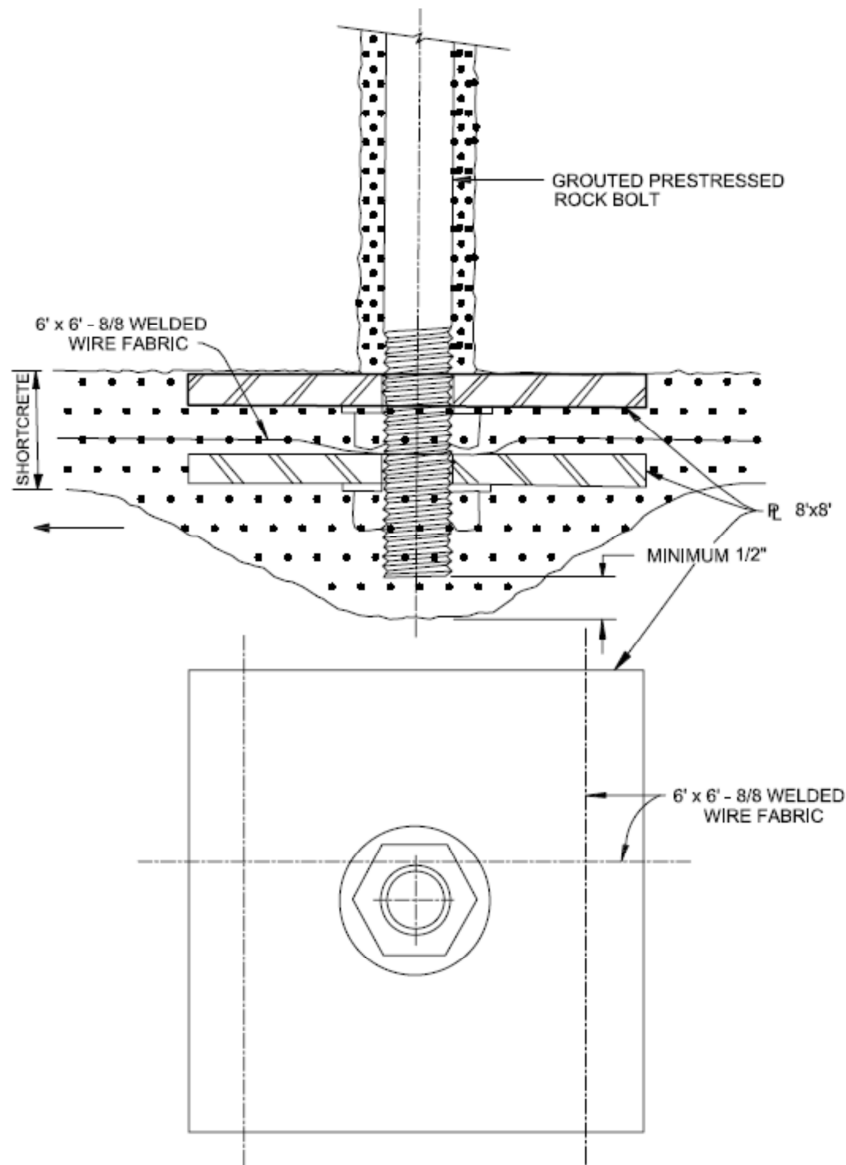


Figure 13.55: Typical Installation of Rock Bolts, Wire Mesh, and Shotcrete, Washington Metro.

13.12.3. Shaft Excavation in Rock

Shaft excavation for tunnels are usually less than 36.6 m deep and, in rock, should be excavated by the drill-and-blast method. The designer should refer to standard Foundation Engineering texts for shaft construction in rock, and temporary and permanent walls through weathered rock.

13.12.3.1. Temporary Supports

In sedimentary, fractured or blocky rock, rock support should be placed quickly after excavation, when required. Evaluation of support type should include consideration of: Steel ribs and liner plates, steel ribs with lagging; rock bolts, with or without wire mesh; or shotcrete. Generally, all the various types of supports described

earlier for support of soft ground shafts can be used (with some modification) in rock shafts.

13.12.4. Final Lining of Shafts

The planned permanent usage of the shaft should determine the type of final lining; however, concrete or rock bolts and wire mesh/shotcrete lining should be considered.

13.12.5. The New Vertical Shield Tunnel

This is a new system where a shield machine bores upward to excavate a vertical shaft from the shielded tunnel with the primary lining.

The method has achieved successful results in reducing construction time and costs, enhancing work safety, minimizing public environmental hazard caused by construction noise, vibration, etc.

A synopsis of the method as used in excavating shafts on the Bandai-Hannan Trunk Sewer project is given by Konoha & Yamamoto (2002).

13.13. CUT-AND-COVER TUNNEL STRUCTURES

13.13.1. Tunnel Design - Structural

13.13.1.1. General

The cut-and-cover structure should be designed to safely resist all loads expected over its life; the principal loads are: long-term development of water and earth pressures; dead load, including weight of earth cover; surface surcharge load; and live load. Load categories should be in accordance with loads in Article 10.6.1 in Section 10, “Buried Structures” and should represent the requirements of the particular cut-and-cover structure under consideration.

The provisions for earth loads given in Article 3.10.5 shall not apply to tunnels.

- C The earth load to be carried by the tunnel liner is a function of the type of soil. In granular soil with little or no cohesion, the load is a function of the angle of internal friction of the soil and the diameter of the tunnel. In cohesive soils such as clays, the load to be carried by the tunnel liner is dependent on the shearing strength of the soil above the roof of the tunnel.

13.13.2. Dead Load

Dead load should consist of the following:

1. Weight of the basic structure;
2. Weight of secondary elements permanently supported by the structure;
3. Weight of the earth cover supported by the roof of the structure and acting as a simple gravity load.
4. In order to factor in future loadings over shallow vehicular tunnels (e.g., special vehicle loadings in excess of normal axle loads, and future building loads, etc.), the structure should be designed for a minimum vertical load equivalent 2.45 m of earth cover, regardless of actual cover.

13.13.3. Live Load, Impact and Other Dynamic Forces

The provisions of Article 10.6.1 shall apply.

13.13.4. Horizontal Earth Pressure

Horizontal earth pressure, lateral pressure due to both retained soil and retained water in soil when water is present, may include the effect of surcharge loading resulting from adjacent building foundation loading, surface traffic loading, or other surface live loading. All of these components should be evaluated both in terms of present and future conditions, particularly groundwater levels.

When future changes could adversely affect the subsurface structure, needed protective measures to mitigate adverse effects might not be foreseen, and might be extremely costly to add to an existing structure.

The short-term and long-term changes in horizontal earth pressure should be considered, and cut-and-cover tunnels should be designed for both short-term and long-term loading. Immediately following construction, the actual short-term earth pressure may be considerably less than long-term design pressure.

To provide a competent factor of safety against future mishap resulting from adjacent construction, the tunnels should be proportioned for side sway, if a single-story structure; and side sway should be considered in the upper story only, in the case of two or more stories.

The provisions of Article [10.4.1](#) shall apply. When more refined methods of soil analysis are not employed, the earth pressure may be taken as:

$$W_E = C_{dt} g \gamma_s S \times 10^{-9} \quad (13.1)$$

where:

- g = acceleration of gravity (m/sec.²)
- C_{dt} = load coefficient for tunnel installation specified in [Figure 13.56](#)
- γ_s = total density of soil (kg/m³)
- W_E = earth pressure at the crown (MPa)
- S = tunnel diameter or span (mm)

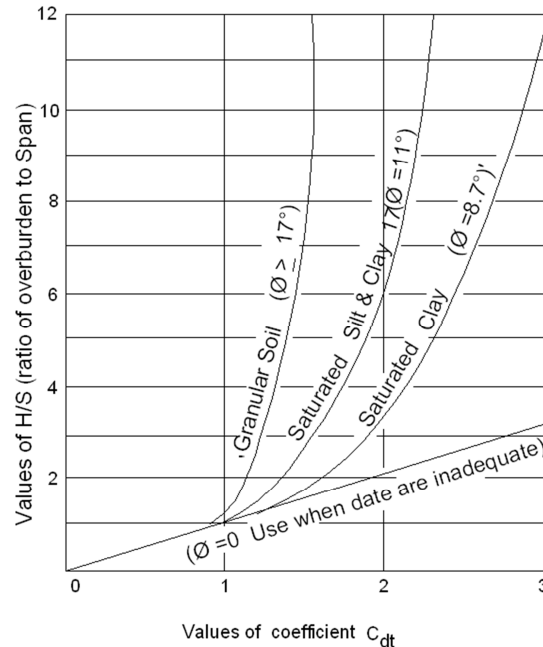


Figure 13.56: Diagram for Coefficient C_{dt} for Tunnel in Soil.

in which:

H = height of soil over top of tunnel (mm)

- C Eq. (13.1) is a form of the Marston formula. It proportions the amount of total overburden pressure acting on the tunnel based on the internal friction angle of the soil to be tunneled.
- C In the absence of adequate borings and soil tests, use $\phi_f = 0$ when calculating W_E .

13.13.5. Buoyancy

When the groundwater table lies above the bottom of the invert or base slab of a subsurface structure, an upward pressure on the bottom of the base slab, equal to the piezometric head at that level, should be accounted for. When B (the buoyant force per lineal feet of structure) exceeds DL_{min} (the reliable minimum weight of the structure plus the fill above the structure), other resisting features should be incorporated into the design, including the following:

- The weight of the structure may be increased by thickening the walls, roof or base slab; the base slab may also be widened to increase the weight of earth resistance;
- Tension piles designed to provide a tensile force on the base slab should be provided; both steel piles and precast concrete piles have been used in this application;
- Tie-down anchors, resembling permanent tieback anchors, should be provided; drilling for the anchors is accomplished at some convenient time after the base slab is placed. The anchor heads are located in formed recesses in the base slab. After completion of the tie-down installation, the recess is filled with concrete. The type of anchor used will depend in part on whether the anchor can be founded in bedrock beneath the structure, or in competent soil.

13.13.6. Flood

Where a potential for river floods, or other flooding that could add loads to subsurface structures, the design for the structures should allow for this loading, as required by the particular type of structure and the conditions affecting each location.

13.13.7. Shrinkage and Thermal Forces

Shrinkage forces and thermal forces between transverse joints should be accounted for by the longitudinal reinforcement in the walls, roof, and invert slab; the stresses produced by these forces should not enter into frame analysis of the structure (as they are typically normal to the principal stresses caused by DL , LL , and I).

13.13.8. Loading Cases

The particular load cases to be analyzed should depend on the type of structure, its location, the type of ground in which the structure is founded, location of the groundwater table, and other local factors.

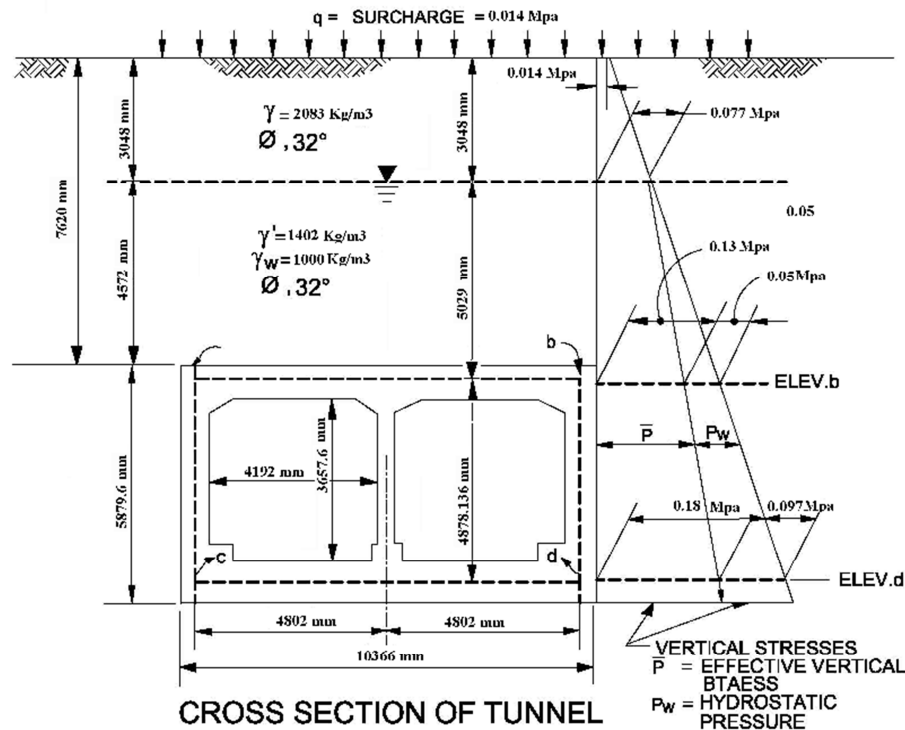
All reasonable foreseeable temporary and permanent loading cases that would affect the design of the structure should be investigated.

13.13.9. Frame Analysis

Loads and pressures representing each loading case are applied, and the shears, thrusts and bending moments for each element of the frame are determined through rigid frame analysis using commonly accepted methodology (usually contained in structural analysis computer programs).

Except for particularly wide invert spans, it should be assumed that the vertical reactions are uniformly distributed over the bottom of the invert slab, conservatively resulting in maximum slab bending moments.

Figure 13.57 and Figure 13.58 contain illustrations of three loading cases applied to a reinforced concrete structure and the configuration of each resulting bending moment diagram.



ASSUMED SOIL PROPERTIES

SOIL UNIFORMLY NON-COHESIVE, $\Phi=32^\circ$ (ANGLE OF INTERNAL FRICTION)
 $\gamma = 2083 \text{ Kg/m}^3$ (MOIST UNIT WEIGHT), $\gamma' = 1402 \text{ Kg/m}^3$ (BOUYANT UNIT WEIGHT)
 $\gamma_w = 1000 \text{ Kg/m}^3$ UNIT WEIGHT OF WATER.

k_a = ACTIVE PRESSURE COEFFICIENT=0.31.

k_{max} = MAXIMUM LONG TERM HORIZONTAL PRESSURE COEFFICIENT.

ASSUM FOR THIS ILLUSTRATION THAT THE GEOTECHNICAL CONSULTANT RECOMMENDS $k_{max} = 1.3 k_a = 1.3(1 - \sin \Phi) = 0.61$.

FULL VERTICAL ROOF LOAD

EARTH COVER $3.048 \times 2083 + 5.029 \times (1402 - 1000) = 0.0821 \text{ Mpa}$.
 ROOF SLAB $\dots\dots\dots = 0.0215 \text{ Mpa}$.
 SURCHARGE $\dots\dots\dots = 0.014 \text{ Mpa}$.
 TOTAL = 0.1175 Mpa.

VERTICAL INVERT REACTION (CASE 2)

MODIFY INVERT REACTION AS REQUIRED TO ACCOUNT FOR UNBALANCED HORIZONTAL LOADING

VERTICAL STRESSES IN SOIL

AT ELEV. b $P = 2083 \times 3.048 + 0.014 + 1402 \times 5.029 = 13400 \text{ Kg/m}^2 = 0.134 \text{ Mpa}$. $P_w = 5.029 \times 1000 = 5029 \text{ Kg/m}^2 = 0.05029 \text{ Mpa}$.

AT ELEV. d $P = 13400 + 1402 \times 4.878 = 20239 \text{ Kg/m}^2 = 0.202 \text{ Mpa}$.

HORIZONTAL PRESSURES ON TUNNEL STRUCTURE

LET P_1 = MAXIMUM LONG TERM HORIZONTAL PRESSURE

$P_1 = (K_{max})(P) + P_w$

AT ELEV b $P_1 = 0.61 \times 0.134 + 0.05 = 0.1317 \text{ Mpa}$.

AND THUS AT ELEV b P_2 .

Figure 13.57: Illustrative Design Calculations for a Cut-and-Cover Box Structure (Bickel et Al., 1996)

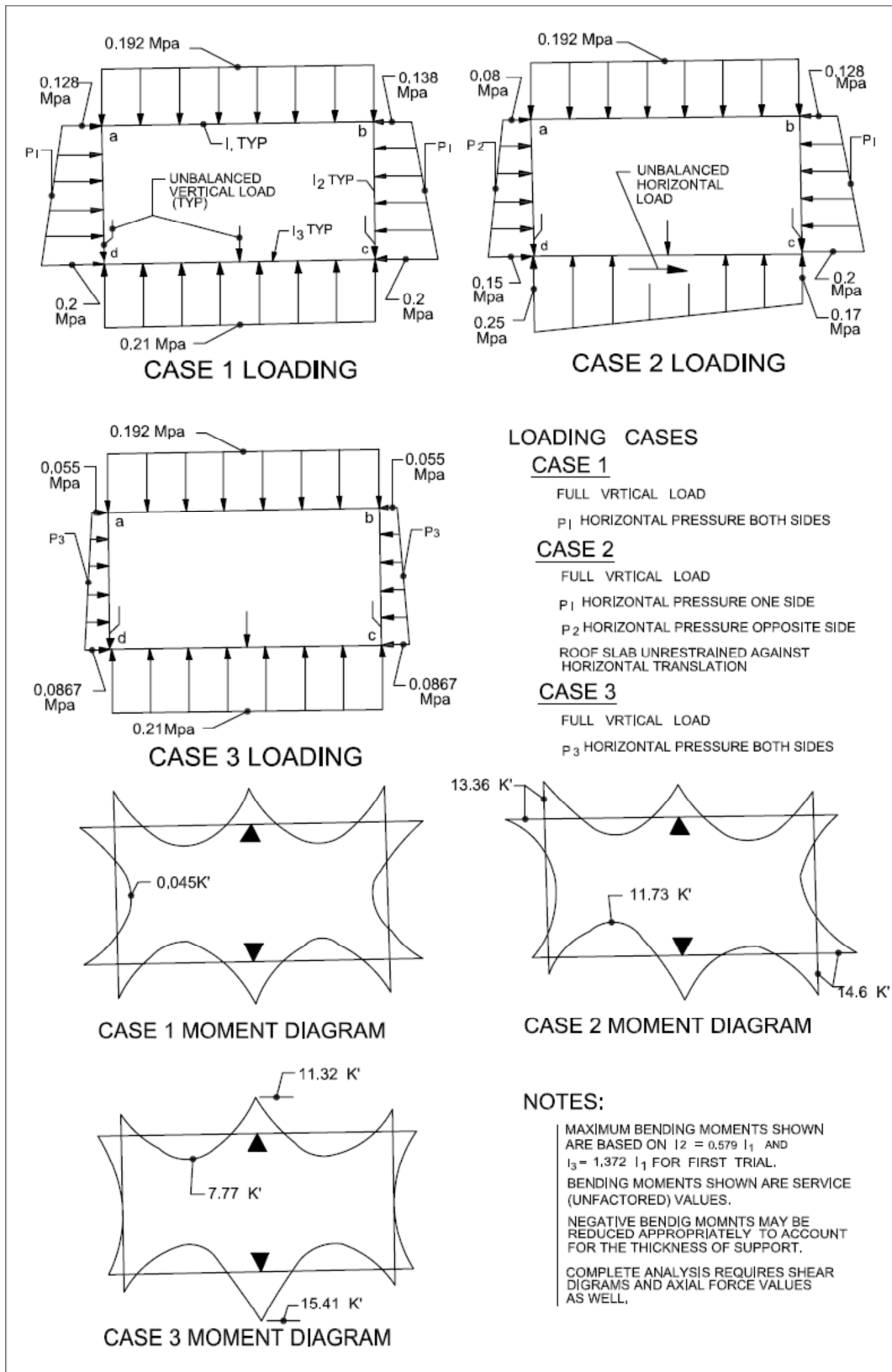


Figure 13.58: Illustrative Design Calculations for a Cut-and-Cover Box Structure (Bickel et Al., 1996)

It should be noted that in frame analysis, the cracked moment of inertia (I_e) is typically much less than the gross moment of inertia (I_g). If strains are not a concern, gross values of EI should be used since only relative internal reactions (forces and moments) are desired.

13.13.10. Reinforced Concrete Design

Design should be carried out according to [Section 5](#) or **SBC 304** in the design of reinforced concrete for cut-and-cover road tunnels. The design must also conform to all local and other mandated codes, except when particular provisions of those codes can be shown not to be applicable.

Where earthquake forces are a fact or, the structure should be designed for a desired degree of ductility and toughness as well. To incorporate these provisions into reinforced concrete design, authoritative and pertinent literature on the subject of seismic design should be consulted.

Minimum requirements for shrinkage and temperature reinforcement, as specified by [Section 5](#) or **SBC 304**, have not been considered applicable for cut-and-cover road tunnels.

For the design of road tunnel walls and roof slabs, with transverse joints about 15 m apart, it is common to provide temperature and shrinkage reinforcement, on both faces of the wall or slab, in the amount of 80 to 100 percent of Article [5.10.6](#). Treatment of invert slabs has been similar to that of walls and roof slabs. In some cases, sub grade drag may need to be investigate

13.13.11. Shoring Systems

To prevent detrimental settlement of the ground, utilities, and adjacent structures, temporary walls or shoring walls have to be in place before significant cut-and-cover excavation commences.

The design of the support system should consider factors including the following:

- Physical properties of the soil throughout and beneath the cut;
- Position of the groundwater table during construction;
- Width and depth of excavation;
- Configuration of the subsurface structure to be constructed within the cut;
- Size, foundation design and proximity of adjacent structures; .
- Number, size and type of utilities crossing the proposed excavation, or adjacent to the excavation;
- Requirements for street decking across the excavation;
- Traffic and construction equipment surcharge adjacent to the excavation;
- Noise restrictions in urban areas.

Authoritative and pertinent literature on the subject of shoring walls should be consulted for types of walls and wall support; design; and performance of shoring systems.

13.13.12. Decking

Decking consists of deck framing and roadway decking.

[Figure 13.59](#)(a and b) illustrate a typical general arrangement for street decking over a cut-and-cover excavation.

For cut-and-cover road tunnels, deck framing should be designed for MOMRA loading, or for loading due to construction equipment that will operate on the deck, whichever is greater.

Allowable stresses in the deck framing are limited to basic unit stresses. For deck beams, maximum deflection due to service live load and impact equal to $1/600$ of the span is usually permitted.

When the live loads are construction equipment and the deck is not carrying public traffic, permissible deflection due to service live load and impact can be increased to $1/500$ of the deck beam span, and the allowable stress on the webs of cap beams may be increased by 20%.

[Figure 13.59](#)(c) illustrates an application where the structural steel deck beams are utilized also as struts so that the deck structure becomes the uppermost bracing tier.

13.13.13. Excavation and Groundwater Control

13.13.13.1. Internally Braced Excavations

[Figure 13.60](#) shows the general construction sequence typically employed during construction of a cut-and-cover road tunnel structure. The two most commonly used pieces of equipment for excavating braced cuts are the backhoe and the clamshell bucket. Extensible, vertical or inclined belt conveyors have also been employed to, for example, raise excavated material from the hole and deposit into a truck-loading bin.

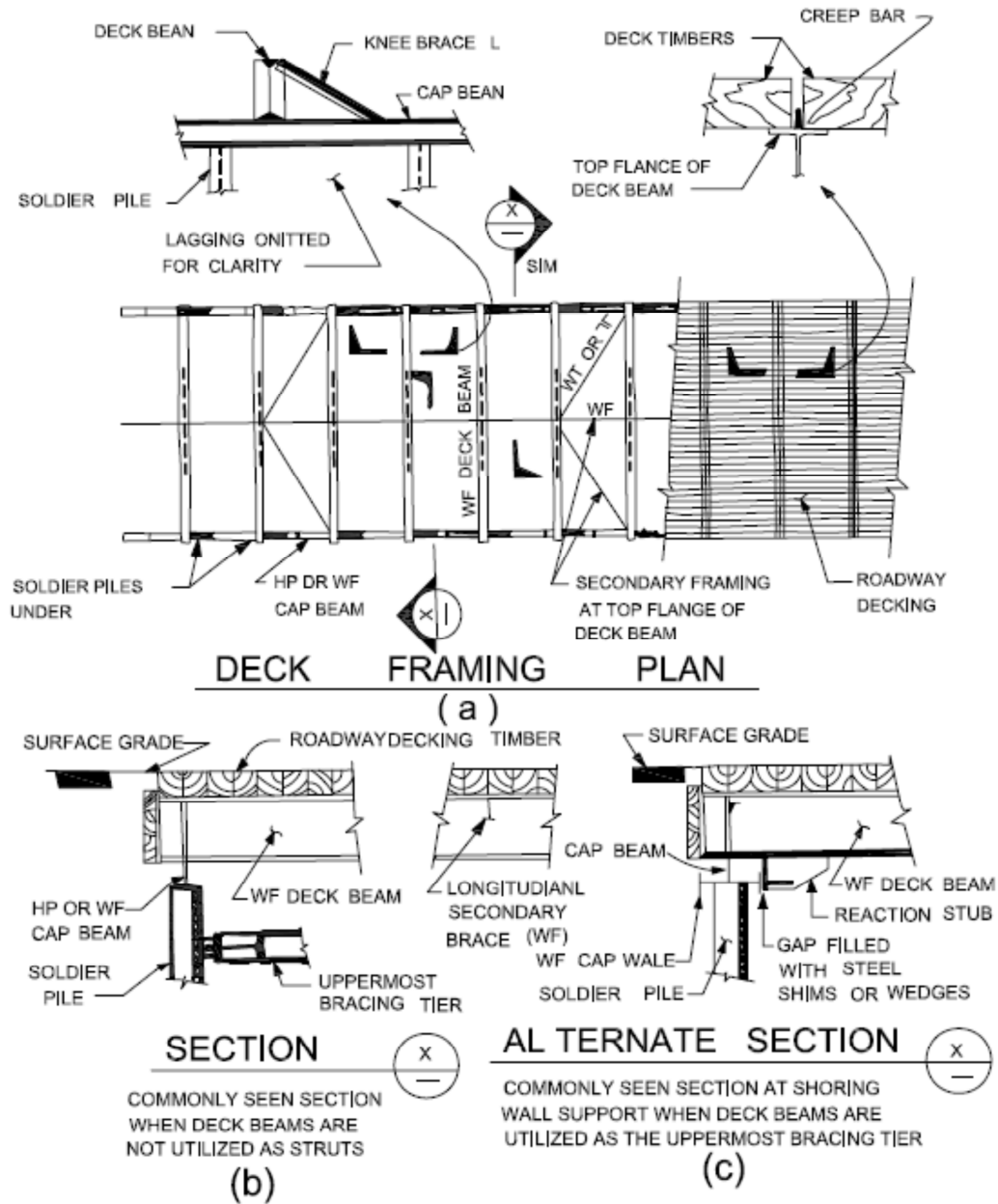
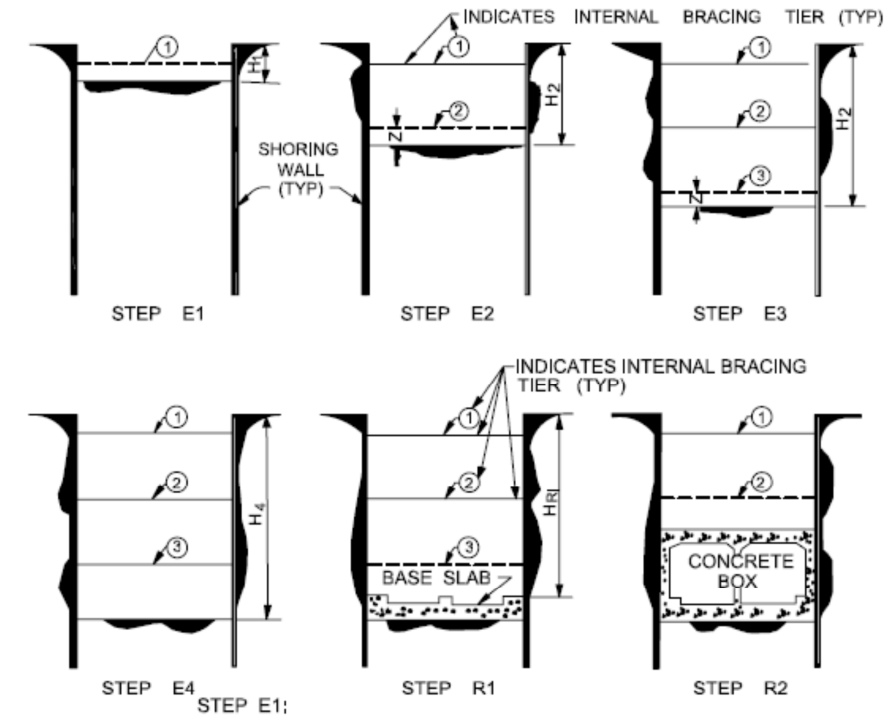


Figure 13.59: Street Decking - Commonly Seen Framing Plan and Sections (Bickel et al., 1996)



GENERAL CONSTRUCTION SEQUENCE

STEP E1: EXCAVATE TO DEPTH H_1 AND INSTALL TIER NO 1.

STEP E2: EXCAVATE TO DEPTH H_2 AND INSTALL TIER NO 2.

STEP E3: EXCAVATE TO DEPTH H_3 AND INSTALL TIER NO 3.

STEP E4: EXCAVATE TO DEPTH H_4 (FINAL SUBGRADE).

STEP R1: (a) PLACE CONCRETE BASE SLAB,

(b) AFTER BASE SLAB HAS AGED ADEQUATELY, REMOVE TIER NO.3.

STEP R2: (a) COMPLETE CONSTRUCTION OF CONCRETE BOX

(b) AFTER ROOF SLAB HAS AGED ADEQUATELY, REMOVE TIER NO.2.

STEP R3: (NOT SHOWN.) BACKFILL TO DEPTH H_1 AND (SUBSEQUENTLY) REMOVE TIER NO.1. COMPLETE BACKFILL. IF SHORING WALL IS SOLDIER PILES AND LAGGING OR STEEL SHEET PILES, REMOVE (PULL) SOLDIER PILES OR SHEET PILES IF PERMITTED TO DO SO. COMPLETE SURFACE RESTORATION.

Figure 13.60: General Construction Sequence Typically Employed for a Cut-and-Cover Road Tunnel Structure (After Bickel et al., 1996)

13.13.13.2. Tied-back Excavations

Any excavation method that will limit the vertical distance between a tie-back row and the bottom of the excavation to the prescribed amount, at any step in the construction sequence, should be considered.

If the cut-and-cover excavation is sufficiently long, the utilities or decking crossing the excavation are not a problem, and the soil to be excavated is dry and competent enough to act as a haul road, the most suitable excavation method that employs a haul ramp out of the cut will usually be the most efficient. At the end of the excavation, when the haul ramp itself must be removed, more common methods will need to be employed to complete the excavation.

13.13.13.3. Groundwater Control

When it is feasible to do so, it is more economical to lower the groundwater level below the planned elevation of excavated sub grade before excavation commences. In saturated pervious soils, pre-draining offers the following advantages:

- Excavation can be performed in the dry;
- Results in a more efficient shoring system because of the reduction in lateral pressure;
- Allows use of soldier piles and lagging systems, etc.;
- Prevents occurrence of an unstable bottom of excavation.

Details on: pre-draining with deep wells; use of pressure relief wells; stability against piping; internal control of water; and settlement due to construction dewatering; are treated in authoritative and pertinent literature on groundwater control of cut-and-cover excavations.

13.13.14. Permanent Shoring Walls and Support

Slurry walls and Soldier Pile and Tremie Concrete walls (SPTC walls) are sometimes used both as temporary support walls for the cut-and-cover construction, and as the permanent walls of the tunnel structure.

For this concept, a reinforced concrete curtain wall should be placed inside the shoring wall, for aesthetic reasons, and complete bonding between the slurry or SPTC wall and the interior curtain wall should be ensured.

Internal bracing tiers may also be designed to serve both as internal support during construction and as permanent support; the permanent internal bracing tier(s) typically also serves as the structural steel framing for the intermediate floor(s) as well.

13.13.15. Water-tightness

Structures located in permeable soils and below the water table will be subject to infiltration, which tend to concentrate at construction and contraction joints.

Infiltration is normally unacceptable since it would result in unsightly streaking of wall and ceiling finishes. The designer should design for complete water-tightness.

Complete external waterproofing is typical for roofs, and is usual for walls. External waterproofing of invert slabs is sometimes specified, depending on the slab thickness, subsurface soil, and other factors.

A discussion of: water stops; common types of external waterproofing; and internal repair of leaks; can be found in authoritative and pertinent literature on the subject of water-tightness.

13.14. LIGHTING

13.14.1. General

Geographic location, orientation, and portal surroundings influence the ability of the motorist to adapt from the bright ambient roadway to the dim tunnel interior. Lighting concepts are used to diminish the contrast between the two environments; the most prominent lighting concepts used are the symmetrical and the asymmetrical concepts, of which there are two types - the counter beam and the line-of-sight. Linear or point source luminaires, or a combination of types of sources, are employed to provide specific illumination requirements for unidirectional or bidirectional traffic tunnels, as appropriate to the system.

Figure 13.61 gives a graphical representation of tunnel lighting nomenclature.

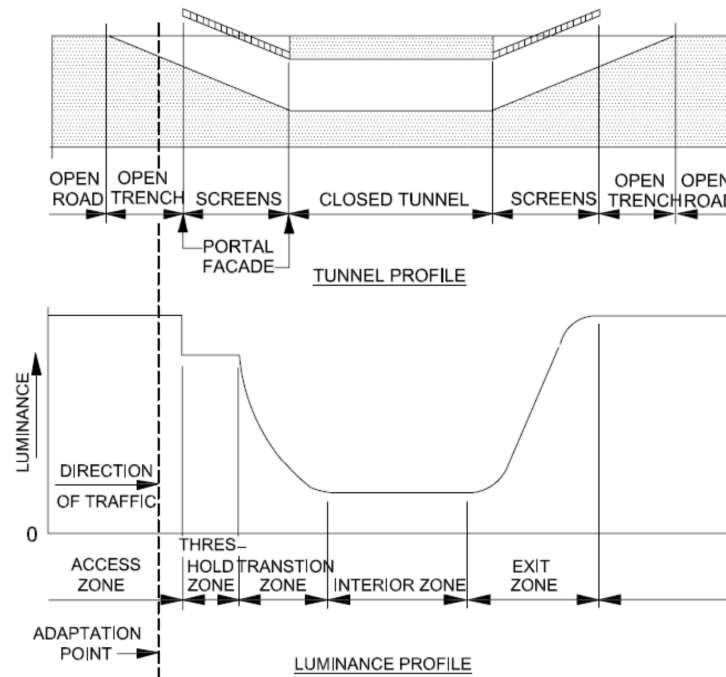


Figure 13.61: Tunnel Lighting Nomenclature (Schreuder, '64)

13.14.2. Tunnel Classification

Depending on the authority, there are three types of vehicular tunnels: underpasses; short tunnels and long tunnels.

13.14.2.1. Underpasses

AASHTO defines an underpass as a portion of roadway extending through and beneath some natural or man-made structure, which, because of its limited length-to-height ratio requires no supplementary daytime lighting. Length-to-height ratios of approximately 10:1 or lower will not require daytime underpass lighting. The Illuminating Engineering Society (IES) and the International Commission on Illumination (CIE) generally recognize all covered highways as tunnels and do not recognize an underpass as a separate and distinct structure.

13.14.2.2. Short Tunnels

IES and CIE define a short tunnel as one where, in the absence of traffic, the exit and the area behind the exit can be clearly visible from a point ahead of the entrance portal. For lighting purposes, the length of short tunnel is limited to 46 m; tunnels up to 122 m long may be classified as short if they are straight, level, and have a high width/height to length ratio.

13.14.2.3. Long Tunnels

IES defines a long tunnel as one with an overall length greater than the safe stopping sight distance.

13.14.3. Entrance Lighting

This is the most critical section of tunnel lighting, and consideration should be given to the use of low-pressure sodium and high-intensity point sources, thus permitting a reduction in the number of units.

Attention should be paid to luminaire type selection, location and spacing, to reduce glare and flicker throughout the tunnel.

Evaluation of lighting levels and transition time (calculated from 20 degree field to the portal) should consider the following factors:

- Tunnel orientation;
- Latitude;
- Geographical location;
- Approach grades;
- Terrain;
- Conditions where the tunnel lighting problem can be easily solved using conventional equipment.

13.14.4. Luminance in the Tunnel Interior

Based on a reflectance factor of 50% for the walls and ceilings, and a reflectance factor of 20% for the roadway, [Table 13.15](#) summarizes recommended values for luminaire levels by the three major authoritative sources. In many cases, economic factors, as well as the availability of proper lighting equipment, will play a major role in determining the final lighting level.

Table 13.15: Summary of Recommended Day Interior Maintained Luminaire Levels in Candela per Square Meter (cd/m^2)

Authority	Walls (Up to 2 m above roadway)	Roadway
IES	5	5
AASHTO	5+	5+
CIE	1-15	1-15

13.14.5. Exit Lighting

During the daytime, the tunnel exit appears as a bright hole to the motorist. Usually, all obstacles will be discernible by silhouette against the bright exit and will be clearly

visible. This visibility by silhouette can be further improved by lining the walls with tile or panels having high reflectance and thus permitting greater daylight penetration into the tunnel, as shown in [Figure 13.62](#).

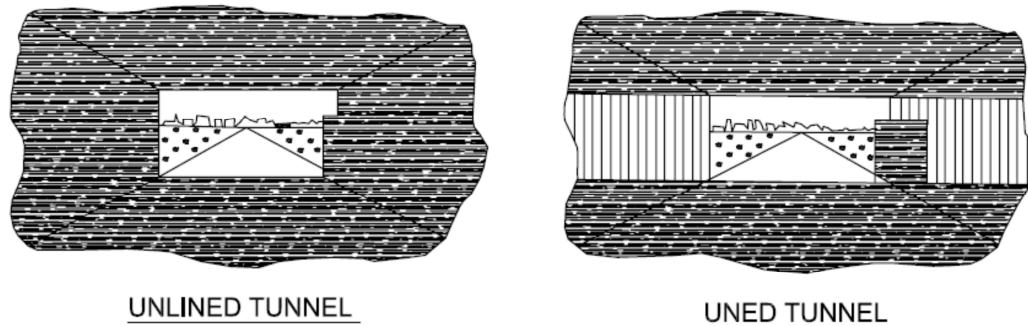


Figure 13.62: Effect of Natural Light Penetration on Walls at Tunnel Exit (Thompson and Fanslor, '68)

13.14.6. Lighting of Short Tunnels

Short tunnels appear to the approaching driver as a black frame (see [Figure 13.63](#)), as opposed to the black hole experienced in long tunnels.

A lighting system is generally not required in short tunnels, as daylight penetration from each end and the silhouette effect of brightness at the opposite end, assure satisfactory visibility. Tunnels between 23 m to 46 m in length may require supplemental daytime lighting if daylight is restricted due to roadway depression, tunnel curvature, or proximity of tall buildings in urban areas.

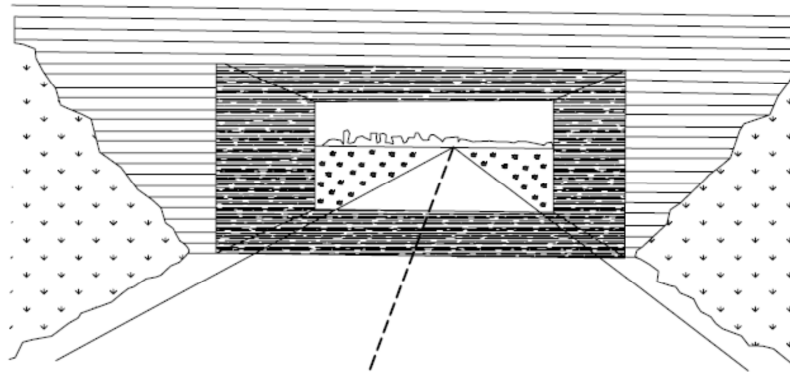


Figure 13.63: Short Tunnel appears as a Dark Frame (Schreuder, '64)

13.14.7. Lighting of Long Tunnels

Road tunnel must be sufficiently illuminated. The illumination density is gradually reduced from the portal towards the interior of the tunnel. [Figure 13.64](#) shows the three main sections of a tunnel which are distinguished with respect to illumination.

The first two sections are the entrance and transition sections. The length S_H of the entrance section is that length needed to stop a vehicle. It results from the design velocity V (km/h) according to the equation:

$$S_H(m) = \frac{1}{3}V + \frac{(V/3.6)^2}{2(b \pm g s / 100)}, \quad (13.2)$$

Where:

$b = 6.5 \text{ m/s}^2$ (average braking retardation),

s = longitudinal slope in %,

g = gravity acceleration in m/s^2 .

In the transition section the illumination density is gradually reduced. Its length S_{tr} , depends on the following quantities:

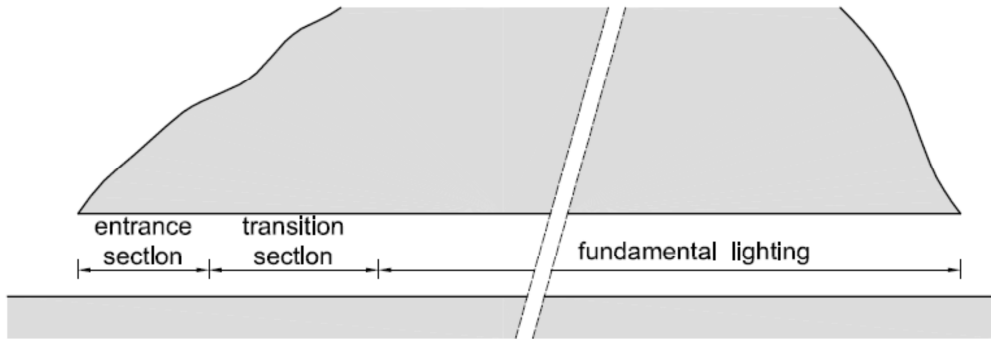


Figure 13.64: Section of tunnel illumination

- illumination density L_e at the end of the entrance section
- illumination density L_i in the inner section (fundamental lighting density)
- adaptation of the eye to changing illumination conditions and, thus, from the allowable maximum speed. [Eq.13.3](#) relates the adaptation time t_r with the illumination densities L_e and L_i . The length S_{tr} of the transition section can be determined from t_r and the velocity V .

The length of the transition section S_{tr} is determined by the time t_r needed by the human eye to adapt from the luminescence L_e at the end of the entrance section to the one within the inner section (fundamental lighting L_i):

$$\frac{L_i}{L_e} = [1.9 + t_r(\text{sec})]^{-1.423} \quad (13.3)$$

$$S_{tr} = t_r \cdot V$$

The illumination densities L_e and L_i depend on the exterior illumination density L_{20} (cd/m^2) which is either averaged over the sector indicated in [Figure 13.65](#) or taken to 4.000 cd/m^2 . L_e is obtained from L_{20} according to the following table:

$V(\text{km/h})$	L_e
≤ 60	$L_{20} / 30$
$60 < V \leq 80$	$L_{20} / 25$
$80 < V \leq 100$	$L_{20} / 20$

The fundamental lighting applies to the remaining tunnel section. Its density L_i should be 3 cd/m^2 , where a reduction of 30% takes dirt and ageing into account the

illumination density should be uniform within the tunnel, i.e. it should be $L_{min}/L_{max} \geq 0.55$. Flickering in the frequency range from 2.5 to 15 Hz should be avoided.

To facilitate the adaption of the eye, the portals should be as dark as possible.

Therefore, galleries and illumination reduction constructions should be used, if affordable.

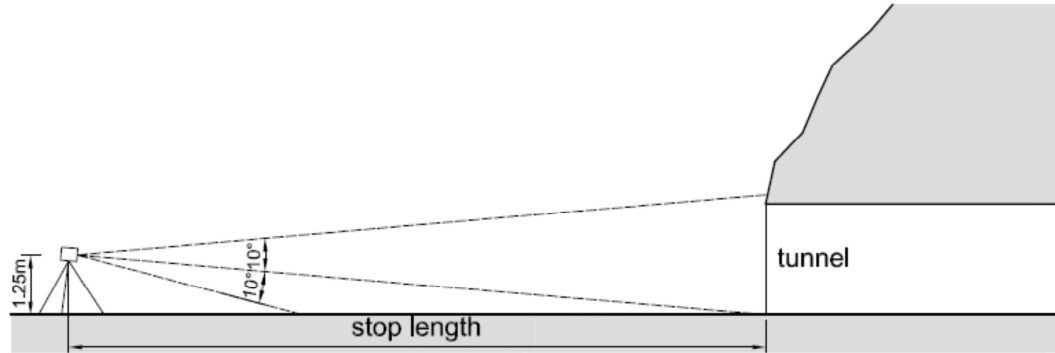


Figure 13.65: Sector for the measurement of the exterior illumination density

13.14.8. Tunnel Lining

To achieve maximum illumination and to enable easy cleaning, the tunnel inner walls should be covered with a bright and reflecting, but not dazzling coating, which should be cleaned at regular intervals.

A good solution is to mount enamel panels on the tunnel wall [Figure 13.66](#). The objectives of interior finish are:

- identification of alignment by means of the difference in luminance between walls and road surface,
- enabling drivers to assess the distance from the walls,
- to hide wires and pipes that divert attention of the drivers.



Figure 13.66: Enamel panel

The brightness and uniformity of the interior walls and ceiling of the tunnel depend on the reflectance quality of the surface.

The light color and high reflectance of the tunnel ceiling is desirable because of the higher wall and roadway brightness that will result. A light-colored matte finish surface with a reflectance factor of at least 70% is recommended.

Finally, the tunnel roadway surface should have as high a reflectance factor as possible.

13.14.9. Emergency Lighting

Complete interruption of tunnel lighting is unacceptable.

13.14.9.1. Dual Utility Power Sources

One-half of the tunnel lighting is connected to each supply, so that, in case of failure, at least one-half of the system remains energized until transfer of the entire load to the remaining source.

13.14.9.2. Single Utility Service and Standby Generator

One-sixth of the tunnel lighting is connected to an emergency circuit, which, in case of power failure, is immediately transferred to a central emergency battery system until the generator picks up to carry one-half of the tunnel lighting.

13.14.10. Design Computations

Mathematical methods of analysis (account for inter-reflection of light) have led to progressively more accurate coefficients of utilization data. The Zonal Cavity Method improved older systems by providing increased flexibility and accuracy in lighting calculations.

The designer should refer to **ANSI/IES RP-22, American Standard Practice for Tunnel Lighting, for use of the Zonal Cavity Method**. Computer software is readily available for illuminance and luminance calculations.

13.15. TUNNEL SURVEILLANCE, MANAGEMENT, AND SECURITY

13.15.1. General

Modern roadway tunnels and their approach roads require a centralized traffic control system to maintain safety. While particular requirements vary, the following minimum general surveillance and control systems are common to all, and should be used to provide the following:

- *Traffic Flow Monitoring*: Monitor traffic flow and identify impending congestion from breakdowns or accidents;
- *Safe Environment*: Maintain a safe tunnel environment responsive to traffic density and travel speed;
- *Communications*: Communicate traffic restrictions to motorists;
- *Emergency Response*: Mobilize required emergency response to clear accidents within the tunnel;
- *Emergency Systems Operations*: Initiate required emergency systems operations;
- *Service Equipment Monitoring*: Monitor status of tunnel service equipment.

13.15.2. Design and Implementation

Combined input from the disciplines of traffic engineering, computer/communication design, and software development is required for system design.

13.15.2.1. Traditional Design Approach

This approach involves preparation of design plans and specifications for contractor construction, but is usually successful only when contracted directly with pre-qualified control systems contractors.

13.15.2.2. System Manager Approach

The system manager is contracted with to design and prepare procurement and installation contracts, and is responsible for system integration, documentation and training; he also provides the application software. The complete control systems services package includes: Operating Manual; Maintenance Manual; Training; Provisions to supply a management staff for a specified period during start-up; and a warranty that ensures responsibility for a specified period, for all components including manufacturer in-house product warranties that may have expired.

13.15.3. Tunnel Security

The Tunnel Designer should make special reference to the [FHWA/AASHTO Report entitled: 'Recommendations for Bridge and Tunnel Security'; dated September 2003.](#)

13.16. VENTILATION

13.16.1. General

The ventilation is intended to guard against pollution, guarantee visibility and, in case of fire, secure the escape routes, ensure the entrance of rescue teams and reduce damage. The required fresh air supply should be calculated in accordance with the anticipated traffic flow to guarantee that the concentrations in ([Table 13.16](#)) are not exceeded.

Table 13.16: the concentrations of the some air contents

CO concentration	< 100 ppm
NO _x concentration	< 25 ppm
Opacity: extinction coefficient	< 7 . 10 ⁻³ m ⁻¹
Air velocity (averaged over the cross section)	< 10 m/s

In rail tunnels (in particular metros), cooling, i.e. the removal of warm air (e.g. due to locomotives), is another task of ventilation. Road traffic produces the maximum pollution at speeds of 10 to 15 km/h. The increase in the number of vehicles equipped with catalysers resulted in a considerable reduction of fresh air requirements of road tunnels which, depending on the ratio of trucks and on the slope, amounts to between 30 and 50%).

13.16.2. Ventilation techniques

Four types of ventilation techniques can be distinguished:

13.16.2.1. Natural longitudinal ventilation

This ventilation is accomplished by the pressure difference between the portals and also by the piston action of the vehicles.

13.16.2.2. Fans

These have a spacing of ca 10 tunnel diameters and produce longitudinal ventilation. The blowing direction is reversible. Large ventilators achieve a higher thrust related to installation costs.

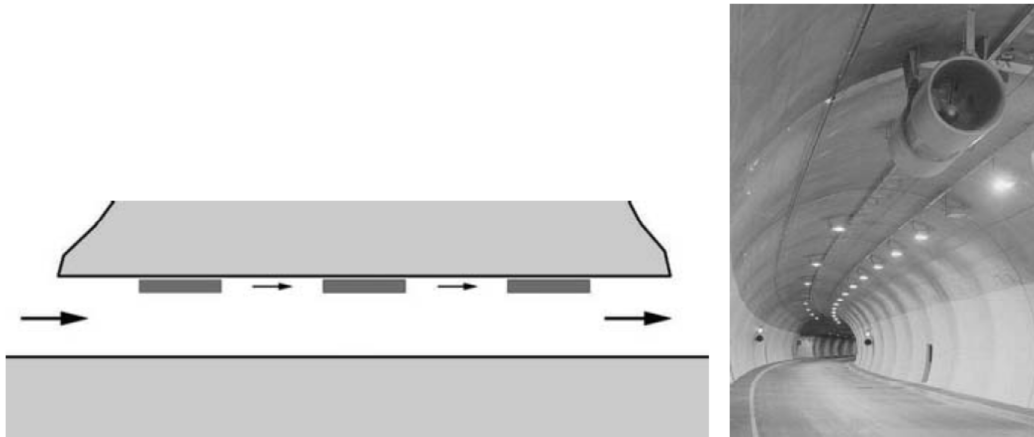


Figure 13.67: Ventilation fans

13.16.2.3. Semi-transverse ventilation

Fresh air is supplied from special pathways perpendicular to the tunnel's longitudinal axis, whereas the polluted air escapes from the portals (supply system), see [Figure 13.68](#) left. This is appropriate for tunnels with 2 to 4 km length and medium traffic load. Alternatively, the used air is extracted through special ducts (extraction system, [Figure 13.68](#) right) while fresh air enters through the portals. Thus, the worst air quality is found in the middle of the tunnel. The air velocity reaches its maximum near the portals.

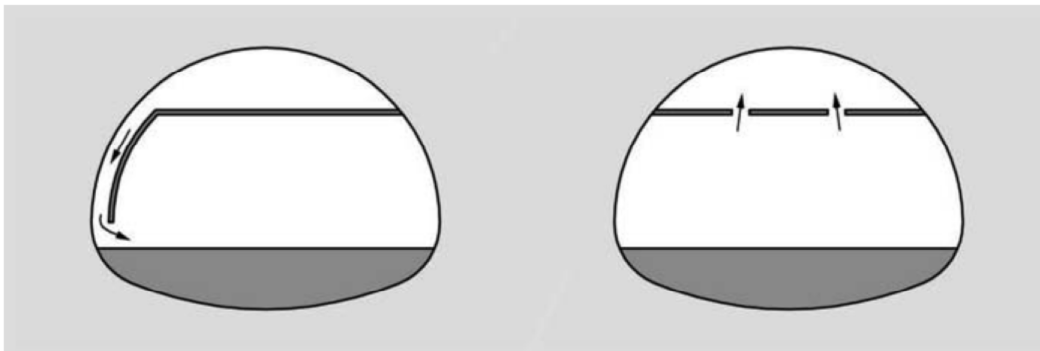


Figure 13.68: Examples of semi-transverse ventilation (supply and extract)

13.16.2.4. Transverse ventilation

Fresh air is introduced and polluted air (which moves upwards) is extracted perpendicular to the tunnel axis [Figure 13.69](#).

Air ducts with cross sections up to 30m² are used. Not only aerodynamic considerations are taken into account but also the necessity of access for maintenance. Long tunnels may require ventilation shafts [Figure 13.70](#) or ventilation adits that are driven parallel to the tunnel.

According to the German standards for the equipment and service of road tunnels (RABT), the ventilation systems shown in [Table 13.17](#) should be used with regard to construction type and tunnel length. If the outlet of polluted air has an adverse environmental impact, cleaning (by means of electrostatic filters etc.) should be considered.

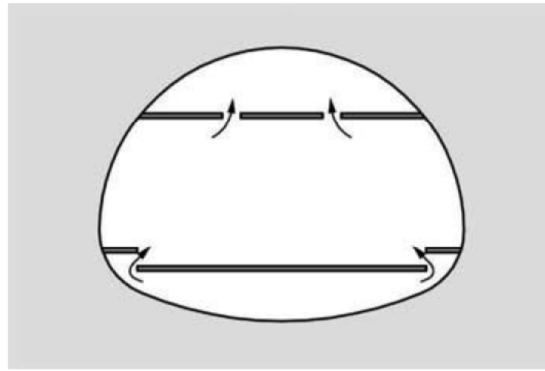


Figure 13.69: Examples for transverse ventilation

Table 13.17: Ventilations systems according to RABT

Tunnel length in km		Ventilation
Bidirectional 1 tube	One-directional 2 tube	
< 0.4	< 0.7	Natural ventilation with CO-warning
< 2 < 4	< 4 < 6	Longitudinal ventilation -fans -fans and ventilation shaft
< 0.5 < 1	< 2 < 2	Semi-Transverse ventilation -reversible - semi-transverse ventilation
< 2	< 6	Transverse vintilation

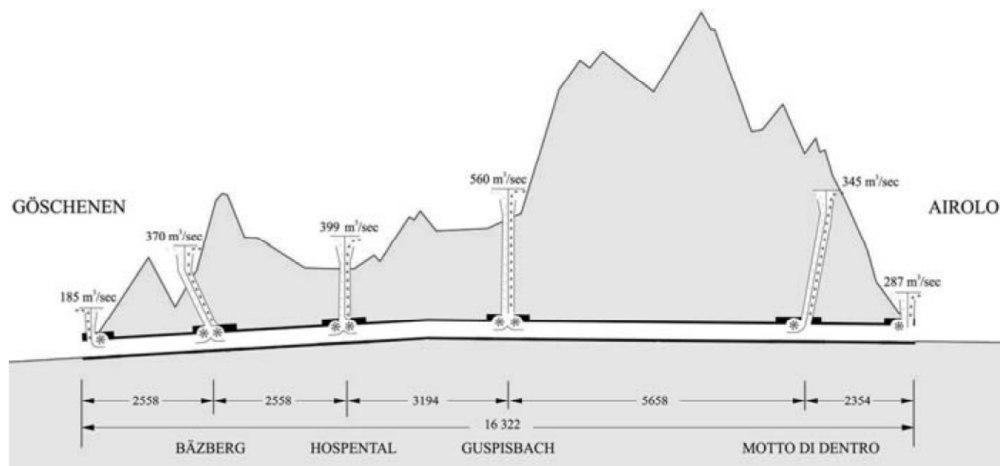


Figure 13.70: Schematic longitudinal section of ventilation. Gotthard road tunnel

13.16.3. Control of ventilation

The following quantities are monitored:

Air velocity: The average air velocity in the tunnel is measured with ultrasonic transducers which register the travel times t_v and t_r of sonic pulses from A to B and from B to A, respectively [Figure 13.71](#). For simplicity we consider only the direction of the tunnel axis. Obviously, for $x \gg d$:

$$t_v = \frac{x}{c + v}, \quad t_r = \frac{x}{c - v}, \quad (13.4)$$

where c is the propagation velocity of sound. Hence,

$$v = \frac{x}{2} \left(\frac{1}{t_v} - \frac{1}{t_r} \right).$$

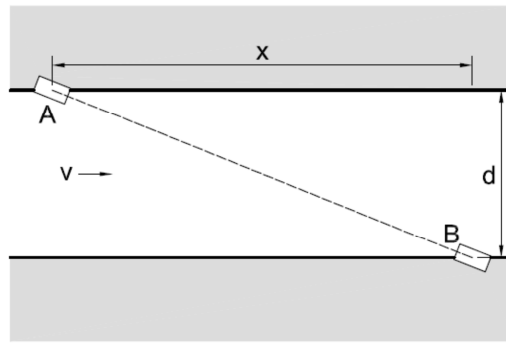


Figure 13.71: Measurement of the average air velocity , v

13.16.3.1. Temperature

The air temperature in the tunnel can be derived from the measured propagation velocity of sound.

13.16.3.2. Air opacity

Usually this quantity is measured via the intensity loss of a light beam in the tunnel air, opaqued by dust, diesel grime and aerosols from combustion motors. The measuring distance amounts at minimum 15 m.

As measuring devices are very sensitive to installation and maintenance, it is advisable to measure opacity by determining the intensity of scattered light. The required photometer is placed at some appropriate position, which can be up to 500 m off the extraction position.

13.16.3.3. CO-concentration

The specific absorption of an infrared beam is measured in order to determine the CO-concentration. If this is kept within prescribed limits, NO_x levels are also admissible.

13.17. FIRE PROTECTION

Because of the confined space, fires in tunnels can be disastrous.

In peak traffic times a road tunnel will hold up to 100 persons per km and lane. In rail tunnels the figure is on average 800 persons per train. These people are exposed to fire hazard, which can be due to motor conflagration or conflagration of truck freight, fire due to accident, overheated axes, arson etc. During heading, fire can be released by leakage of methane from rock or oil from machines.

People are at danger from smoke, the toxic products of combustion, lack of oxygen, heat and panic. Fire smoke is very dense and call reduces visibility below one meter leading to loss of orientation. The extraction of smoke must occur as close as possible to the fire source. Fume hoods (dumpers) should be provided with a sufficiently small spacing. It is important to open only the hoods nearest to the fire source. This can be achieved either with remote control or with melting wires. The localized extraction of smoke can be supported if the air is forced to blow towards the smoke source. For two

lane road tunnels with a longitudinal inclination $i < 3\%$ (for $i > 3\%$ special investigations are needed), the **Austrian recommendation RVS 9.261** requires to extract at least $120 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ over a length of 150 m through large dumpers. For the design of the remedy measures, it is important to assume a realistic 'design fire' including temperature and smoke production. Based on recent disasters and field tests, fire scenarios have been modified. Now one has to assume smoke production of $240 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, fire power up to 100 MW, durations between 30 minutes and several hours and increases in temperature above $1,000^\circ\text{C}$ within 5 minutes. The rise of temperature with time is specified in **RABT curve in Germany** as follow:

$$(T_{\max} = 1200^\circ \text{C within 5 minutes})$$

To estimate the speed of events, the following facts should be taken into account:

- usual gasoil tanks resist fire for about 3 minutes
- thermal convection winds attain speeds of up to 3 m/s. Thus, smoke can spread out over a length of 180 m before being detected. The propagation speed of smoke equals the speed of escape of individuals.

The transition of smouldering to open fire (so-called 'flash-over') with the accompanied sharp rise of temperature can set on within 7 to 10 minutes.

A layering of heated gases over the cool air helps the efficiency of ventilation and facilitates escape. This layering can be perturbed by fast movements of air, e.g. due to moving cars, sprinklers and fire induced convection. Therefore, longitudinal air velocity should be reduced to 1 m/s in the case of a fire. The air velocity in normal tunnel operation has a strong influence on the convection and layering of smoke in case of fire and should, therefore, not exceed 2.5 m/s (although in naturally ventilated mountain tunnels values up to 14 m/s have been observed). Consequently, the fire ventilation has to achieve the two following objectives: massive smoke extraction in a limited section around a fire and control of the longitudinal air velocity. When designing ventilators, it has to be taken into account that their power is reduced by up to 50%) in heated air.

One way to constrain the propagation of smoke could be the so-called tunnel stopper: An inflatable bellows, made of reinforced rubber or plastic, plugs the entire tunnel cross section. This idea is recommended for long train tunnels only used for freight transports. By stopping the flow of fresh air, the fire will extinguish for lack of oxygen. The train driver, equipped with an oxygen mask and fire protective clothing can escape through the emergency sluice. Tunnel user's can largely contribute to safety with cautious driving e.g. by keeping a sufficient distance between cars. Also the safety training for tunnel operator personnel is important. The safety and rescue plan should be discussed in advance among the designer, contractor, owner and rescue services. Such an integrated procedure is advantageous even from a financial point of view because it helps to avoid expensive modifications. Given the remote locations of most tunnels, rescue plans should not rely primarily on the arrival of the rescue services but rather on enabling the endangered people to rescue themselves. This so-called self-rescue phase lasts only a few minutes but is crucial. The escape speed ranges from 2.5 to 5 m/s but is reduced to 0.5 to 1 m/s for older or infirm people. The best means of rescue is a second tube with a sufficient number of ventilated cross walks. Alternatively, a rescue adit parallel to the main tunnel can be provided.

Fire-protected niches are problematic in view of ventilation and also for psychological reasons. Safety equipment should be redundant and should work according to the fail-safe principle, i.e. upon failure of a safety relevant component the

system enter a safe state. An outfall of electric power supply should release a substitute supply within 10 seconds.

Fire combat measures should exist actively and passively. Active measures aim at the extinction of the fire by means of fire detectors, fire extinguishers, sprinklers, and emergency ventilation and telecommunication devices. Passive measures aim at minimizing the damage, e.g. by means of fire resistant concrete, synthetic materials which do not produce toxic gases when burning, safe electric cables placed below the carriageway, transverse drain pipes that collect leaking fuel, use of materials of low porosity (that do not fill with fuel) and also clear signals indicating the escape routes.

Fire protection measures should be verified with tests. Cold-smoke tests are comparatively easy and inexpensive, but only real fire tests can provide a genuine verification of the safety level achieved.

13.17.1. Fire detectors and extinguishers

Fire detectors are provided to enable fast fire fighting rescue and to prevent further vehicles from entering the tunnel. Fire alarms should also be engaged manually by pressing a button in the emergency call niches and at the portals. In tunnels of over 1,500 m length, automatic fire detectors should be installed.

The following detecting systems can be considered:

13.17.1.1. Heat sensors

These sensors should be activated along the entire tunnel length and not only at isolated points. Otherwise, fire detection can be delayed. Resistivity measurement are vulnerable to the harsh conditions within tunnels. The pneumatic principle is more effective

Higher temperatures increase the pressure of air entrapped in copper pipes. This pressure increase is registered by pressure transducers. Fire detectors based on glass fibre and laser beams (which are increasingly scattered at higher temperatures)

can localize accurately the source of heat and (with appropriate software) can even detect heat propagation (e.g. 'Fibro-Laser').

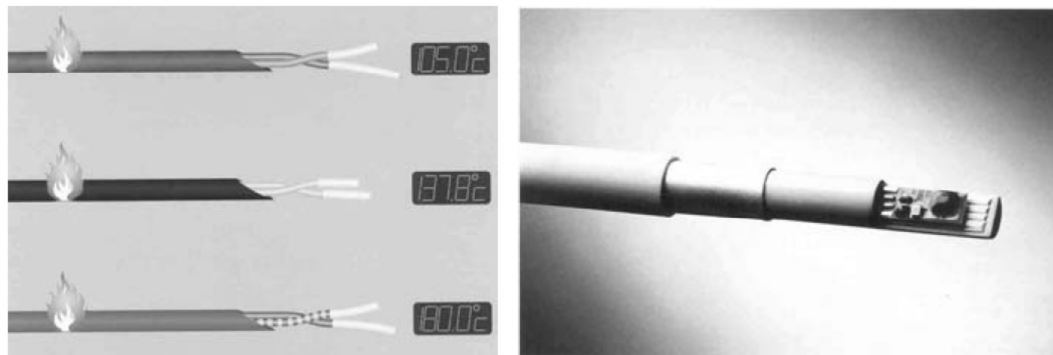


Figure 13.72: Cables for fire detection

13.17.1.2. Gas sensors

These register the reduction of the oxygen content and the presence of combustible gases and toxic combustion products.

13.17.1.3. Smoke sensors

In road tunnels these can easily cause false alarms and consequently release full power ventilation, which is very expensive because of its high power consumption.

13.17.1.4. Flame sensors

These only register open flames.

13.17.1.5. Video control

Tile automatic detection of traffic jams, smoke and fire by means of video control and pattern recognition is a promising innovation and can respond much earlier than heat sensors.

Fire detectors should be highly resistant to break-down. They must be provided with an emergency power supply and the maximum length that may drop out should be limited to 50 - 500 m (depending on traffic density). The equipment must be robust and capable of withstanding e.g. cleaning brushes or loose goods falling from vehicles.

13.17.1.6. Firefighting

For tunnels with a length between 600 and 1,000 m a pressure pipe of at least 100mm diameter is sufficient. This pipe does not need to be permanently filled with water but should be fed at the portals. At each portal water tanks, containing at least 80 m³ water, must be provided.

In tunnels with more than 1,000 m length, a pressure pipe must be installed beneath the lateral strips of the carriageway and protected against freezing. The pressure at the taps should be between 6 and 12 bar. A supply of 1,200 l/min for at least one hour must be guaranteed. Water for firefighting is to be available at the emergency call niches with a hydrant and a 120 m long water hose.

In addition, the tunnel users should have access to two fire extinguishers kept in each emergency call niche.

When utilizing sprinklers, it should be kept in mind that droplets fall through the fumes, if they are too large, and therefore do not bind smoke particles.

A mist of fine water droplets (0.01 mm diameter) can be produced with high pressure (100 bar) and appropriate nozzles. Thus the temperature can be lowered by 700 °C within seconds. The evaporation of water increases its volume by a factor of 1640 and thus chokes the supply of oxygen. The objective

of the water mist application is to control the fire rather than to extinguish it. Tests have shown that water mist is efficient even at air velocities of 5 m/s.

The installation of nozzles can be undertaken in metro stations, in on-board systems in the trains and in road tunnels.

13.18. DRAINAGE SYSTEM**13.18.1. General**

Drainage systems to collect, treat, and discharge wastewater resulting from fire-fighting operations, washing operations, and leakage, should be installed in tunnels. Side spaces should be fitted with the necessary water and sewage connections.

13.18.2. Drainage Design Criteria

Drainage system design should be predicated on proper determination of the anticipated flow rate (peak discharge rate) of the water to be drained.

Details on Tunnel drainage, drainage pump stations, drainage pumps, water treatment, and flood protection are given in [Bickel et al. \(1996\)](#).

13.18.3. Drainage

The tunnel drainage system should collect and drain off water in the tunnel. Road drainage should be constructed to ensure that the pavement structure is kept dry and that water can run off unobstructed from the prepared sub-grade to maintain the properties of the bearing capacity.

13.18.4. Dewatering

Drainage devices should collect and drain off surface water from the carriageway and road zone to avoid flooding and other associated problems. Surface water systems should be designed to permit collecting and handling of combustible or toxic fluids.

Drainage devices should prevent the surface water from road and ground zones outside the tunnel from entering the tunnel.

The methods for taking care of effluents should be resolved in consultation with the municipal body responsible for water supply and sewerage and the body responsible for nature conservation of the applicable county administration.

13.18.5. Basins

Basins should have sufficient capacity to collect the necessary amounts of water and to allow the necessary sedimentation time for pollution suspended in the water.

13.18.6. Water Supply

The need for water hydrants for cleaning purposes, and fire hydrants as well as the requirements on their location and capacity should be specified in the technical specifications.

13.18.7. Preconditions

Drainage, water removal and water supply systems must not be damaged due to freezing. Protection against freezing can be achieved by placing the devices below the frost penetration depth or in a frost-protected space or by means of insulation. If frost protection is achieved by means of insulation, the heat available on the hot side of the insulation should be considered.

If the drainage water will be re-used by means of infiltration or analyzed to determine its chemical composition, two separate sewerage systems must be installed, one for drainage water and the other for surface water.

13.18.7.1. Drainage

The amounts of drainage water in rock tunnels should be estimated on the basis of a rock mass investigation and the driving and waterproofing measures employed.

Subsoil drains should be fitted with manholes at intervals not exceeding 100 m.

1. Rock tunnels

The theoretical floor profile of the excavation should be given a crossfall of about 2 %. The drains should be laid at the lowest point of the tunnel floor with an invert level of at least 1 meter below the carriageway. Drains, collecting pipes and other pipes are normally laid in a separately blasted pipe trench along one of the walls. A layer of at least 0.3 m, consisting of permeable material, should be laid under the pavement structure so as to comply with the drainage requirements. This requirement is met if the rock is blasted to a level of at least 0.3 m below the theoretical profile of the floor in 5 m sections.

Drain pipes should be connected to collecting pipes (surface water pipes) by means of gullies. Outlets from the drain pipes should be installed at intervals not exceeding 200 m.

Normally the water will run out of the tunnel under gravity or to pumping stations installed at low zones of the tunnel. It should be possible to measure the water flow rates and the water quality in the pumping stations.

The final extent of drainage measures cannot be decided until the blasted rock masses have been mucked out.

2. Tunnels on Sub-grades of Soil

Drainage systems should be designed according to AASHTO guidelines.

3. Concrete Tunnels

Ground drains should be installed at intervals not exceeding 20 m.

13.18.7.2. Dewatering

Gullies that collect the surface water should be installed in tunnels and connected to longitudinal pipes. The gullies should be designed so that the propagation of fire into the outward-bound pipes is prevented.

Gullies are normally fitted with grit chambers and water seals. Manholes can also be fitted with grit chambers and water seals. The distance between gullies should be such that the catchment area for each gully will not exceed 250 m² and so that the longitudinal distance will not exceed 20 m. Attention must be paid to gradients and crossfalls in order to minimize the length of the flow paths. Gullies should be installed outside lanes.

The runoff should normally flow towards the side of the tunnel, that is, without entrances to emergency escape routes. If this cannot be achieved, two gullies or, as an

alternative, covered grooves should be installed "upstream" of the entrance to reduce the risk of burning fluids passing the entrance. Covered grooves may be used instead of gullies. The possibilities for adjusting the covering of grooves and the covering of gullies should be the same in both cases.

The Tunnel drainage design should incorporate oil/water separators to separate gas and oil spills from wastewater; typically, prior to discharge of wastewater to a designated system, oil/water separators enable break-up of gas and oil influent, which rise to the surface, facilitating removal and proper disposal.

The design water flow rates for pipe systems should be specified in the technical specifications.

13.18.7.3. Basins

Pump sumps and pumping stations should be installed in the low zones of the tunnel. Where necessary, the surface water should be drained off to sedimentation basins. Sedimentation basins should be fitted with water seals, oil traps and cleaning devices. It should be possible to shut off the discharge from the sedimentation basins so that the fluid can be analyzed.

The need for decontamination before further fluid handling takes place should be based on the results of the analysis of the quality of the fluids.

The water flow rates, water volumes and the sedimentation time which should be the basis for the design of the sedimentation basins should be specified in the technical specifications.

The normal sedimentation time should be assumed to be 36 hours.

13.18.7.4. Water Supply

The water flow rates that should be the basis for the design of the pipeline system should be specified in the technical specifications.

13.18.8. Design

The flushing water or the fire water will normally be designed factors for the water removal systems in tunnels.

The protection of the water supply and sewerage pipes grouted into concrete structures from freezing should be designed for the maximum cold content.

Protection of other water supply and sewer pipes from freezing should be designed for the mean cold content.

13.18.9. Materials

Gullies and the coverings of gravity sewers for surface water should be made of incombustible materials.

Gullies in the concrete base plates between the tunnel walls should have holes in the upper part of the gullies or covering so that they can serve as ground drains.

Manholes covers should be fitted with locking devices.

13.19. PUMP STATION AND MECHANICAL REQUIREMENTS

13.19.1. Need for Stormwater Pump Station

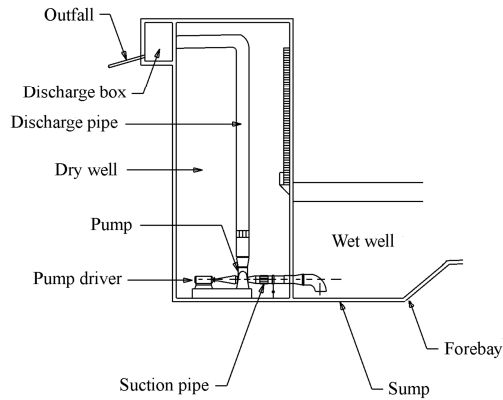
Stormwater pumping stations are necessary for the removal of stormwater from sections of highway where gravity drainage is impossible or impractical. However, stormwater pumping stations are expensive to operate and maintain and have a number of potential problems that must be addressed. Therefore, the use of stormwater pumping stations is recommended only where no other practicable alternative is available. Alternatives to pumping stations include siphons, recharge basins, deep and long storm drain systems and tunnels.

13.19.2. Pump Station Components

13.19.2.1. Introduction

This chapter identifies the major components of a stormwater pump station. Figure

13.73 shows a pump station and its major components.



13.73: Stormwater Pump Station

13.19.2.2. Collection System

Water is conveyed from the drainage area and side gullies to the pump station in a system of ditches, gutters, inlets, and conduits that comprise a collection system.

13.19.2.3. Storage Unite

Many systems are designed to include an underground storage area using box or circular conduits.

13.19.2.4. Wells

All stations comprise a chamber (wet well) from which the stormwater is pumped. Stations in which the pumps are placed in the wet well are known as wet-pit stations. Some stations use a separate well (dry well) to house the pump and driver and are referred to as dry-pit stations.

13.19.2.5. Pumps

Pumps are devices that increase the static pressure of fluids. In other words, pumps add energy to a body of fluid in order to move it from one point to another. The increase in static pressure can be achieved in different ways. Type and number of pumps should be identified according to the water quantities required to be pumped to the outer drainage system or the last end point.

13.19.2.6. Pump Controls

The pump controls activate the pumps successively in response to a rising water level in the sump. The controls regulate pump activity until the inflow into the wet well has been evacuated.

13.19.2.7. Pump Divers

Electric motors and diesel, liquid propane gas, or natural gas engines are used as pump drivers at stormwater pump stations. Alternating-current electric motors are the most commonly used type of driver. Engines are used infrequently because of the noise and vibrations they produce.

13.19.2.8. Station Housing

Typical pump house for a stormwater pump station should include all activities to facilitate reaching of the engineers and labor for operating and maintenance. General features of a pump house include:

- ventilation,
- doors and hatches,
- stairs and ladders,
- cranes and hoists, and
- safety and security measures.

13.19.2.9. Sump Pump

A sump pump is sometimes installed in the sump of wet wells of wet-pit and dry-pit stations. The sump pump is used to pump out the water remaining in the well after the water level has dropped and all the pumps are no longer pumping. The sump pump may also remove the accumulation of solids, such as silt, sand and debris that builds-up gradually at the bottom of the wet well.

13.19.2.10. Power Supply

Electric power is usually the most economical and reliable power source if it is available. Diesel, liquid propane, and natural gas are also usually available to drive engines if no electrical service is available or if there is an interruption in service.

Pumping stations also require a backup power source. The need or requirement for standby power will vary with each installation and the decision should be based on economics and safety. The three principal types of backup power usually considered are multiple electric feeders, engine-driven pumping units and electric generators.

13.19.2.11. Security and Access Features

1. Security

Pump stations usually include features to secure them from entry by unauthorized personnel and to minimize the risk of vandalism. This may be achieved by including as few windows as possible in the design, providing fencing and exterior lighting, concealing expensive equipment and installing unauthorized entry alarms.

2. Access

Typical access features include:

- off-highway driveways or service roads,

- parking, and
- loading zones.

13.19.2.12. Other Features

1. Hoists

Hoists are usually placed over basket screens, submersible pumps, other pumps or motors, and other locations where it is necessary to lift heavy pieces of machinery or equipment.

2. Trash Racks

Trash racks may be provided at the entrance to the wet pit in order to prevent large debris from entering the wet well.

13.19.3. Pump Station Types

13.19.3.1. Wet-Pit Stations

A wet-pit station typically comprises a wet well or several wet wells and a pump house. Generally, one of two configurations is used: rectangular or circular caisson. Two types of pumps, vertical and submersible, may be installed in the wet well of the wet-pit station. Vertical pumps are usually installed in either rectangular wells or in circular wells. Submersible pumps are commonly installed in rectangular pits. Simple rectangular or circular wells are used for the smaller submersible pumps.

1. Vertical Pumps in Rectangular Wells

Figure 13-74 shows a simplified diagram of an installation of vertical pumps in a rectangular well of a wet-pit station.

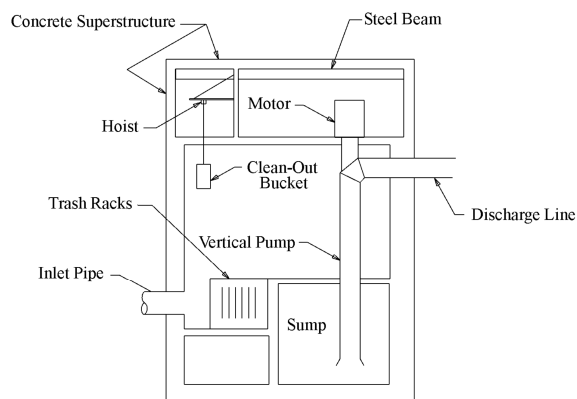


Figure 13.74: Vertical pump in rectangular wet well

a. Alignment

Vertical pumps within a rectangular well are placed in a straight line perpendicular to the direction of the flow, with a certain minimum spacing between the pumps and back wall, depending on pump capacity and bell diameters. Figure 13-75 shows the recommended alignment.

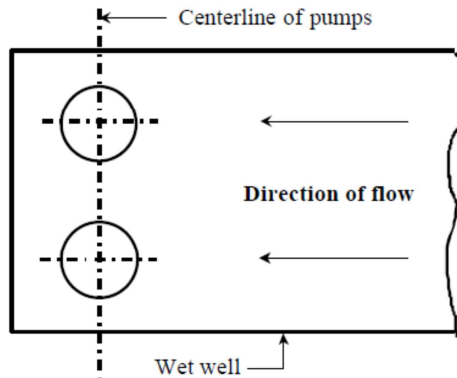


Figure 13.75: Alignment of pumps in rectangular well

b. Drive Shafts

The pumps are available with two different types of drive-shaft construction and lubrication.

These are: 1) pumps with oil- lubricated line shaft bearings in an enclosing tube, which are the preferred choice, and 2) pumps with open shafts and grease- lubricated bearings.

c. Trash Racks

When a trash rack is placed in the wet well, it is necessary to ensure that there is an adequate distance between the trash rack and the back wall of the wet well to ensure smooth flow to the pumps.

d. Obstructions and Streamlining

A streamlined flow should be maintained throughout the length of the pit. Generally, stairways and features other than trash racks and flow directional vanes should not be placed in the flow path to the pumps. Some configurations may require structural supports that extend down into the sump and could interfere with the flow patterns. Such interference could induce eddying and subsequent vortexing. To minimize the potential for eddying, any necessary obstructions should be streamlined and orientated to direct flow to the pumps.

e. Submergence

The depth of the sump is a function of the required submergence. Suction umbrellas (Figure 13.76) may be used to reduce the submergence requirements. The umbrella

provides a smooth transition for flow entering the pump bowl. This helps reduce the potential for vortexing.

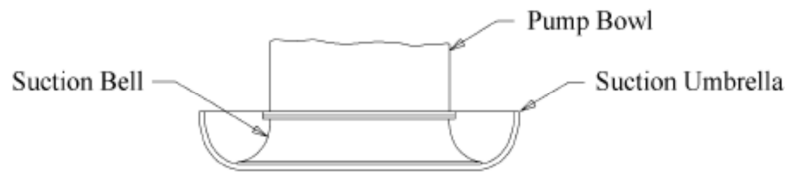


Figure 13.76: Typical suction umbrella

f. Access

Provision must be made for access ladders, access holes, power operated crane hoists and disposal of debris. Access should also be provided to the area around the pump intakes for clearing and maintenance.

g. Provisions for Sediment-Laden Water

For rectangular wells, provisions to reduce potential problems with sediment include:

- designing the wet well to provide velocities of 1 m/s (3 ft/s) or higher – though such an approach may require modeling and other provisions to reduce the potential for vortexing.
- providing for violent mixing to suspend sediments (and removed by the main pumps). Measures include using submerged mixers and bypassing part of the pump discharge back into the well.
- dewatering and pressure-cleaning the well.
- designing a confined wet well to accommodate the Solids-bearing Water in Rectangular Wells.

h. Sump Pump

A sump pump is sometimes placed in wet wells and dry wells. Submergence and clearance requirements will usually result in at least 1 m (3 ft) depth of water remaining in the sump after the main pumps cease. Some state highway agencies prefer to evacuate this water and any sedimentation to help prevent clogging, excessive wear, and corrosion of the main pumps.

i. Construction of Rectangular Well

The most common construction technique for a rectangular well is open cut with sheet piling.

j. Pump House

The housing is usually above the wet well to enclose the pumps and drivers and house the controls.

2. Vertical Pumps in Circular Wells

a. Alignment

When placed in a circular caisson, the pumps should be placed with their centers along the center of the sump or offset from the center of the sump on the opposite half of the semicircle to the intake line. Generally, a maximum of three pumps may be used in any one sump. For criteria on well dimensions and configurations, designer should follow the related guide for that.

b. Driver Accommodations

Both electrically and engine-driven pumps may be used in circular wells. When engines are used as drivers, the engines are housed in a separate aboveground rectangular structure due to the limited space within a circular caisson.

c. Submergence

The effectiveness of the layout and pump operation depends largely on supplying ample submergence for the pumps. Submergence requirements should be met by deepening the caisson.

d. Trash Racks

If trash racks are provided, they may be placed at the inlet side of the sump or in a forebay or separate well. The trash racks should be easily assessable due to the relatively small trash and debris storage capability provided in the caisson.

e. Housing

As with vertical pumps in rectangular wells, the pump house encloses the motors and other station equipment above the wet well.

f. Access

Provision must be made for access ladders, access holes, power operated crane hoists and disposal of debris. There should also be access to the area around the pump intakes for clearing and maintenance.

g. Provisions for Sediment-Laden Water

A quantity of the sand and silt that enters the station through the pit inlets passes immediately through the pumps. For circular wet wells, provisions to reduce potential problems with sediment include:

- providing a separate well with sump pump with a lower floor than the main pumping well (s) to collect sediment,
- using the storage system as a stilling area and making provision for removing the sediment, and
- sloping the walls and minimizing horizontal floor space.

In addition, for vertical pumps it will be preferable to provide a pump lineshaft enclosing tube packed with light hydraulic grease and individual grease lines for each pump bowl bearing, with grease seals to limit entrance of silt.

3. Submersible Pumps in Rectangular Wells

Rectangular pump pits provide the most favorable conditions for flow into and through the pit for submersible pumps. Large pumps can be considered to have an individual capacity of greater than 680 m³/hour (3000 gpm). The large vertical submersible pumps used in the rectangular pit configuration may have as many as ten starts per hour. The relatively high allowable number of cycles results in a lower required storage volume than required for vertical pumps. The pumps are hung inside plastic piping and can be lifted from access holes above the wet well. Divider walls help distribute the inflow and reduce the potential for vortex formation.

a. Housing

No elements of the wet well need appear above ground, so it is common to provide a separate pump house for the controls, generator, and other equipment. Alignment, flow distribution and clearance considerations are similar to those described here. It is common and desirable to use an inlet chamber.

b. Inlet Chamber

An inlet chamber prevents the inflow from directly splashing into the pump chamber and conveying air along with it. An overhang or hanging baffle at the inlet of smaller pipes may be selected to prevent the incoming water from directly splashing into the pump chamber. For larger systems, the intake structures should be designed with adequate width and depth to limit the maximum pump approach velocities to 0.5m/s (1.5 ft/sec). The horizontal axis of the inlet structure should be perpendicular to the horizontal axis of the pumps and be positioned to ensure even distribution of flow to the pumps without incurring eddies.

4. Submersible Pumps in Circular Wells

Normally, there should be a minimum of two pumps installed in the well, even though a single pump may provide the desired capacity. Figure 13-?? shows a sample layout in which submersible pumps are placed in several circular wet wells. The first wet well (Figure 13-77) acts as a sump for a sump pump and the other two wells house the main pumps. Figure 13-78 Sample layout for submersible pumps in circular caissons.

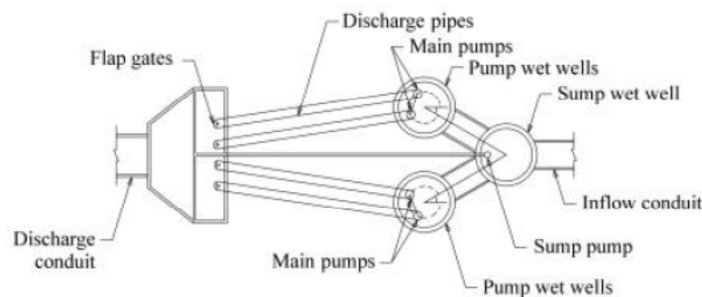


Figure 13.77: Sample layout for submersible pumps in circular caissons

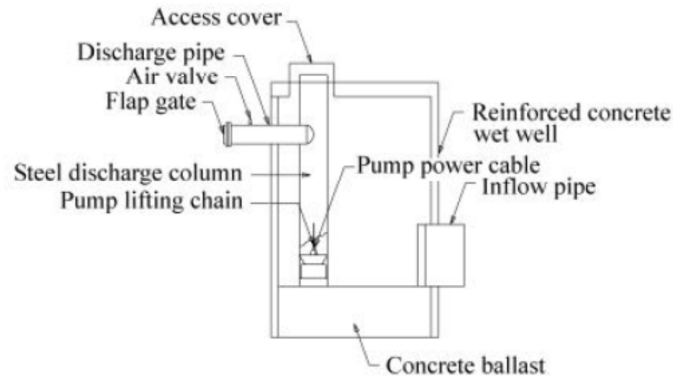


Figure 13.78: Circular wet well with submersible pumps – elevation

a. Construction

A primary advantage of circular caissons is the efficiency with which they can be constructed. Typically precast units are aligned and sunk into the ground. Additional sections may be added as the first section is lowered. The base is filled with in-situ concrete to provide ballast as well as the sump floor.

b. Storage Requirements

Small submersible pumps usually have a capacity of 680 m³/hr (3000 gp m) or less. Generally, for small submersible pumps, cycle times can be as low as 2 minutes, resulting in significantly smaller system storage requirements than other types of pump. Similarly, larger submersible pumps have shorter minimum cycle times than many other pumps because of the cooling resulting from the stormwater. This makes their use preferable for situations in which there is little or no provision for storage other than that provided by the wet well. However, for the larger systems, storage outside the wet wells will reduce the size of the pumps and is typically cost effective.

c. Pump Elevations

Some agencies may set the pumps at different elevations within the caisson not only to provide for low-flow conditions but also to guard against the build-up of sand or silt in the bottom of the pit, thereby reducing the risk of damage to all the pumps. However, the pump set at the lowest elevation may experience excessive wear because it must always be the first and last to operate. Therefore, a preferred approach is to set all the main pumps at the same elevation and add a pump of smaller capacity than the main pumps.

d. Pump Configuration

Submersible pumps usually have bottom suction and side discharge. The motor is commonly mounted vertically above the volute. The impeller is then directly mounted on the motor shaft extension. The motor also may be mounted horizontally, in which case water is drawn axially past the motor and through the propeller into the discharge line.

e. Housing

Housing may not need to be above ground if controls can be placed in a confined space with minimal spacing. The arrangement of the pumps in circular caissons makes

the removal of any pump for maintenance or inspection easy. Removal becomes necessary especially when the build-up of sand and silt reaches sufficient quantity. The accessibility of the pumps makes the clean out of the station a relatively simple operation. An agitating system may be provided for a simple pit or caisson to ensure that the sump is cleaned. The agitating system involves piping water into the caisson and installing a spray ring system to agitate any sand and silt prior to starting the pumps. Sediment accumulation can be reduced by using sloping walls and minimizing the amount of horizontal floor area.

f. Sump Pump

Some agencies prefer to place a sump pump either at the lowest point of the main pump wet well or in a separate sump chamber. The layout shown in Figure 13-12 has a separate wet well that is used as a sump. Figure 13-79 shows a sample detail of a sump pump in a circular caisson.

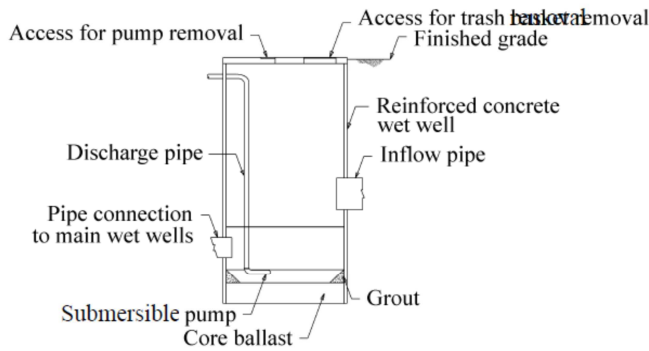


Figure 13.79: Circular caisson sump with submersible pump

13.19.3.2. Dry-Pit Stations

The dry-pit station comprises two main chambers: a dry well and a wet well. The stormwater enters the station and is stored in the wet well. The wet well is usually separated from the dry well by a wall and is connected to the dry well by a suction line for each pump. The stormwater pumps and controls are located on the floor of the dry well. Power to the pumps is provided by either close-coupled motors in the dry well or long drive-shafts with the motors located overhead.

1. Dry Well

The area of the dry well is usually rectangular in shape and the size depends on the number of pumps installed in the well. The standard design usually calls for a minimum of two pumps in series. Pumps are usually of the horizontal centrifugal non-clog type. This type of pump is suited for stormwater applications because it is resistant to wear from abrasion. The pumps are oriented to provide both a clockwise and counter-clockwise rotation to permit a symmetrical pumping arrangement. The small size of the centrifugal pumps allows close spacing of the pumps. Another advantage is the compact layout of the dry well, of which only a small portion is occupied by the access shafts and switchgear. Dry wells for dry-pit stations with vertical centrifugal angle flow pumps, or vertical shaft centrifugal volute-type pumps as they are also called, are usually more costly and require greater maintenance than stations with horizontal shaft pumps. The reason for the added expense and increased maintenance is the long drive

shaft required between the pump and the motor. The shaft is commonly a source of trouble due to vibration.

2. Wet Well for Dry-Pit Station

Wet wells for dry-pit stations are usually sized only large enough to meet minimum sump clearance criteria. The storage requirement for pump cycling criteria is met by designing a storage unit or larger collection system. The intake to the wet well should be designed to ensure even distribution of flow to all the pumps. The bottom of the wet well is often dished in order to direct the water to the suction line.

3. Storage Unit

The storage unit for this arrangement is usually a multiple-barrel culvert (Figure 13-80) and usually connects to the wet well without obstruction. The unit is set to a recommended slope of 2 percent to minimize the potential for settlement of solids. The pumps effect an almost complete emptying of the storage unit and sump with this configuration.

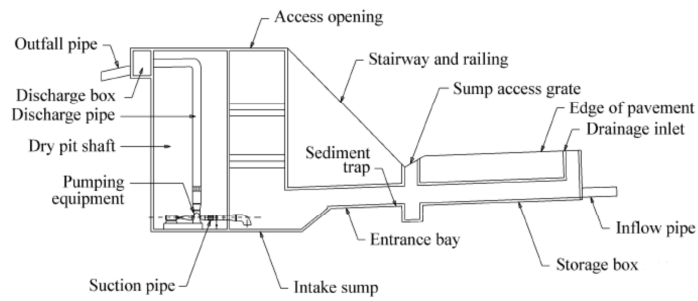


Figure 13.80: Typical storage unit and dry-pit station

13.19.4. Comparison of Pit Types

The following sections cover the advantages and disadvantages of wet-pit and dry-pit stations.

13.19.4.1. Dry-Pit Station

1. Advantages of Dry-Pit Station

The advantages of selecting a dry-pit station include:

- availability of a dry area for personnel to remove pumps or perform routine and emergency pump and pipe maintenance,
- ease of access for repair and maintenance, and
- protection of equipment from fire and explosion.

2. Disadvantages of Dry-Pit Station

Some of the disadvantages of selecting a dry-pit station are that:

- construction is more expensive than wet-pit stations, and
- they usually require a larger plan area than wet-pit stations.

13.19.4.2. Wet-Pit Station

1. Advantages of Wet-Pit Station

Advantages of selecting a wet-pit station are that:

- some configurations require less surface area than dry-pit stations,
- they are generally less expensive to construct than dry-pit stations, and
- they allow for simpler details.

2. Disadvantages of Wet-Pit Station

Some disadvantages of selecting a wet-pit station include:

- more limited access to pumps for maintenance than for dry-pit stations, and
- required evacuation of water in wet well for pump maintenance.

13.19.5. Pump Station Design Process

13.19.5.1. Layouts and Details

Site-specific layouts, special details, and standard details should include the following:

- general site layout,
- collection system plan, profile, and details,
- storage unit plan, elevation, and details
- well plan, elevation, and details,
- pump house plan, elevation, and details,
- discharge piping and outfall plan, profile, and details, and
- electrical and mechanical plans and details.

13.19.5.2. Specifications, Provisions and General Notes

The designer should used standard specifications to the maximum degree practicable.

However, pump stations will usually require special specifications, special provisions, and general notes to include items such as:

- pump performance specifications and tolerances,
- pump installation and testing, and
- special construction requirements.

Additionally, it is recommended practice to establish an operation and procedures manual during Plans, Specification and Estimates (PS&E) that is to be used after construction of the pump station.

13.19.5.3. Design Review

The highway agency should provide an internal review of the design to ensure:

- adequacy of assumptions and criteria,
- accuracy of calculations and details,
- compliance with design criteria, policy and regulations, and
- conformance with any commitments made in environmental documents (including

Environmental Impact Statement or Environmental Assessment).

13.19.6. Construction and Testing

This phase, though typically beyond the scope of the designer's responsibilities, must be considered by the designer. Close coordination is required between construction personnel and designers to ensure that the design makes appropriate accommodation for construction needs and that any lessons learned from construction can be transferred to the designers. Pump performance tests are conducted in place to ensure that pumps perform as specified. Periodic tests during the operational life of the station are appropriate to check continued operating efficiency of the pumping station.

13.19.7. Operation and Maintenance Phase

Operation and maintenance of pump stations involves frequent inspection, monitoring, and maintenance. The highway agency should establish operation and maintenance procedures and schedules. Some agencies perform their own inspection and maintenance, while others pass on these responsibilities to local agencies or independent contractors.

13.19.8. Retrofitting Stage

The retrofit stage is inevitable for all stations that ultimately are not completely replaced. Retrofit involves replacing various components of the pump station, usually the pumps themselves. Hopefully this stage is only necessary because the components of the station have passed their design life expectancy.

13.20. DESIGN OF CONSTRUCTION

13.20.1. Construction Process

During the construction phase of a tunnel project, the following three functions affect work progress:

13.20.1.1. Prediction

The designer predicts ground and tunnel behavior consistent with assumptions upon which the design is based. Economic construction should depend on a plan of phased progressive exploration, where work is prepared to different degrees of detail for different distances (and times) ahead; this plan is based on the progressive acquisition of knowledge, conceived as a phased qualitative improvement of predictive information (Figure 13.81), as discussed below:

1. Phase 1

This period provides general guidance for 3-6 months ahead to ensure availability of special plant and equipment ahead of requirement at the phase.

2. Phase 2

This period provides guidance for a period of days ahead and indicates specific departures from recent experience or the need for special expedients.

3. Phase 3

This period provides the most specific guidance for the immediate shift working (a sufficiently precise nature of the problem to design the solution).

13.20.1.2. Execution

Construction is planned to take account of predictions, with regard to overall safety and security of the works and economy of the operation. Tunnel construction methods may be classified with respect to the degree of robustness across variations of ground (see [Figure 13.82](#)):

Tolerance: ability to operate within a wide range of ground conditions, implying immediate acceptability of a certain range of conditions;

Adaptability: ability to be modified, without appreciable cost or delay, to meet foreseen variations in ground conditions, implying the ability to accept a certain range of conditions.

[Figure 13.82](#) assumes that each example method illustrated is limited by a value of ground strength, q_u , adequate for stability; and by upper limits of q_u related to inherent strength and RQD.

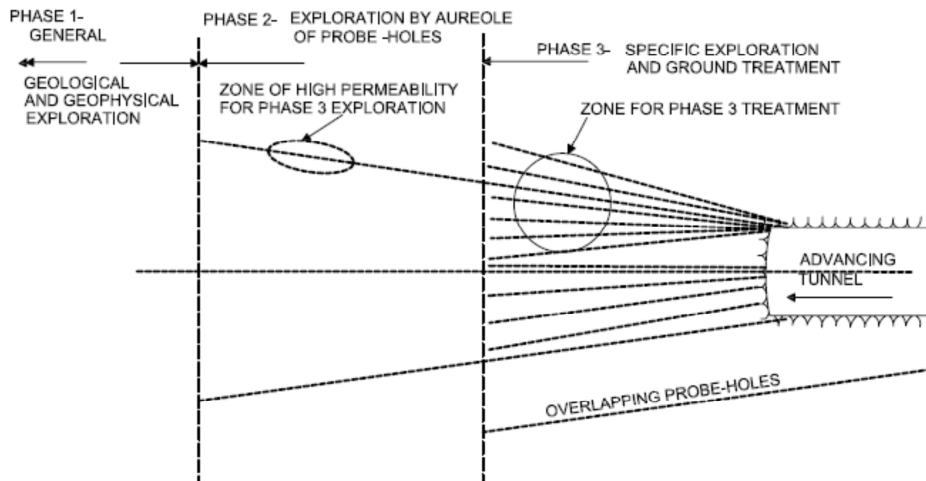


Figure 13.81: Phases in Progressive Exploration (After Wood, 2000).

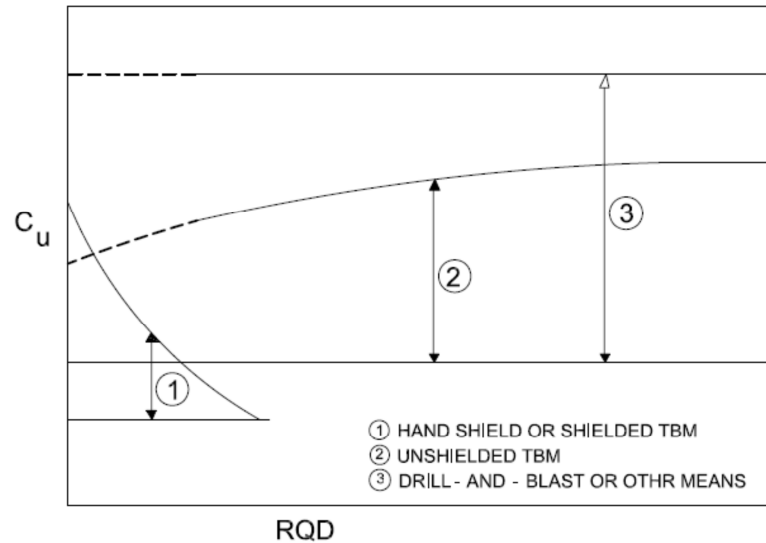


Figure 13.82: Examples of Tolerance of Methods of Tunneling (After Wood, 2000)

13.20.1.3. Observation

Construction inspection, which may include provision of design data to permit refinement of the initial design (see [Figure 13.83](#)), includes several functions:

Inspection: ascertains that work is conducted in compliance with specifications supplemented by other particular requirements, including those arising from prediction;

Geological Observation: gives advance warning of unforeseen hazards;

Performance Observation: recording of obvious characteristics of defects, and of movements, strains, stresses, groundwater levels, pore water pressures, etc.

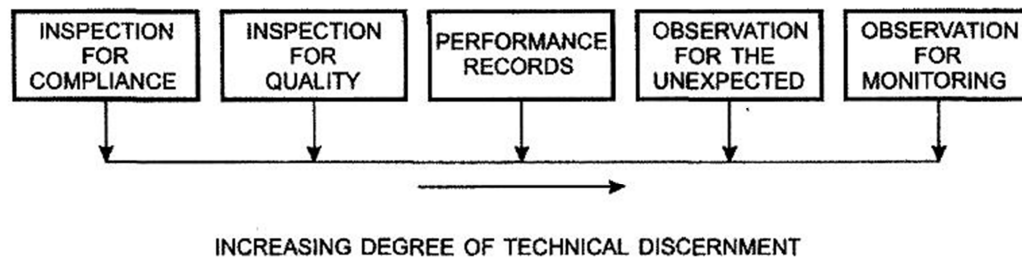


Figure 13.83: Observations of Construction (Wood, 2000)

13.20.2. Bidding Strategy

A bidding strategy should be prepared, whether or not construction is separated contractually from design of the project, where competition is based primarily on price.

Assessment of geological risk should be a central component of the bidding strategy, and may be approached in three elements:

- i. Factual information on geological hazards available to bidders;
- ii. Interpretation of actual data with areas of major uncertainty identified in relation to engineering consequences

- iii. Consideration of the extent of the geological hazard imposed on the bidder by the terms of the contract, giving rise to geological risk when coupled with the preferred method of construction.

Bidding strategy should be dominated by iii) resulting in the following risk sharing scenarios:

- 1) No Risk Sharing - full imposition of geological risk on Contractor, who is expected to take responsibility for circumstances incompatible with data provided by designer(s).
- 2) Protection of Contractor against 'unforeseeable' extreme risk - in the absence of an obligation by the Engineer to reveal his understanding of 'foreseeable' at bid time, there remains problems in interpretation of 'foreseeable' risk.
- 3) Equitable Risk Sharing - elements of geological hazard of major importance to a preferred scheme of construction and to its cost are identified, with reimbursement based on stated Reference Conditions.

The Contractor must be prepared, in turn, to provide, from time to time, details of his proposals for undertaking the work in sufficient detail to permit assessments against any particular interests of the Owner which might be affected.

13.20.3. Choice of Method

The choice of method is usually dictated by the degree of certainty to which potential geologic problems may be identified and located, and should include consideration of the following factors:

- Ground conditions
- Continuous tunnel length of a particular size;
- Extent of inter-connection between tunnels;
- Useful tunneled space in relation to practicable tunnel profiles;
- Value of time;
- Spacing between tunnels;
- Local experience and maintenance facilities;
- Accessibility of project;
- Environmental concerns.

For overall project economy and optimal construction strategy, there needs to be clear mutual understanding of the significance of the factors listed above.

Details on the possible significance of each of these factors are given in **Wood (2000)**.

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